PREDICTING BURNOUT IN HIGH-SCHOOL JOURNALISM TEACHERS:

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

Gretchen B. Sparling, B.A.

Thesis Prepared for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

December 2011

APPROVED:

Koji Fuse, Committee Chair
Tracy Everbach, Committee Member
James Mueller, Committee Member
Roy Busby, Director of the Frank W. Mayborn Graduate Institute of Journalism and Interim Dean of the Frank W. and Sue Mayborn School of Journalism
James D. Meernik, Acting Dean of the Toulouse Graduate School
Sparling, Gretchen B. Predicting Burnout in High-school Journalism Teachers: An Exploratory Study. Master of Arts (Journalism), December 2011, 76 pages total, 6 tables, references, 150 titles.

This research investigated high-school journalism educators’ use and teaching of convergence technology, as well as their self-efficacy, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, and burnout. In general, instructions and uses of multimedia tools were not as prevalent as traditional-journalism instructions and tools. One-third of the teachers expressed moderate or strong levels of burnout in terms of their emotional exhaustion. Although both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were strong predictors of burnout, self-efficacy was not. Job dissatisfaction was the strongest predictor of burnout, but contrary to the past research, gender turned out to be the second strongest predictor. Qualitative in-depth interviews with a controlled random sampling of survey respondents revealed that maternal mindset and gender roles strongly contribute to female high-school journalism teachers’ expressed burnout and emotional exhaustion.
Copyright 2011

by

Gretchen B. Sparling
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper is dedicated to the loving memory of Dr. Wanda Mary Warner, whose insatiable love for learning will always be a source of inspiration, admiration, and motivation.

This research would not have been possible without the 24-7 assistance of Dr. Koji Fuse. Thank you for your patience and support.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .................................................................................................................. iii

LIST OF TABLES .............................................................................................................................. vi

INTRODUCTION ............................................................................................................................. 1

LITERATURE REVIEW ................................................................................................................... 3
  Journalism Industry .................................................................................................................. 3
  Journalism Education Curriculum .......................................................................................... 6
  Self-Efficacy ........................................................................................................................... 9
  Job Satisfaction ...................................................................................................................... 13
  Burnout ................................................................................................................................. 16
  Feminism ............................................................................................................................... 21

QUANTITATIVE INQUIRY ........................................................................................................... 26
  Research Questions and Hypotheses .................................................................................... 26
  Survey Procedure .................................................................................................................. 28
  Survey Sample Characteristics ............................................................................................ 29
  Survey Measures ................................................................................................................... 29
  Quantitative Results .............................................................................................................. 33
  Quantitative Discussion ......................................................................................................... 38

QUALITATIVE INQUIRY ............................................................................................................. 42
  Interviewee Selection .............................................................................................................. 42
  Interview Sample Characteristics .......................................................................................... 42
  Interview Measures and Procedure ....................................................................................... 47
**LIST OF TABLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1</td>
<td>Factor Loadings for Principal Components Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Journalism Teachers’ Skill-Based Self-Efficacy Scale</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2</td>
<td>Factor Loadings for Principal Components Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Teacher Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Scale</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3</td>
<td>Factor Loadings for Principal Components Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Journalism Skills Taught in Classrooms</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4</td>
<td>Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Burnout From Demographics and School Profile, Teacher Profile, New Technology, Self-Efficacy, and Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5</td>
<td>Controlled Sampling of Respondents for In-Depth Interviews</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 6</td>
<td>Interview Questions</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION

Change describes the current climate of the journalism industry, as well as journalism education. Exhaustive literature discusses technology’s role in changing print, broadcast, radio, and online news media (see Baldwin, McVoy, & Steinfield, 1996; Gordon, 2003). Other factors, like the nation’s waning economy, also play an undoubted role in shuttering magazines, cutting newspaper staffs, and accelerating media conglomerations. However, technology shapes not only the future of the industry but also that of college and high-school journalism education.

Just like the current decline of the nation’s print newspapers, high-school journalism programs are declining (Roschke, 2009). Approximately 20% of U.S. high schools are without a newspaper (Klos, 2001) although, in 1998, nearly 97% of U.S. high schools offered journalism courses for credit (Dvorak, 1998). School budget cuts, staffing shortages, and school administration’s growing focus on test performance are just a few of the culprits (Klos, 2001).

Yet, recent studies have shown a positive correlation between scholastic journalism activities and other academic measures, such as students’ ACT scores and grade point average (see Dvorak & Choi, 2009). Other research indicates a causal relationship: High-school students who are active in journalism, whether it is yearbook or newspaper participation, outperform non-journalism students on Advanced Placement testing (Dvorak, 1998). What’s more, Lowrey and Becker (2004) suggest that a student’s participation in high-school journalism activities positively correlates to a student’s college-level pursuit of journalism.

Despite what some might consider a high-stress teaching environment because of its deadline-driven nature, high-school newspaper advisers report little to no burnout; they express high levels of personal accomplishment (Reinardy, Maksl, & Filak, 2009). Additionally, high-school journalism teachers indicate high-levels of job satisfaction in comparison to other secondary-education teachers, noting morale as the leading predictor of teachers’ satisfaction (Dvorak & Phillips, 2001). What’s more, teachers’ morale positively influences on students’ learning (Lumsden, 1998).

Teachers are also keeping up with industry changes. Recent research suggests that
scholastic journalism teachers recognize the importance of convergence skills and are implementing some convergence concepts in their current curricula (Roschke, 2009). Yet, with rapid technological changes, this research aims to examine how high-school journalism teachers’ burnout levels are faring with additional pressures to incorporate technology and media convergence lessons in their journalism curricula. In addition, because not much information about high-school journalism teachers is available regarding their convergence curricula, this research attempts to fill the information gap by conducting a national survey.

The survey examined teachers’ expressed feelings of burnout, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and job dissatisfaction. For teacher’s job satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and burnout, this survey utilized reliable 7-point scales first utilized in research by Beam, Kim, and Voakes (2003) among college journalism professors. Additionally, respondents revealed information about their school’s journalism program, their advisory roles with student news media, the frequency of teaching tools used within the classroom (ranging from the AP Stylebook to Blogger.com), and demographic information.

The national survey produced contradictory results to previous research on high-school journalism teachers’ burnout levels. In the study by Reinardy, Maksl, and Filak (2009), high-school journalism advisers reported little to no experienced burnout and high levels of personal accomplishment. However, this research indicates that respondents, high-school journalism teachers (the vast majority of whom also serve as student-media advisers), are experiencing high levels of emotional exhaustion and burnout. Job dissatisfaction was the most significant predictor of burnout, followed closely by gender. In this study, females are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion or burnout; yet, in Reinardy et al.’s study (2009), there was no difference shown between men and women’s experienced burnout. Therefore, a triangulation of qualitative research was added to this study to offer further insight into why female journalism teachers are more likely to experience burnout.
LITERATURE REVIEW

In examining the construct of burnout and the possible predictors of burnout among high-school journalism teachers, it is important to first examine the journalism industry, convergence, and journalism education, as well as the theoretical constructs of self-efficacy, job satisfaction, burnout, and feminism. These constructs will be defined, followed by a review of literature on each topic related to this study.

Journalism Industry

Seventy years ago, journalism was pretty simple: “Get all the facts and write them clearly,” wrote Stanley Walker (1934), the New York Herald Tribune’s city editor, on his profession (p. 44). Journalists were simply people who provide trusted information (Hayes, Singer, & Ceppos, 2007). Yet the notions of trustworthiness and clarity do not often appear on the current public opinion of the journalism industry today. In fact, the Pew Research Center (2007) found widespread public distrust in the media. Yet, media still maintain their role as informer of the masses in social, political, and cultural forums across the globe (Luhmann, 2000).

In the last 70 years, it is no surprise that the journalism industry has significantly changed. While, traditionally, journalists are thought to practice ethical information-gathering and reporting values, such as verification of facts, non-bias writing, and disclosure of any conflicts of interest, today’s journalists must meet a growing number of new challenges in the media environment. These changes include, but are not limited to, a significant number of Americans who report that the Internet is their source of daily information (Pew Research Center, 2011).

According to the World Association of Newspapers (2008), 44% of international newspaper editors believe that in 10 years most people will receive their news exclusively on the World Wide Web. The digitalization of newsrooms has been one of the most pervasive transformations in all realms of media since the 1970s (Picard & Brody, 1997; Weaver &
Wilhoit, 1986). Yet, Sylvie and Witherspoon (2002) note that journalism has always been affected by technology—the telegraph, the telephone, and now the computer.

The push toward digitizing journalism and news distribution spurs a number of new challenges for current and rising journalists, such as a shifting audience, distribution technology, credibility, and the 24-7 news cycle. In a climate where most Americans distrust the media (Pew Research Center, 2007), “trust is earned through the regular provision of information that is credible, an inextricable interconnection of roles, values, and content” (Hayes et al., 2007), and the role of information producer and consumer are now interchangeable—particularly with the rise of news Web blogs.

The professional journalist isn’t the only trusted source for credible news; the public, mainly news bloggers, will fact-check articles by major news outlets, causing irreparable damage to the credibility of the online journalist when facts are incorrect (Martin & Johnson, 2010). Transparency was once the role of reporters, yet now this transparency is shifting to bloggers who are taking over the role as watchdogs (Mitchelle & Steele, 2005). But the journalism industry isn’t sitting back on its heels; it’s taking action and trying to carve out a place for a new, modern journalism that Americans will still regard as the “Fourth Estate.”

The journalism industry is adjusting the way it delivers content not just because of shifting technologies. Audiences are shifting, too. According to The State of the News Media 2010, only digital (online) and cable news experienced audience growth between 2008 and 2009 (Pew Project for Excellence in Journalism, 2010). Enter “convergence.” The term convergence is a hotly debated topic among journalism practitioners and journalism teachers. As a result, various definitions of the term are available.

In the U.S. media landscape, according to Quinn (2005), convergence occurs when organizations of different media, such as TV stations and newspaper publishers, partner together as a way to lower costs and heighten efficiencies. Other researchers define convergence with a focus on journalists’ roles within the newsroom. Lowrey, Daniels, and Becker (2005) define convergence as the “merging of specialized knowledge areas associated with organizational
work for the particular media platforms” (p. 33). Lawson-Borders (2003) places the Internet at the center of these merging media, stating that convergence methods “deliver content on multiple platforms through computer-driven distribution systems” (p. 92).

In fact, aligning with Lawson-Borders’ claim (2003) that the Internet is at the center of the convergence drive, Thornton and Keith (2009) suggest that there is a decline in print-broadcast convergence. Instead, most TV stations and print newspapers and magazines were marrying more content on the Web; this is what Thornton and Keith (2009) call “Webvergence,” where the TV station or newspaper produces multimedia for its own Web sites.

Convergence, while it sounds as if it is a way to make the industry more efficient and nimble, also creates some problems for the industry. When media companies attempt to “digitize” job descriptions in the newsroom, this causes some job tasks to be transferred or merged into existing positions, some tasks are added to new positions, while other positions are eliminated (Rintala & Soulanen, 2005). Paired with a downtrodden U.S. economy, the convergence boom, which began in the early 1990s with the rise in Internet use—has been greeted with “appalling” job losses in the newspaper, magazine, broadcast, and radio sectors of the industry (Mandel, 2009). The Internet publishing and broadcasting sector of the journalism job market does show a limited up-tick in jobs, according to Mandel (2009), a BusinessWeek columnist; yet, he reports, “The problem is that the numbers are rising, but slowly—and we still haven’t recovered back to the peak levels” (p. 2).

In the 1980s, journalism schools at higher-education universities and colleges saw a rise in admissions (Schulte & Warwick Blood, 1980; Peterson, 1981/1983) to greet a rise in available jobs. Whereas in 2009, the enrollment of journalism students in higher education slowed its previous rate of growth along with the job availability in the industry; Becker, Vlad, and Olin (2009) suggests the slower growth rate signaled a weakening demand: fewer students pursing journalism as a career. Yet, Becker et al. (2009) also estimates that universities and colleges granted 55,056 journalism and mass communication degrees in the 2007-2008 academic year.
While the growth of journalism schools may have slowed a bit, there are still large numbers of degrees achieved by students in the United States.

With changes occurring in the news industry (including a shortage of jobs), journalists face new demands when entering the media workforce. While online media companies expect new employees to possess traditional journalism skills, these companies also recommend rising journalists to seek knowledge in an array of digital skills, including online reporting, in order to “be more competitive on the job market” (Fahmy, 2008, p. 35). In addition, Lowrey and Becker (2001) have discovered that a student’s degree of skill with presentation technology significantly impacts job-finding success, even after controlling for GPA, education sequence, internships, and college activities. The skills required to become a journalist are changing, which means journalism schools must also change to keep up with the industry.

Journalism Education Curriculum

One of the first major drives to professionalize journalism as an occupation, versus a trade, was made by Joseph Pulitzer, who donated $2 million to Columbia University, where a journalism program was established in 1912 (Cushion, 2007; Mensing, 2010). Pulitzer believed students should learn core academic subjects—not just journalistic technique—such as ethics, literature, history, sociology, economics, statistics and modern languages” (Pulitzer, 1904). Since Pulitzer’s work at Columbia University’s journalism school, much has changed in the way journalism schools prepare students for a career in journalism. Journalism education involves university programs that stress the importance of both news and editorial courses, as well as research in journalism and mass communication (Mensing, 2010).

According to Becker, Fruit, and Caudill (1987, p. 19), “The goal of journalism education … is to produce an individual who can effectively and efficiently function in the occupations of journalism and mass communications.” But, before Pulitzer, many believed journalism was a trade occupation best learned “on the beat” (Cushion, 2007). Curriculum in journalism education was born from the “age of the reporter;” argues Carey (2000), a time in which journalists found information, wrote said information in an accurate story, and distributed the story as quickly as
possible to mass audiences via mass media.

Today, the aim of journalism schools remains fairly similar: train students to work for newspapers (Becker, 2003; Dickson, 2000). While schools also include broadcast, public relations, advertising, design, and management training, the emphasis remains on reporting. The role of the reporter remains a central theme in journalism courses; in fact, the core subject matter in journalism textbooks have changed very little in more than 50 years (Brennan, 2000). The focus is placed on teaching students how to write, report, and produce stories. In addition, journalism education also stresses the importance of socialization of future journalists via internships and practical training (Mensing, 2010).

Yet, the Internet is changing the way reporters glean information and facts, as well as the way audiences consume and pay for the news. Journalism education has historically come under fire by journalists and academics for concentrating on the reporting skills and techniques (Dickson, 2000). Mensing (2010) argues: “Students now need to develop a different set of skills to deal with information abundance, network distribution, intense competition and a communication process that is interactive, asynchronous and nearly free” (p. 515). In fact, without addressing these changes, Mensing (2010) suggests the university’s credibility will slowly decline.

As technological advances occur regularly and rapidly, the debate thickens over how to best prepare students for a journalism career. Dickson and Brandon (2000) found a gap between educators’ expectations of journalism education versus professional journalists’ expectations, yet the gap is “not particularly wide” (p. 65). This research found that journalism skills, including editing, writing, and design, were given higher priority among both professionals and educators than more general media studies (Dickson & Brandon, 2000). This is important to note because it places design at the core of journalism education—a facet of the industry that is seeing increasing changes because of rapid use of design technology software.

In fact, Adams and Voynich (2008) suggest that most journalism schools, whether accredited or not, require students to take design courses as a part of their journalism degree,
with InDesign as the most prevalent software. The presence of such technology in the college classroom “will allow educational institutions to provide well-trained and adaptable journalists in a technologically advancing field” (Adams & Voynich, 2008, p. 52).

Huang et al. (2006) report that from 1998 to 2002, approximately 60% of college-level journalism schools either redesigned current curricula or developed new classes to help prepare students for multiplatform media practices in the industry. Approximately 84% of professors sampled in their research report that they added media-convergence content to their existing courses or to new courses in the past five years. Huang et al. (2006) suggest that “dealing with media convergence in college journalism education is an urgent necessity” to make students “better qualify for cross-media jobs in the future” (p. 254).

On the other hand, Huang et al. (2006) found that in teaching media convergence, college educators experience their share of challenges, including lack of faculty’s willingness to cooperate, expertise, interest, and time. In the search for pedagogical solutions to these challenges, journalism schools adopted team teaching and interdisciplinary approaches to incorporating convergence into existing curricula (Kraeplin & Criado, 2005). However, as noted by Auman and Lillie (2008), these teaching methods introduce frustration and stress from both faculty members and students. Other technology-induced stresses challenge professors, as well.

Beam et al. (2003) suggest that college educators’ job satisfaction decreases as job dissatisfaction and burnout increase because of rising technology stressors, which include outdated technology, inadequate support staff, the need for training, the need to keep up with technological resources, difficulty in getting instruction on technology, the need to teach courses with unfamiliar technology, and time lost to teaching or research because of technological failures. In a 2003 study examining the difference of male and female faculty’s experienced stress as it relates to new technology, women report high levels of experienced stress due to their use of technology and their sense of alienation (for their less-than-savvy skills) by male colleagues (Ogan & Chung, 2003).

Despite the challenges presented by infusing current or new curricula with convergence
concepts, Lowrey et al. (2005) suggest that smaller college journalism programs pursue converged curricula at a greater rate than larger, more mainstreamed programs. These smaller programs adopt new curricula at a quicker rate because smaller programs are “less structurally complex and have less rigidly different tracks, and potentially this would make it easier to converge” (Lowrey et al., 2005, p. 42). This appears evident in high-school journalism classrooms, what some consider smaller programs, although these programs educate a younger student body with different educational standards. Roschke (2009) suggests that although convergence at the high-school level is in its infancy, “high-school journalism educators are also creating convergence programs in an attempt to keep up with university programs and the professional media industry” (p. 63). High-school journalism classrooms are beginning to employ convergence concepts including: uploading PDF versions of newspapers to the Web; using a website hosting template; using design software, including photo and video editing (Roschke, 2009).

However, additional research is needed to find out the degree of prevalence of collaborative teaching to compensate for possible inadequacies of existing high-school journalism teachers to teach multimedia courses and identify the rate of their adoption of new technologies and convergence in their classrooms.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy finds its roots in the social cognitive theory, as described by Albert Bandura (2009). According to him, humans proactively learn new things through social and symbolic modeling, adapt to the environment, and change their behaviors within the framework of triadic reciprocal causation: “personal factors in the form of cognitive, affective, and biological events; behavioral patterns; and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants that influence each other bidirectionally” (p. 94). Perceived self-efficacy, therefore, arises from four diverse sources of information originated in direct and mediated experiences, including performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977).
Performance accomplishments (or mastery experiences) are the most powerful source of efficacy, according to Bandura (1977, 1986). These experiences and achievements raise efficacy beliefs and contribute to a person’s expectations for future performances. Vicarious experiences, on the other hand, shift the focus from the learner to a person modeling desired knowledge or behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1986). When the model performs a task successfully, the learner’s expectations for his or her own performances increase; however, when the model demonstrates failure, the learner’s expectations decrease. Social persuasion is any type of verbal encouragement, such as praise, congratulations, and celebration of an achievement, and the power of the encouragement depends on the person delivering the message. The more trustworthy or credible, the higher the learner’s response to the praise, thus, raising self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Last, emotional arousal triggers anxiety or excitement over success or failure. These feelings add to the feeling of mastering a task or failing at a task.

Bandura (1997) defines perceived self-efficacy as a person’s belief in his or her ability to organize and complete courses of action required to achieve goals. He goes on to note that people with stronger perceived self-efficacy experience lower levels of stress because of their belief in their abilities to cope.

Bandura (1997) applied his theories and research on self-efficacy to the education industry. In schools, he writes, conditions are just right to “erode teachers’ sense of efficacy and occupational satisfaction” (p. 244). Based on social cognitive theory, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) conceptualize teacher self-efficacy as “individual teachers’ beliefs in their own ability to plan, organize, and carry out activities that are required to attain given educational goals” (p. 1059).

Applying the social-cognitive theory and Bandura’s research on self-efficacy, researchers examined the education sphere and determined that teacher self-efficacy consists of three domains (according to Cherniss, 1993): a task, or the teacher’s skill in teaching; interpersonal relationships, or the teacher’s ability to work with others (including students, colleagues, parents, and administrators); and organizational ability, or a teacher’s ability to influence the
organization. These sub-domains of efficacy result in a total perceived self-efficacy of teachers.

On top of managing a classroom, educating young minds, and navigating the ever-changing minefield of school administrations, add high levels of stress to the mix. Chaplain (2008) suggests that teaching is a stressful occupation. These stressors pose a risk to teachers’ self-efficacy. When teachers are stressed or feeling negative emotions due to their workload (Kyriacou, 2001), teachers experience lower levels of self-efficacy (Betoret, 2006; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Here is where gender comes into play, too. Greenglass and Burke (2003) suggest that female teachers experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion (an element of burnout related to stress) than male teachers.

The researchers suggest one of several causes for this phenomenon with the greatest emphasis on the inequities in workload, both paid and unpaid labor (Greenglass & Burke, 2003). Chaplain (2008) and Klassen et al. (2010) both concur. Also, Klassen et al. (2010) adds that higher job stress for female teachers was also due to student misbehavior. So, while female teachers are more stressed out, they’re taking their students’ behavior more personally, internalizing the behavior problems at a greater rate than their male colleagues (Hopf & Hatzichristou, 1999).

On the notion of emotional exhaustion, research indicates a negative relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and expressed burnout (Evers et al., 2002; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007, 2010). Brouwers and Tomic (2000) note that self-efficacy beliefs specific to classroom management of students’ behavior were significantly related to levels of teachers’ perceived burnout. However, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) note this relationship is not proven to be causally linked; rather, they suspect a reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy and burnout.

Research on teacher self-efficacy also predicts teachers’ attitudes toward new innovations and change within curricula (Fuchs et al., 1992). Allinder (1994) found that teachers with highly rated self-efficacy were more prepared and willing to implement new educational practices. According to Allinder (1994), teachers who indicated high levels of self-efficacy were more
likely to try different ways of teaching, as well as to be confident and enthusiastic about teaching. Similarly, Evers et al. (2002) report that “teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs show a greater readiness to adopt innovative educational practices and are less susceptible to burnout than their counterparts with weak self-efficacy beliefs” (p. 238).

As Saleh (2008) writes, “There is a compelling imperative for higher education institutions to encourage and facilitate their faculty to incorporate technology into their teaching; it’s not a question of “if” but “how soon” (p. 238). Technology, whether it is e-learning, computer-assisted reporting, newspaper and magazine design, or simple word-processing, all depends upon computer usage. And a teacher’s reported high self-efficacy results in a higher commitment and effort to integrate the technology into current instruction (Lin & Lu, 2010).

Computer self-efficacy theory, derived from Bandura’s construct, provides a theoretical basis for technology integration into classroom curriculum and instruction methods (Antonacci, 2002). The technology acceptance model (Davis, 1989) examines how a person begins to accept and use a new technology.

But a teacher’s high self-efficacy is not the only predictor of integration of technology into curriculum. In fact, Albion (2001) suggests that the teacher’s own computer or technology usage is the most significant predictor of technology self-efficacy, or a teacher’s confidence in instructing new technology practices. Additionally, other research shows that users’ individual psychological variables, including demographics, may have varying effects on a person’s acceptance of technology use (Alavi & Joachimsthaler, 1992).

On the note of demographics, Lin and Lu (2010) found that teacher’s age and years of experience as an educator presented an negative relationship on their efforts of technology-instruction integration. What’s more, much has been said about the differences between male and female use of technology.

He and Freeman (2010) found that females express less confidence in their abilities to use computers than their male counterparts. Other research indicates that females are more anxious
around new technology (Beyer, 2008), and that females feel less comfortable with computers than males (Beyer, 2008; Karsten & Schmidt, 2008).

Previous research focused on general teacher self-efficacy, and Beam et al. (2003) discovered relationships among mass-communication faculty’s technology-related stressors, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, and burnout. The most important question, however, is whether or not high-school journalism teachers feel prepared to teach their students about convergence technologies in comparison with traditional-journalism skills.

Job Satisfaction

To be satisfied with one’s occupation, a person must experience a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from their work on the job (Locke, 1976); this is defined as job satisfaction. Exhaustive research examines job satisfaction in a wide span of occupations, from healthcare, construction work, white-collar executives, and more. Other researchers weigh in on the definition of job satisfaction. Gruneberg (1976) found that job satisfaction encompassed the total cluster of feelings someone experiences due to their occupation, including pay, work environment, and the tasks required as part of a person’s job.

On the other hand, Schultz (1982) determined that job satisfaction was a person’s psychological disposition toward their work. Okafor extended this research by defining the antonym of job satisfaction: job dissatisfaction. Okafor (1985) argued something different than Herzberg, suggesting that job dissatisfaction is the negative feelings of a person toward his or her job; these feelings are subjective to a person’s own requirements for fulfillment. In all, job satisfaction overwhelmingly represents a person’s positive or negative evaluation of their job (Weiss, 2002).

Since his seminal work on worker motivation (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), Frederick Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory has inspired many researchers worldwide to empirically test it. According to him, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not bipolar opposites that form a negative relationship; they are independent constructs, implying that the scale correlation must be zero or positive. In other words, increasing workers’ job satisfaction
does not automatically decrease their job dissatisfaction because two different sets of factors separately affect those constructs.

The first set, which is intrinsic to the job and typically related to job satisfaction, involves “motivator factors”: achievement and recognition (Purohit & Lambert, 1983), work itself, responsibility, advancement, and (opportunities for) growth. On the other hand, the second set, which is extrinsic to the job and mostly associated with job dissatisfaction, consists of “hygiene factors”: company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, salary, relationship with peers, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, and (job) security (Herzberg, 1968/2003). According to Wright and Hamilton (1978), the extrinsic rewards of one’s occupation increase with age; as a person ages, the researchers suggest workers become more satisfied with less.

However, Herzberg’s two-factor theory has been criticized since the beginning. Although he used the critical-incident method to allow for respondents’ own narratives about their workplace experiences based on their exceptionally good or bad feelings and conduct post-hoc classification of those “events,” other researchers using different methods, especially a structured survey questionnaire, reached different conclusions: Both motivator and hygiene factors were significantly correlated with satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and overall satisfaction-dissatisfaction scores, which lent support to a uniscaler explanation (Behling et al., 1968).

Other research argues that the facet-specific job satisfaction (levels based on demographics) does not accurately measure the overall sense of a worker’s satisfaction with their job (Moe et al., 2010). Specific to the field of education, Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2010) argue that the facet-specific approach cannot account for teachers in various circumstances.

Nonetheless, Sachu (2007) argues that research in positive psychology, which is the study of positive human attributes (e.g., well-being, optimism, creativity), are consistent with the basic tenets of the motivation-hygiene theory, and thus, it is useful as a general framework or worldview for satisfaction. For instance, money as a hygiene factor will not significantly increase happiness among those who already have their basic needs met.
For educators, Dinham and Scott (1996) argue that three sources of job satisfaction are evident: intrinsic rewards of being an educator; extrinsic factors to the school; and school-based factors. In all, Scott et al. (2001) advocate that the intrinsic factors are what motivates teachers to pursue their profession, working with students and watching them learn and grow.

Historically, teachers in the U.S. exhibit dissatisfaction with their jobs (Heller, 1992). Sweeney (1981) reported that about 25% of teachers were dissatisfied with their jobs. Among teachers, Brunetti (2001) indicates that elementary-school teachers are less satisfied with their jobs than secondary-education teachers. When comparing men and women, female educators are more satisfied with their jobs than their male colleagues (McConaghy, 1993). Other research refutes this finding (Dinham & Scott, 1996).

Additional research aims at finding the predictors of positive job satisfaction among teachers. Administration support is an extremely strong predictor of a teacher’s job satisfaction (Baughman, 1996; Perie & Baker, 1997; Morgan & O’Leary, 2004). Positive social climate also aids job satisfaction (Scheopner, 2010). Furthermore, teachers report lower levels of job dissatisfaction when they have greater autonomy in the classroom (Rathmann, 2002).

Wolpin, Burke, and Greenglass (1991) found a causal relationship among teachers between psychological burnout and job satisfaction, not vice versa. Others (see Cunningham, 1993; Iwanicki, 1983; and Burke & Greenglass, 1988) concur that burnout is causally related to job satisfaction. However, Rottier et al. (1984) argues the opposite: Job satisfaction is a cause of burnout. Wolpin et al. (1991) states that, “A teacher’s dissatisfaction with his/her job increases in proportion to the increase in sources of stress and psychological burnout experienced by him/her” (p. 205).

The reported job satisfaction among high-school journalism teachers is severely lacking in research. Dvorak and Phillips (2001), who used Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory as its foundation, found that journalism educators were generally satisfied with their jobs, more so than other secondary-education teachers. Morale was the most significant predictor of job satisfaction among respondents (Dvorak & Phillips, 2001).
What remains to be answered is how the relatively newfound drive for convergence in the high-school classroom has, if at all, affected journalism educators’ perceived job satisfaction.

**Burnout**

The concept of burnout arose in the late 1960s, when a psychiatrist by the name of Freudenberger was working overtime in a free clinic located within the East Village of New York City. After putting in nights and weekends, one after another, he remembers thinking about his mental and physical state. The job tasks at hand “have become drudgery with no associated feeling of reward,” he wrote (Freudenberger, 1980, p. 3). So, the tired doctor set out to define this state of being, which he later dubbed as feeling “burned-out” (Freudenberger, 1974).

Upon his research further into this phenomenon, Freudenberger (1974) found that a burned-out person exhibits both physical and behavioral signs of burnout. The burned-out person may appear tired, exhausted, or fatigued, experiencing frequent headaches or even sleeplessness. Their behavior includes sharp swings in a person’s emotions, and the “slightest pressure makes him feel overburdened and he yells and screams” (Freudenberger, 1974, p. 160). While the burned-out worker exhibits signs of depression, Freudenberger (1974) also shares that the person “blocks progress and constructive change” (p. 161).

Several years later, Christina Maslach, a social-science researcher at the University of California at Berkley, empirically approached burnout in the American workplace by studying people’s expressed burnout in jobs requiring interaction with other people (Maslach, 1976). Maslach and Jackson (1981) defined burnout as a “syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do ‘people-work’ of some kind” (p. 99).

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) scale was developed to empirically measure both the frequency and the intensity of a worker’s feelings of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Maslach and Jackson (1981) conceptualize burnout as a three-dimensional construct, which includes the following: (1) emotional exhaustion, or feeling exhausted by one’s work; (2) depersonalization, or feeling impersonal toward recipients of one’s service; and (3) personal accomplishment, or reduced feelings of success in one’s work.
The MBI scale has emerged as one of the most widely used scales to reliably measure burnout in human-service industries due to the way each of the three psychological constructs are clearly defined (Abu-Hilal & Salameh, 1992; van Saane et al., 2003). The MBI scale is composed of three subscales, covering the above-listed dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. For both the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales, a higher score reflects a higher degree of experienced burnout, but for the personal accomplishment subscale, a lower score corresponds to a higher degree of experienced burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Emotional exhaustion is the most commonly expressed feeling of workers who are burned out (Maslach et al., 2001). When a person feels emotionally exhausted, Evers et al. (2004) suggests that the person feels extended with little left to give to the daily requirements of his or her job. Because of the overly emotional requirements of the worker’s job tasks, “the work can exhaust a service provider’s capacity to be involved with, and responsive to, the needs of other service recipients” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 403). For teachers—whether they instruct mathematics or journalism—all work to meet the needs of the “service recipients” or, in other words, students. This construct will fall heavily into play when later describing burnout among educators.

When working day after day with other people, burned-out workers also become, according to Maslach (1976), depersonalized, a construct defined by the action of a person who becomes less caring toward their colleagues and the people they serve. Some even demonstrate cynic behaviors or distrust of other people’s motives (Maslach et al., 2001). These feelings can cause workers, or, in some cases, teachers, to become more detached from their students or the people who depend upon them (Evers et al., 2004). Maslach (1976) also defines personal accomplishment as a third construct in the measurement of burnout.

The third construct of the MBI scale is personal accomplishment. According to Maslach et al. (2001), the reduction of personal accomplishment, or a person feeling as though is succeeding in the job tasks at hand, adds to the perceived feelings of burnout. When a person
feels “indifferent toward serving or helping people” or depersonalized, it is difficult for that same person to achieve any level of personal satisfaction or accomplishment in their duties (Chang, 2009). This construct directly impacts a person’s self-efficacy, defined earlier in this paper by Bandera (1977) as one’s feeling of preparedness to complete a task. Maslach et al. (2001) explains that this connection between personal accomplishment and self-efficacy occurs when a person tires from grasping at inadequate resources within themselves to achieve in the job tasks they perform, “whereas exhaustion and cynicism [or depersonalization] emerge from the presence of work overload and social conflict” (p. 403). In some research (see Leiter & Maslach, 1988), MBI results among workers in interpersonal job environments suggest that emotional exhaustion leads to greater depersonalization, which leads to diminished personal accomplishment; the constructs are connected and result in overall feelings of burnout.

Any worker is susceptible to burnout; however, workers within the human-services industry, including educators, demonstrate they are especially susceptible (Schwab, 1983; Friedman, 2003).

The MBI measurement scale has been widely used in various areas, such as social services occupational analysis, law enforcement, and health professions. In the education setting, burnout matters to both researchers and administrators because when teachers are burned out they often leave the profession.

While many factors that contribute to an educator’s change of profession—geographic changes, family changes, a shift in interest—burnout is largely investigated among teachers at the primary and secondary levels as a contributor to teacher attrition (Chang, 2009; Gold, 1984; Starnaman & Miller, 1992; Friesen & Sarros, 1989; Schwab, 1983). Within the scope of teacher burnout, there are three contributing factors that become evident in the available research: individual factors, organizational factors, and transactional factors—the “relationship between individual factors with organizational factors” (Chang, 2009, p. 201).

Who gets burned out? Freudenberger (1974) argues that high achievers are the most likely to experience burn out. Additionally, Freudenberger (1974) suggests burnout affects those
people who “put in long hours with a bare minimum of financial compensation” (p. 161) or even those who have “a need to give” (p. 162). These descriptions align with the occupational characteristics of most teachers. The energy to contribute long hours and tireless efforts to educate students is most often seen in young, new-to-the-classroom teachers; these teachers, with the average age of 30, have a higher likelihood to experience burnout (Friedman & Farber, 1992). Gold (1984) suggests that teachers age 45 and older report a declining level of personal accomplishment, compared to their younger counterparts.

Gender, on the other hand, is trickier to associate with burnout in the available research. On one hand, some research shows that male teachers experience significantly higher scores in depersonalization than female teachers (Greenglass & Burke, 1988). For female teachers, burnout predictors originated in the family and work setting; however, in male teachers, burnout originated in only the work setting (Greenglass & Burke, 1988). Greenglass and Burke (1988/1993) suggest that the different genders, while both reporting burnout, derive their individual feelings of burnout from differential experience. Other studies (Kahn et al., 2006; Farber, 1984) indicate no significant differences in terms of gender when measuring teacher burnout.

Other individual demographic factors have been associated with burnout, including higher burnout levels in urban teachers (Davidson, 2009; McCarthy et al., 2009); higher burnout in unmarried teachers (Maslach & Jackson, 1981); higher burnout among female teachers who report dissatisfaction in their marriage (Greenglass & Burke, 1988).

What causes burnout? Stress is sometimes used as a synonym for burnout. However, teacher stress has received wider attention among researchers due to the dominance of stress models for empirically studying the impact of teaching on an educator (Borg, 1990). Teaching is a stressful occupation (Chaplain, 2008), and stress among teachers is attributed to causing burnout (Friesen & Sarros, 1989; Zhang & Sapp, 2007). Yet stress is caused by a wide variance of environmental, emotional, and individual factors. According to Chaplain (2008), stress derived from both students’ disruptive behavior and a teacher’s perceived occupational stress
significantly predict psychological stress among teachers. Student misbehavior and disruption in the classroom is a significant driver of burnout linked to a teacher’s emotional exhaustion (Evers et al., 2004; Chan, 2006).

Additional organizational factors related to causing burnout also include social and administration support (Maslach et al., 2001). Mede (2009) found that teachers were more likely to report higher feelings of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization when they experienced a lacking support from colleagues; on the other hand, a lower support from administrators resulted in teachers’ feelings of depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Zhang and Sapp (2007) found that the administration and social support from teachers’ colleagues served as a coping mechanism to burnout among educators. Starnaman and Miller (1992) found that teachers’ increased workload and their principals’ decreased support indirectly led to their heightened job burnout. Additional organizational factors related to burnout include excessive teacher workloads (Zhang & Sapp, 2007) and overcrowded classrooms (Tsouloupas et al., 2010).

Who gets burned out in which situations? Transactional factors link the relationship between individuals experiencing burnout within various organizational settings (Chang, 2009). For instance, “in the same situation of disruptive student behavior, one teacher may feel threatened, while another may not (Chang, 2009, p. 202). In different settings, with different emotional and individual backgrounds, it is no surprise that teachers respond differently and report varying levels of burnout due to their differentiating occupational and/or individual factors. Teachers can perceive things in different ways, be it a student’s behavior, an administrator’s support, or even their own workload.

Friedman (1995) suggests that this is because teachers respond to stress and burnout based upon their own personal goals and beliefs. For instance, according to Friedman (1995), male teachers reported higher burnout because of students’ inattentive behavior, whereas female teachers reported higher burnout due to students’ disrespectful behavior. In one study of perceived student behavior and burnout, Bibou-Nakou et al. (1999) found that teachers who
brushed off students’ disobedience and did not take their behavior personally reported lower levels of burnout and higher feelings of personal accomplishment. Evers et al. (2004) documented similar results: Teachers with higher competence to cope with students’ misbehavior had a lower perception of the level of disruption in their classrooms.

Evers et al. (2005) link high-levels of burnout among secondary-education teachers, while Betoret (2006) suggests that a wide majority of secondary-education teachers express moderate levels of burnout. Because of the dwindling trends of high-school journalism (Klos, 2001; Roschke, 2009) and rising implementation of convergence in high-school journalism curricula (Roschke, 2009), journalism teachers may report high levels of stress and burnout. However, in Reinardy et al.’s (2009) analysis of data collected in October 2007, high-school journalism advisers, the majority of whom also serve as teachers, reported little to no MBI burnout and high levels of personal accomplishment. While using job satisfaction as the dependent variable, the researchers also found that emotional exhaustion was negatively related to job satisfaction, whereas personal accomplishment was positively related to job satisfaction.

High-school journalism teachers seem to be bucking a trend of high burnout levels reported by most secondary-education teachers (Betoret, 2006). Yet, given that Reinardy et al.’s (2009) research was conducted before recent accelerated uses and development of social media and their effect on journalism after 2008, the present burnout levels of high-school journalism teachers might be higher than their findings.

Feminism

Facing dissention or, in surprisingly frequent circumstances, the guillotine, women in the 18th century, the Enlightenment age in Europe, spawned an idea: “women be considered entitled to the same natural rights as men” (Donovan, 1985, p. 1). During the 17th and 18th centuries, the thought was that women belonged in domestic roles, as wives and mothers. This notion—that women belong at home—was universal, crossing the Atlantic and taking root in American society. In the late 18th century and into the 1800s, the Industrial Revolution further polarized
men and women’s roles in society. The rise in factories separated a person’s home from his place of work, leaving women strictly in homebound, domestic roles (Donovan, 1985, p. 3).

Early texts began to put a woman’s role into black-and-white clarity. For instance, William Blackstone (1765-69) wrote *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, which set forth that women had no legal rights; therefore, they could not own land, control inheritance to money, or bring suit against another citizen. Even in John Lock’s early writings concerning natural rights, women are regarded as irrational and unable to participate in public affairs. Locke (1690) set the stage for male liberal theorists who argued that only men possessed natural rights. This argument would later be used by feminist advocates in the 19th-century America as a basis for equal rights, including the Declaration of Sentiments, a feminist doctrine by Elizabeth Cady Stanton written in 1848.

Stanton, joined by other feminists Susan B. Anthony, Sojourner Truth, and John Stuart Mill, helped push the rights of women into the forefront of American discussion with the help of the popularity of the antislavery movement in the 19th century. Women gained the right to vote, the premise for equal rights in America, in 1920 with the 19th Amendment, 57 years after the Emancipation Proclamation, which liberated American slaves. This amendment, known as the Anthony amendment, provided women the right to vote; yet, it also paved the way for legal representation in the public sphere, allowing women to divorce, use their earnings as basis for arguing their rights in child custody cases, and it also opened the doors for women in the realm of higher education (Donovan, 1985). This was a triumph for women in America, and in the global environment, too, but “the vote did not end women’s subordinate status … because it is clear that oppression still lives today” (Donovan, 1985, p. 27).

In the mid-20th century, several legal precedents paved the way for women’s entry into the workplace: the 1963 Federal Equal Pay Act; the 1964 Civil Rights Act, outlawing employment discrimination against minorities; and the 1972 Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act, making sexual discrimination illegal at educational institutions receiving federal funding.
However, the American workforce still remained male-dominated (Fels, 2004). While women worked as nurses, social workers, and teachers, most middle-class women “remained in their domestic roles as wives and mothers” (Fels, 2004, p. 179). According to Fels (2004), in 1960 approximately 19% of married women with preschool-aged children were employed; by 1995, this figure rose to about 64%.

In the 1900s, school teaching was one of the scarce careers available to women with a college degree (Graham, 1999). In the 1960s, fewer than 4% of medical and law school classes were female; now, more than half of these classes are female (Graham, 1999). During the first two-thirds of the 20th century, nearly the only career option for women was teaching, which means now—in a climate where women have hundreds of career choices available to them—choosing school teaching as a career indicates her “devotion to the calling” (Graham, 1999, p. 288). Butt et al. (2010) found that the majority of respondents, all of whom were teacher trainees, espoused intrinsic motivations to teach, including love of their subject, enjoyment of working with children, and job satisfaction, rather than extrinsic factors such as pay, job security, and benefits.

This shift in the workforce brought about a massive change in gender roles. Traditionally, women exemplified nurturing, inclusive, passive gender-role characteristics (Ferber & Birnbaum, 1977). Yet, argues Fels (2004), young women today accomplish both sets of attributes, both traditionally female roles, as well as male gender roles such as confidence, proactivity, and authoritativeness. Fels (2004) states that the merging of these gender roles is problematic and overwhelming for a number of women.

Now, in addition to fulfilling the gender roles of a caretaker and a nurturing mother, modern working women find themselves forced to “act like a lady, think like a man, and work like a dog” (Fels, 2004, p. 182). Fels (2004) writes, “Taking on real, remunerated work is, all too often, stressful and exhausting for women who simultaneously must do the lion’s share of childcare and household duties” (p. 205). Most employed mothers juggle employment and unpaid childcare, housework, and more due to traditional gender roles that still rule most
marriages in the U.S. (Collijn, Appels, & Nijhuis, 1996; Rimmer & Rimmer, 1997; Kushnir & Melamed, 2006).

For some, notes Fels (2004), a supportive husband balances the new pressures of juggling motherhood, career, and marriage. Yet, in homes with dual-career couples, women still carry the majority of the distribution of child-care tasks and household chores (Biernat & Wortman, 1991; Firestone & Shelton, 1988). However, some research suggests that the presence of a family actually helps women cope better with stress (House, 1981).

All of this juggling equates to a higher level of occupational stress among the majority of the female workforce (Kushnir & Melamed, 2006). Females are also reporting higher emotional exhaustion on the MBI scale for measuring burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). On the contrary, men score higher on the MBI subscale for depersonalization, suggesting they can detach from stressors (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). As Maslach and Jackson (1985) suggest that female gender roles are more nurturing and caring, making women more likely than their male counterparts to respond in a caring way.

As noted above, modern women have a plethora of careers at their fingertips. Sure, based on the research, they face a struggle shouldering both a career and family. But, for those seeking teaching, a traditionally feminine role that requires caring for others (Osborne, 1991; Grumlet, 1988), educators are deciding to play the role of caretaker at home and in the classroom.

In the research by Butt, MacKenzie, and Manning (2010), the interviewee subjects—both male and female educators—report that teaching is a way to merge the two roles as mother and teacher. One interviewee states (Butt et al., 2010, p. 74) that “Teaching is seen as a flexible job, for females especially … it’s almost like giving back to the community, but not going too far ‘out’ that you don’t have the connection still with the family.” Another notes (p. 74): “It’s already assumed that if you’re a teacher, then it won’t interrupt you having a family.”

However, the dueling role between wife, mother, and teacher is said by some researchers to be a source of role confusion (thus, stress) for some female educators (Greenglass & Burke, 1988; Cleary & Mechanic, 1983). According to Greenglass and Burke (1988), role conflict, as
well as marriage satisfaction, were significant predictors of burnout only in women. These findings by Greenglass and Burke (1988) suggest “both familial and work factors have to be taken into account in the prediction of burnout in women” (p. 226).
Based upon the review of literature, convergence is widespread in the journalism industry (Baldwin et al., 1996; Gordon, 2003). Journalism education is following suit, building and restructuring curriculum to better prepare college graduates for journalism careers (Dickson & Brandon, 2000; Huang et al., 2006). Some research indicates that high-school journalism classrooms may slowly be adapting convergence curriculum into classrooms (Roschke, 2009). If this is the case,

RQ1: How prevalent are collaborative instructional arrangements among high-school journalism teachers?

RQ2: How prevalent are instructions and uses of new technologies in high-school journalism education?

Based on the surge of convergence in college-journalism education settings (Huang, 2006), it is reasonable to expect a similar surge in high-school journalism education. Therefore,

H1: High-school journalism teachers are employing some levels of instructions and uses of new technologies in secondary education-level journalism classrooms.

Because of this surge in new technology and the drive of the journalism industry toward convergence, it is important to also investigate teachers’ feelings of readiness to teach new topics to students (Bandura, 1977), including technology. A teacher’s reported high self-efficacy results in a higher commitment and effort to integrate new technology instruction into current curriculum (Lin & Lu, 2010). Allinder (1994) found that teachers with highly rated self-efficacy were more willing and prepared to implement new educational practices. In the limited research on high-school teachers’ technology self-efficacy, respondents expressed only moderate levels of self-efficacy (Iscioglu, 2011). Unfortunately, no research exists examining the self-efficacy of high-school journalism teachers. Therefore,

RQ3: Which type of journalism skills—traditional or multimedia—do high-school journalism teachers feel sufficiently prepared to teach?
H2: Teachers express moderate levels of multimedia self-efficacy; however, traditional self-efficacy prevails stronger.

Even though high-school journalism teachers may express moderate levels of self-efficacy, job satisfaction of high-school teachers may also be under stress because of the incorporation of new material into the standing curriculum. As the research on job satisfaction suggests, teachers are highly dissatisfied with their jobs. However, according to Dvorak and Phillips (2001), high-school journalism teachers expressed high levels of satisfaction with their jobs, as well as high levels of personal accomplishment. Therefore,

RQ4: How are job satisfaction and dissatisfaction expressed by high-school journalism teachers related?

H3: High-school journalism teachers express higher levels of job satisfaction with their jobs than job dissatisfaction.

While the research is very limited on job satisfaction among high-school journalism teachers, it suggests that this group of teachers goes against the traditional grain of secondary-education teachers’ expressed attitudes (Betoret, 2006). This stands for expressed burnout levels, too. Reinardy et al. (2009) found that high-school journalism advisors, most of whom also serve as teachers, reported little to no MBI burnout and high levels of personal accomplishment. Therefore,

RQ5: Do high-school journalism teachers have low levels of burnout?

H4: High-school journalism teachers should express low levels of burnout.

Reinardy et al. (2009) found that despite stress triggers in their teaching environment, high-school journalism advisers had low levels of burnout defined as emotional exhaustion. No research has examined whether or not high-school journalism teachers feel prepared, or perceived self-efficacy, to instruct students about convergence technologies. In addition, no research so far has examined how self-efficacy affects high-school journalism teachers’ expressed burnout.

The main focus of the quantitative aspect of this research is to find how many different
sets of variables, including job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, and self-efficacy, demographics, and school characteristics are related to burnout among high-school journalism teachers. Although Reinardy et al. (2009) reported the relationships between job satisfaction and MBI burnout subscales, they did not investigate potential causes for high-school journalism teachers’ expressed burnout. Therefore,

**RQ6: What variables are related to burnout of high-school journalism teachers?**

**H5: Teacher self-efficacy and expressed burnout, self-efficacy is the strongest predictor of burnout among high-school journalism teachers.**

**Survey Procedure**

To conduct this online survey, members of the Journalism Education Association were contacted. Because the JEA membership directory was not available, this research initially used the association’s listserv to request that its members participate in the survey. At the same time, since not all members subscribe to the listserv, it was necessary to also contact the headquarters to ask the association’s state directors to email to their state members the request for participation. Although email requests also reached non-teacher members, the survey universe theoretically consisted of the JEA’s 2,191 teacher members out of its 2,418 total members (C. Fulkerson, personal communication, February 10, 2011).

Six email contacts in total were made either through the mailing list or via regional directors between November 8, 2010, and January 31, 2011, to increase the number of respondents. In addition, the survey offered a chance of winning one of two $25 gift certificates to those who shared their contact information.

Among 341 respondents who started answering the survey, 41 were not currently teaching a journalism class at the high-school level and thus ineligible. As a result, the initial response rate was 13.7% (300/2,191). However, 12 respondents quit before answering half of the questions, and additional five respondents did not answer self-efficacy, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and/or burnout questions. Eliminating those 17 respondents reduced the sample size to 283, resulting in the final response rate of 12.9% (283/2,191).
Survey Sample Characteristics

Respondents were predominantly female (76.7%), Caucasian (93.6%), and married (72.1%). The majority held a master’s degree (60.4%), followed by those who had some graduate school (22.6%). The major setting of their school locations was suburban (54.8%), and others taught in a rural (25.4%) or urban (19.8%). An almost equal number of respondents were in their 30s (27.2%), 40s (26.9%), and 50s (25.8%). The only state that had more than one-tenth of the respondents was Texas (23.7%).

In addition to demographics, the survey asked questions about the teacher profile. The vast majority of the respondents were teaching at a public school (92.2%). The median category of the total number of years teaching journalism was 6–10 years (24.4%). Types of journalism they were teaching, in the descending order, were print (88.7%), photojournalism (40.3%), online (33.9%), broadcast (11.0%), and yearbook (9.2%). Almost all of the respondents were advising a student publication, broadcast channel, or website (98.2%). More specifically, they were advising a newspaper (68.9%), yearbook (63.6%), news website (41.3%), newsmagazine (11.0%), TV station (6.7%), literary magazine (4.9%), and radio station (1.1%). The median category of the total number of years advising a student publication, broadcast channel, or website was 6–10 years (24.4%).

Finally, regarding the program profile, the median category of the total number of students enrolled in journalism classes was 40–59 students (18.4%). The mode frequency of publication or broadcast was monthly for newspapers (66.1%, or 162/245) and newsmagazines (30.4%, or 17/56), daily for radio stations (38.1%, or 8/21) and TV stations (41.4%, or 41/99), and weekly for news websites (26.0%, or 45/173).

Survey Measures

The survey first asked questions regarding the teacher profile, including his or her school’s affiliation (public or private), years of teaching experience, courses being taught (print, online, broadcast, photojournalism, and yearbook), advising experience (types of media and number of years), and collaborative teaching methods. The survey also included questions
regarding the school’s program profile, such as the number of students enrolled in the journalism program, the publishing or broadcasting frequencies, and the school’s news website.

Next, on the 7-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 4 (half the time) to 7 (always), the survey asked about the frequency of teaching specific skills, whether journalism fundamentals (i.e., news judgment, interviewing, online research, current affairs, copyediting, headline writing, grammar, creativity, working on deadlines, newsroom organization or management), print journalism (i.e., print news writing, feature or narrative writing), broadcast journalism (i.e., broadcast news writing, videography), multimedia journalism (i.e., web news writing, blog writing, website design), or visual communication (i.e., desktop publishing, photography). In addition, they were also asked to indicate if they were using in their classroom the following tools: the AP Stylebook, a digital voice recorder for interviewing, a digital still-photo camera, a digital video camera, the Internet, Blogger, WordPress, Podcast, Twitter, Facebook, and Adobe Creative Suite products (i.e., InDesign, Photoshop, Illustrator, Dreamweaver), and Final Cut Studio/Pro. Except for the AP Stylebook, all the other 14 tools were added to create a composite index, which ranges from 0 to 14, to indicate how many multimedia tools the respondents were using in their classrooms ($M = 6.24$, $SD = 2.47$).

Five major scales in this survey were traditional-journalism teaching self-efficacy, multimedia-journalism teaching self-efficacy, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, and burnout. After reliability of each scale was examined, scores on its composite variables were added, and then the total score was divided by the number of the variables in it to make each scale range from 1 to 7.

For journalism teachers’ skill-based self-efficacy, which is based upon “perceived capabilities” (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010, p. 1059) or “confidence in their capacity” (Betoret, 2006, p. 523), the survey used the 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (neither agree nor disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) in order to ask how strongly they felt prepared to teach their students six skill sets of traditional journalism and four skill sets of multimedia journalism. The traditional journalism skill sets included news-writing skills, copy-
editing skills, desktop-publishing skills, newsgathering skills (e.g., interviewing, Internet research), non-skills journalism fundamentals (e.g., deadlines, newsroom organization), and non-skills subjects (e.g., law, ethics). The multimedia journalism skill sets included multimedia writing skills, multimedia video-production skills, multimedia photography skills, and social-media skills. The standardized Cronbach’s alpha for this 10-item self-efficacy scale was .85. However, a principal components analysis with varimax rotation produced a two-factor solution, which accounted for 64.6% of total variance based on the criterion of 1.0 or higher eigenvalues, retaining (1) traditional-journalism teaching self-efficacy (standardized Cronbach’s alpha = .88) and (2) multimedia-journalism teaching self-efficacy (standardized Cronbach’s alpha = .82). Those two factors were used separately to identify variables that might be affecting burnout. Table 1 shows the results.

For teacher job satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and burnout, this survey used Beam et al.’s (2003) reliable scales to minimize the total number of survey questions. First, the 7-point job-satisfaction scale, ranging from 1 (strongly dissatisfied) to 4 (neither satisfied nor dissatisfied) to 7 (strongly satisfied), included four questions about respondents’ satisfaction with prospects for growth or development in their job, the chance for independent thought or action in their job, the amount of challenge in their job, and the chance for research or creative activity in their job. The 7-point job dissatisfaction scale included six questions about respondents’ satisfaction with their job security, pay and benefits, amount of respect that they receive from others, quality of leadership in their unit, their teaching load, and the social relationships they have with others on the faculty.
Table 1

*Factor Loadings for Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Journalism Teachers’ Skill-Based Self-Efficacy Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journalism Skills</th>
<th>Traditional Journalism Self-Efficacy</th>
<th>Multimedia Journalism Self-Efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>News-writing skills</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>−.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copy-editing skills</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>−.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desktop-publishing skills</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newsgathering skills</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-skills journalism fundamentals</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-skills subjects (e.g., law, ethics)</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimedia writing skills</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimedia video-production skills</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimedia photography skills</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social-media skills</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface.

Within this survey, the standardized Cronbach’s alpha for this 10-item job satisfaction/dissatisfaction scale was .84. Like Beam et al.’s (2003) research, both the job satisfaction scale and the job dissatisfaction scale showed the satisfactory level of reliability (standardized Cronbach’s alpha = .74 for both scales), so those two factors were used separately to identify variables that might be affecting burnout.

However, it should be noted that a principal components analysis with varimax rotation produced a rather confounding two-factor solution, which accounted for only 52.1% of total variance based on the criterion of 1.0 or higher eigenvalues. Table 2 shows the results.
Second, the 7-point burnout scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (neither agree nor disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), gauged how strongly respondents felt emotionally drained by their work, they felt used up at the end of a day, and they feel burned out from work. The three questions were chosen to represent each respondent’s emotional exhaustion. Within this survey, the standardized Cronbach’s alpha for this 3-item burnout scale was .90.

The final section of the survey included seven demographic questions regarding the respondent’s gender, age, state, setting (rural, suburban, urban), education level, race, and marital status.

Quantitative Results

In the context of media convergence, which might make some of existing journalism high-school teachers inadequate to teach multimedia courses, RQ1 was asked to find out how prevalent some of collaborative teaching methods were among high-school journalism teachers. Although only 12.4% of respondents participated in team-teaching journalism, 44.5% gave journalism guest lectures.

Next, RQ2 was posed to determine how prevalent were the instructions and uses of new technologies in the high-school journalism classroom. The question examined how frequently teachers (1) taught certain journalism skills and (2) used certain tools within their classrooms. The percentage of respondents who “always,” “very often,” or “often” taught each journalism skill set is the following: news judgment (85.5%), interviewing (86.6%), online research (58.0%), current events (68.2%), print news writing (84.8%), feature or narrative writing (89.4%), web news writing (27.9%), broadcast writing (10.6%), blog writing (10.2%), copyediting (82.0%), headline writing (80.9%), grammar (80.6%), creativity (80.2%), desktop publishing (77.0%), website design (15.5%), photography (74.6%), videography (17.7%), working on deadline (94.7%), and newsroom organization or management (76.7%). The results indicate that respondents most frequently taught traditional journalism skills rather than multimedia skills.
Table 2

*Factor Loadings for Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Teacher Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journalism Skills</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Job Dissatisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prospects for growth or development*</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chance for independent thought or action</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The amount of challenge</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chance for research or creative activity</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job security</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My pay and benefits</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>–.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The amount of respect I receive from others*</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of leadership in my unit*</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teaching load</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social relationships I have with others</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface. * denotes a factor loading contrary to expectation or a variable loading heavily on two factors.

In fact, as Table 3 shows, a principal components analysis with varimax rotation produced a four-factor solution, which accounted for 61.2% of total variance based on the criterion of 1.0 or higher eigenvalues, and all multimedia journalism skills, including web news writing, blog writing, and website design, loaded heavily on one of the factors without any confounding from other skills. Except for desktop publishing, which could be considered an element of convergence and certainly a skill set that utilizes emerging technologies, most journalism skills frequently taught in classrooms were fundamental or traditional.
Table 3

*Factor Loadings for Principal Components Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Journalism Skills Taught in Classrooms*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journalism Skills</th>
<th>Journalism Fundamentals</th>
<th>Journalism Fundamentals</th>
<th>Multimedia Journalism</th>
<th>Broadcast Journalism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>News judgment</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewing</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online research</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current events</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print news writing</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature or narrative writing</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>-.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web news writing</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadcast news writing</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blog writing</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copyediting</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>-.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Headline writing</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desktop publishing</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website design</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photography</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(table continues)*
Table 3 (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journalism Skills</th>
<th>Journalism Fundamentals</th>
<th>Journalism Fundamentals</th>
<th>Multimedia Journalism</th>
<th>Broadcast Journalism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With Visual</td>
<td>With Print Communication</td>
<td>With Print Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Videography</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working on deadline</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newsroom management</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface.

To answer the second part of RQ2 concerning uses of certain tools in the high-school journalism classroom, teachers were asked to mark all tools they were using in class. The percentage of respondents using each tool is the following: the AP Stylebook (87.3%), a digital voice recorder for interviewing (51.6%), a digital still-photo camera (92.2%), a digital video camera (45.2%), the Internet (93.3%), Blogger (7.8%), WordPress (33.6%), Podcast (10.6%), Twitter (22.6%), Facebook (42.8%), Adobe InDesign (85.2%), Adobe Photoshop (90.5%), Adobe Illustrator (33.2%), Adobe Dreamweaver (5.7%), Final Cut Studio/Pro (9.9%). In other words, fundamental and traditional journalism skills, as well as desktop publishing, were still dominant, but social media, such as Facebook, Twitter, and WordPress, were gaining ground.

Therefore, H1 is accepted: High-school journalism teachers are employing some levels of convergence technologies into their current curriculum, although traditional journalism skills remain more prevalent.

In addition, RQ3 was posed to determine which type of self-efficacy was higher. The traditional-journalism teaching self-efficacy scale ($M = 6.58, SD = .69$) had a higher mean score than the multimedia-journalism teaching self-efficacy scale ($M = 5.02, SD = 1.38$), $t(282) =$
19.838, \( p < .001 \). Those results indicate that high-school journalism teachers had much more confidence in teaching traditional journalism than multimedia journalism. Therefore, H2 was accepted.

Because Beam et al.’s (2003) job satisfaction and dissatisfaction scales were based on Herzberg’s (1968/2003) motivation-hygiene theory, RQ4 was asked to find out the relationship between the scales. As one of the possibilities predicted by Herzberg’s theory, the scales had a moderately strong positive correlation, \( r(281) = .668, p < .001 \). In addition, the job satisfaction scale (\( M = 5.99, SD = .95 \)) had a higher mean score than the job dissatisfaction scale (\( M = 5.66, SD = 1.00 \), \( t(282) = 6.895, p < .001 \). In other words, respondents expressed stronger satisfaction with the intrinsic aspects of their job than the extrinsic aspects of the job. The higher mean score of the job satisfaction scale also supported H3, which suggests that high-school journalism teachers will express satisfaction with their jobs.

Although Reinardy et al.’s (2009) finding that as of October 2007, high-school journalism advisers were not experiencing burnout, social media’s dramatic developments and changes have been occurring in the past couple of years. As a result, social media may be forcing high-school journalism teachers to adapt to technological changes in their classrooms. Therefore, RQ5 was posed to ask about the levels of their expressed burnout. Contrary to Reinardy et al.’s (2009) sample, 42.8% of high-school journalism teachers agreed moderately or strongly that they felt emotionally drained by their work (\( M = 4.68, SD = 2.00 \)), 52.7% agreed that they felt used up at the end of a day (\( M = 5.14, SD = 1.82 \)), and 32.5% agreed that they felt burned out from work (\( M = 4.16, SD = 2.05 \)). Those who moderately or strongly felt emotionally exhausted on the 3-item composite burnout scale, meaning their scores were between 6 and 7 on the original scale, constituted 33.9% of the sample (\( M = 4.66, SD = 1.78 \)). Obviously, significant portions of respondents were experiencing burnout, rejecting H4.

Finally, RQ6 was asked to discover what variables were related to the emotional-exhaustion component of burnout expressed by respondents. Table 4 shows the results of hierarchical multiple regression, which entered blocks of independent variables in the following
order: (1) the demographic and school profile (i.e., gender, education, school setting, school affiliation, total journalism student enrollment), (2) the teacher profile (i.e., years of teaching journalism, teaching online journalism, advising news website, participating in team-teaching, participating in guest lectures), (3) new technology (i.e., web news writing, blog writing, website design, number of multimedia used), (4) self-efficacy (i.e., traditional-journalism teaching self-efficacy, multimedia-journalism self-efficacy), and (5) job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

Five statistically significant variables are gender, school setting, advising a student news website, job satisfaction, and job dissatisfaction. Females expressed higher levels of burnout, suburban and rural settings had lower levels of burnout than urban settings, and advising a student news website was related to higher levels of burnout. Both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction had lower levels of burnout. Participation in team-teaching was marginally significant, leading to higher-levels of burnout.

Quantitative Discussion

There was a growing prevalence of technology tools being used in the respondents’ classrooms. High-school journalism teachers in the present research reported on their use of a vast variety of tools within their classrooms, such as Facebook, WordPress, Adobe Creative Suite products, the Internet, and social-media websites. However, the most widely used tools were those considered to be part of traditional journalism practices, including the AP Stylebook, digital still-photo cameras, and some desktop publishing software (i.e., Adobe InDesign, Adobe Photoshop). The focus of curricula in the high-school journalism classroom appears to remain aimed on the fundamental skills of journalism, including news judgment, writing, copyediting, grammar, working on deadline, and newsroom organization or management. Although convergence tools were being used across respondents’ classrooms, only a small amount of them reported frequent teaching of convergence skills. In other words, multimedia journalism is taking a backseat to traditional journalism in high-school journalism.
Table 4

*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Burnout From Demographics and School Profile, Teacher Profile, New Technology, Self-Efficacy, and Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Burnout (Emotional Exhaustion)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1 (demographic and school profile)</td>
<td>.043*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>−.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School setting</td>
<td>−.131*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School affiliation</td>
<td>−.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total journalism enrollment</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2 (teacher profile)</td>
<td>.052**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of teaching journalism</td>
<td>−.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching online journalism</td>
<td>−.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advising news website</td>
<td>.161*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in team-teaching</td>
<td>.092†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in guest lectures</td>
<td>−.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3 (new technology)</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web news writing</td>
<td>−.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blog writing</td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website design</td>
<td>−.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of multimedia tools used</td>
<td>−.005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(table continues)*
Table 4 (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Burnout (Emotional Exhaustion)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 4 (self-efficacy)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional journalism self-efficacy</td>
<td>$0.028^*$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimedia journalism self-efficacy</td>
<td>$-0.068$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5 (job satisfaction and dissatisfaction)</td>
<td>$0.132^{***}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>$-0.152^*$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job dissatisfaction</td>
<td>$-0.268^{***}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total adjusted $\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>$0.275$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>$283$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $^\dagger p < .10. ^* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.$

In the quantitative research of this study, the frequency of teaching multimedia-journalism skills and the number of multimedia-journalism tools had little to do with high-school journalism teachers’ burnout. However, advising a student news website did have a significant impact on their burnout levels. In short, teaching and using technological tools in class would not matter much, but advising could require teachers to take more personal responsibility for monitoring the student news website because it is visible to the public outside their school. In addition, although neither traditional nor multimedia journalism self-efficacy was not a significant predictor of burnout, they together constituted a statistically significant “block” to account for burnout.

One of the surprising results in this research was the high rate of burnout among high-school journalism teachers. More than one-third of respondents felt exhausted either moderately or strongly. Yet, the sources of their burnout turned out to be rather surprising.

Although Reinardy et al. (2009) found no significant relationship between gender and
emotional exhaustion for high-school journalism advisers, Beam et al. (2003) reported that female college faculty had lower levels of job satisfaction, higher levels of job dissatisfaction, higher levels of emotional exhaustion, and higher levels of technology-related stress than their male counterparts. The present research found that female high-school journalism teachers had higher levels of burnout than their male counterparts. Further analysis did not find any relationship that could possibly account for this gender difference. It could be due to a skewed sample, including a low response rate. Or as Beams et al.’s (2003) research on university journalism faculty demonstrated, specific technology-induced stressors could also be the strongest predictors of high-school journalism teachers’ burnout.

Another possibility is the status quo of gender relations. According to a recent survey of about 2,800 employed people conducted by the Families and Work Institute, three out of five husbands, which is a higher proportion than that of wives, felt some or a lot of stress over workplace–family life balance, and 56% of husbands believed they did nearly equal or even a greater amount of cooking and housework. However, wives thought only 25% of their husbands did (Maron, 2009). The perceptual discrepancies of gender roles, as discussed in the literature review, might account for a strong gender difference in perceived burnout. When you add in demanding and stressful changes in the climate of childrearing experienced during the last century, educators are now presented with “a new crop of young people with increasing expectations that we care about them and their personhood” (Varallo, 2008, p. 153).

If female teachers carry a heavier load of “caring” responsibilities when it comes to their demanding students, could this explain the significance of gender as a predictor of burnout? No current high-school journalism education research addresses this connection. Therefore, qualitative in-depth interviews with the quantitative survey respondents will examine why gender played a strong role in high-school educator’s expressed burnout.
QUALITATIVE INQUIRY

Interviewee Selection

To delve deeper into the roots of significance between gender and burnout among high-school journalism teachers who responded to the initial exploratory 2010 survey, a total of 20 respondents were randomly selected from a controlled sampling of respondents. Initial email solicitation asked for their participation and encouraged them to suggest a convenient time for a phone interview. The controlled sampling selected five females reporting high burnout (more than the mean score of 4.6596) and five females reporting low burnout (less than the mean score of 4.6596). The same sampling was conducted for five male respondents with high burnout and five male respondents with low burnout.

After initial email solicitation and scheduling of interviews, some teachers chose to either 1) not respond at all, 2) respond and decline an interview, and 3) schedule an interview, yet not answer during the scheduled interview call. Controlled resample was required twice to extend the solicitation for interviews to additional respondents in order to keep the total interviews at 20 proposed subjects. However, this number proved to be too difficult to retain. In all, 14 total interviews, lasting approximately an average of 45 minutes each, were conducted for the qualitative arm of this triangulated study. In total, five female teachers reporting high-levels of burnout, three females with low burnout, three males with high burnout, and three males with low burnout were interviewed.

Interview Sample Characteristics

A shorthand system representing the interviewees’ gender and levels of burnout, such as FH3 (Female 3 with high burnout) and ML1 (Male 1 with low burnout), was used to conceal his or her identity. See Table 5. Before exploring gender differences in the hope of uncovering factors that might affect the degree of perceived burnout among respondents, the following section discusses each interviewee’s demographic and other noteworthy characteristics. All of the respondents described below teach at public high schools and they all identified themselves as Caucasian/white ethnicity.
Table 5

Controlled Sampling of Respondents for In-Depth Interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>High Burnout</strong></td>
<td>FH1</td>
<td>MH1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Emotional</td>
<td>FH2</td>
<td>MH2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhaustion)</td>
<td>FH3</td>
<td>MH3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FH4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FH5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Low Burnout</strong></td>
<td>FL1</td>
<td>ML1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Emotional</td>
<td>FL2</td>
<td>ML2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhaustion)</td>
<td>FL3</td>
<td>ML3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Females with high burnout. FH1: Age 50 to 59 with more than 20 years of teaching experience, this respondent resides in a rural North Carolina town. She teaches print, online, and photojournalism at her town’s public school. In addition to her courses, she advises a student-produced newspaper (with a publication frequency of every-other month), a weekly updated student-produced website, and a yearbook with annual distribution. There are approximately 40 to 59 students in her school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and she has adult-age children. She has a bachelor’s degree and has taught at the same school for about 6 to 10 years.

FH2: Age 30 to 39 with 11 to 15 years of teaching experience, this respondent lives in a suburban Texas area. She teaches print, broadcast, and photojournalism at one of her city’s three public schools. In addition to her courses, she advises a student-produced newspaper (with a monthly publication frequency), a student newsmagazine (distributed twice per year), a broadcast station, and a yearbook with annual distribution. There are approximately 100 students or more in her school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and she has no children. She is currently pursuing a master’s degree and has taught at the same school for about 2 to 5 years.

FH3: Age 40 to 49 with 16 to 20 years of teaching experience, this respondent lives in a suburban Michigan area. She teaches print journalism at her city’s public school. In addition to her courses, she advises a student-produced newspaper (with a monthly publication frequency)
and a yearbook with annual distribution. In her program, there is no student-produced news website due to “lack of teachers’ technical skills.” There are approximately 100 students or more in her school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent has never been married, is Caucasian/white, and she has no children. She has a master’s degree and has taught at the same school for about 11 to 15 years.

FH4: Age 40 to 49 with 6 to 10 years of teaching experience, this respondent lives in a suburban Florida area. She teaches print journalism at her city’s public school. In addition to her courses, she advises a student-produced newspaper (with a monthly publication frequency) and a student-produced website with daily updates. There are approximately 100 students or more in her school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and she has several school-age (young) children. She is currently pursuing a master’s degree and has taught at the same school for about 6 to 10 years.

FH5: This teacher, who is younger than age 30, has 2 to 5 years of teaching experience, and lives in a suburban Texas area. She teaches print and photo journalism at her city’s public school. In addition to her courses, she advises a yearbook. There are approximately 100 students or more in her school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and she has no children. She has a master’s degree and has taught at the same school for the duration of her limited experience (2 to 5 years).

Females with low burnout. FL1: Age 30 to 39 with 6 to 10 years of teaching experience (all at the same school), this respondent resides in a rural Iowa town. She teaches print and online journalism at her city’s public school. In addition to her courses, she advises a student-produced newspaper (with a publication frequency of every-other month), a monthly updated student-produced Web site, and a yearbook with annual distribution. Her school’s journalism program is fairly small and has only been around for about 10 years; it has approximately 20 to 30 students. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and she has no children. She reports that her husband works very late, and he is infrequently at home. She is currently pursuing a master’s degree.
FL2: This teacher, who is younger than age 30, has only 2 to 5 years of experience (all at the same school). She resides in a rural Ohio town, and she reports her school district has been severely affected by the current economic downturn. She teaches print journalism and advises a student-produced newspaper (with a publication frequency of every-other month). There are approximately 100 or more students in her school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and she has no children. She has a bachelor’s degree. This particular teacher was laid off from the original school at which she taught when the initial survey was completed. However, she has re-entered the education workforce as a journalism teacher at another school within a different school district (in fact, in a different state—Kentucky).

FL3: Age 60 or older with more than 20 years of teaching experience, this respondent resides in a rural Wyoming town. She teaches print, online, and photojournalism at her town’s public school. In addition to her courses, she advises a student-produced newspaper (with a publication frequency of every-other month), a weekly updated student-produced website, and a yearbook with annual distribution. There are approximately 20 or less students in her school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is not married, Caucasian/white, and she has no children. She has a master’s degree and has taught at the same school for about 11 to 15 years.

Males with high burnout. MH1: Age 50 to 59 with 11 to 15 years of teaching experience (about 6 to 10 at current school), this respondent resides in a suburban Illinois city. He teaches print and advises a student-produced newspaper (with a publication frequency of every-other month) and a monthly updated student-produced website. There are approximately 20 to 39 students in his school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and he has adult-age children. He has a master’s degree, and besides journalism, he teaches English courses.

MH2: Age 40 to 49 with 11 to 15 years of teaching experience (all at the same school, where he once graduated high school), this respondent resides in a suburban Michigan city. He
teaches print journalism and advises a student-produced newspaper (with a publication frequency of every-other month). There are approximately 100 or more students in his school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent has never been married, Caucasian/white, and has no children. He is pursuing a master’s degree, and besides journalism, he also teaches AP U.S. history.

MH3: This teacher, who is younger than age 30, has 6 to 10 years of teaching experience (all at the same school). He resides in a suburban Colorado city, where he teaches print journalism and advises a student-produced newspaper (with a publication frequency of every-other month), a newsmagazine (biannual distribution), and a student-produced website that is updated every other week. There are approximately 40 to 59 students in his school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and has several young children (age 5 or younger). He has a master’s degree, and besides journalism, he also teaches technology and science courses. He expressed severe lack of administration support, which led him to accept a new teaching position in mid summer 2011 at a high-school journalism program in rural New Mexico.

Males with low burnout. ML1: Younger than age 30 with 2 to 5 years of teaching experience (all at the same school), this respondent resides in a rural Arkansas town. He teaches print and online journalism, as well as serving as an adviser of a student-produced yearbook with annual distribution and a monthly updated student-produced website that boasts original content. There are approximately 40 to 59 students in his school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and he has young children (age 10 or younger). He is pursuing a master’s degree, and besides teaching, he photographs weddings as a self-owned business.

ML2: Age 50 to 59 with 16 to 20 years of teaching experience (all at the same school), this respondent resides in an urban Texas city. He teaches print, online, and photo journalism, as well as newspaper design and layout. He serves as an adviser of a student-produced newspaper (with monthly frequency) and a daily updated student-produced website. There are
approximately 100 or more students in his school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married, Caucasian/white, and he has adult-age children. He has a master’s degree, and besides teaching, he works at the local community newspaper as a weekend reporter and editor.

ML3: Age 40 to 49 with 11 to 15 years of teaching experience (all at the same school), this respondent resides in a rural Iowa town. He teaches print, online, photo journalism, and yearbook. He also serves as an adviser of a student-produced yearbook (with annual distribution) and a student-produced, monthly newspaper. There are approximately 100 or more students in his school’s journalism program. Outside of the classroom, this respondent is married and Caucasian/white. He has a master’s degree, and expressed that his wife is very supportive at home (although he chose not to speak of his children).

Interview Measures and Procedure

Each interview was conducted by phone and was recorded for clarity and security. All interview subjects were informed of the nature of the research, its broad aims (burnout in high-school journalism), and the procedures for the interview process. Those wishing to proceed were informed that the phone conversation would be recorded.

Each interview included about 10 questions, although some questions required short follow-up inquiries for clarity or depth. The questions included queries about the person’s willingness to incorporate technology in his or her journalism curriculum, as well as questions about how each interview subject learns and trains in new technologies, whether it is a new device or new software. The line of questions also encompassed school administration support, the subject’s work-life balance, whether or not the respondent takes his or her work home each night, and more. The aim of the line of questions was to probe deeper into the relationship between gender and burnout. So, one question directly asked whether or not the respondent felt like gender plays a part in his or her feelings of emotional exhaustion or burnout. Additionally, the line of questions also asked for each respondent to provide advice for teachers who might be burned out. For a full list of questions, please see Table 6.
Table 6

Interview Questions

Q1: How do you feel about the integration of technology into your journalism curriculum?
Q2: How do you discuss the changes in today’s media industry with aspiring young journalists?
Q3: How does the state of the media industry affects how you do your job?
Q4: Would you say your students’ behavior has worsened or improved during your tenure as an educator? Why?
Q5: What environmental contributors — such as the size of your classroom, the support of other teachers and administrators, etc. — contribute to your feelings of burnout at the end of your workday?
Q6: How does your school encourage, discourage or remain neutral about balancing your work and home life?
Q7: In what ways do you feel your gender contributes to or does not contribute to your feelings of burnout at the end of the workday?
Q8: In what ways do you feel the economic climate contributes to your feelings of burnout?
Q10: What advice or solutions do you employ to help decrease or combat your feelings of burnout?

The telephone interviews were digitally recorded and later transcribed. Each interview was reviewed for thematic occurrences, and certain topics and themes prevailed. The following results discuss these themes that emerged from the interview transcripts.

Qualitative Results

The aim of this triangulated research was to dig deeper into the reasoning why gender prevailed as the second most significant predictor of burnout among the surveyed high-school journalism teachers. The interviews provided an exhaustive glimpse at the successes, failures, trials, and tribulations of journalism advisers in states spanning coast to coast. Fourteen teachers provided further insight on why they either feel burned out, or feel no burnout at all. The
following themes became evident during the in-depth interviews. Each will be discussed with direct quotes from respondents. Later, a conclusion will offer discussion for potentially aiding and reducing burnout among high-school journalism teachers.

Gender. The research question and hypothesis for the quantitative section of this research probes at why female high-school journalism teachers are more likely to feel significantly burned out by their jobs. In the literature review, I discovered that women are struggling to balance their work and home lives. This is a historic balancing act experienced by working wives and mothers (Collijn et al., 1996; Rimmer & Rimmer, 1997; Kushnir & Melamed, 2006; Fels, 2004). The line of inquiry for the in-depth interviews sought to answer the “why,” and research suggests that the juggling act and the gender roles associated with “wife” and “mother” could account for the female teachers’ burnout. However, it was not.

Maternal mindset. Female teachers interviewed for this study voiced distinct maternal thinking, identifying students as their own “kids,” which means female teachers are emotionally taking on the stress and worry that come with caring for a classroom of 30-some “children” (the average student population in respondents’ classrooms at one time, although they may teach up to 80 kids in one day). To start off, females are already experiencing more occupational stress than their male counterparts (Kushnir & Melamed, 2006). Maslach and Jackson (1981) argue that female gender roles are more nurturing and caring, making women more likely than men to respond in a caring way.

Teaching is described by some researchers as a “women’s job” because it fulfills a distinctly feminine role of caring for others (Osborne, 1991; Grumlet, 1988). Additional research by Butt et al. (2010) found that teaching was thought to be a way to merge motherhood and a job. The interview subjects in this study reported an acute sense of parenthood in the classroom, a description that was more often uttered by highly burned-out female teachers, but was also echoed by a handful of teachers across the burnout and gender spectrum.

FH1 reports: “Mothers have a different mentality about the well-being of children. So, we worry more about our kids [or students] and whether or not they’re getting it.” For FH2, FH3,
FH5 (all of whom do not have their own biological children), their students fill the void. When asked if she considers her students like her own kids, FH3 (who is between the ages of 40 to 49 and never married) responds, “Sure, especially because I don’t have children. When people ask if I have kids, I say, ‘170.’ I’m very close to kids who take my class for several years (2 to 3 years in a row).” These emotions align with Varallo’s research on “intensive mothering” in education, specifically among college students, who she describes as “a new crop of young people with increasing expectations that we care about them and their personhood” (Varallo, 2008, p. 153).

But considering students as children doesn’t necessarily point at the heart of predicting a female teacher’s burnout. Rather, it’s the emotions—the worry, concern, stress—that come with caring and nurturing a large group of students. As FH5 (who is younger than 30 and married) puts it, “I know them better than their own parents do. Having a class that’s a staff, you build a different relationship with them.” She adds, “[When] one [of my students] was abused, I lost sleep over it.” These parent-like feelings aren’t limited to the high-burnout females without children. FH4, who has a son age 10 or younger, reiterates, “All the time I call them my kids. Especially my newspaper [staff] kids. … They text me in the middle of the night with ridiculous questions.”

Other teachers interviewed said that, yes, their students are similar to their “kids”; however, the difference is clear, particularly in this statement by ML2, a father of a now adult-age daughter, “I would never give my kids my [phone] number—maybe two or three of them have my cell phone number. … I don’t struggle emotionally if they struggle emotionally.” As Maslach and Jackson (1981) suggest, men score higher on the MBI scale for depersonalization, meaning they have an easier time “detaching” from stressors. This is evident in the male respondents’ attitudes toward their students. Most agree in some form that they serve as a role model for their students; however, the line between teacher and friend is clearer. This line is most distinct in the low-burnout males. ML2 admits that men are more “standoffish,” while ML1 says that serving as an adviser gives him the “opportunity to be more parental with [students].” He says he simply doesn’t take the opportunity to cross this line.
The low-burnout females also make this distinction between parenting and teaching. FL1 says, “I do parent my kids … [but] I don’t get ultra-involved in their personal lives; that’s not my business and it’s not my place. … Sometimes I do help out and offer another adult perspective.” FL3 admits, “Most students around me have pretty normal family lives.” This statement may support a contrast between rural-school atmospheres, and suburban schools. Both FL1 and FL3 teach at rural schools, while the high-burnout teachers who discuss stress from parenting students are all teachers at suburban public schools. So, perhaps the suburban areas are lacking more parental involvement, and teachers are more likely to take this into their own hands.

Gender roles. While the maternal mindset prevailed as the greater theme to describe the high levels of burnout among female high-school journalism teachers, gender roles still play a part in the stress of everyday life as a teacher. This is particularly evident in the high-burnout females, more than the rest of the respondents. Greenglass and Burke (1988) and Cheary and Mechanic (1983) identify the struggle between playing “mom,” playing “wife,” and successfully balancing a career as a gender role confusion. In Greenglass and Burke’s (1988) study, role conflict, or the struggle between succeeding as a wife, mother, and coworker, was a significant predictor of burnout only among women, not men.

Only one female specifically mentioned the gender-role struggle. FH4 says, “I come from a very traditional family; I am very traditional in that I do the laundry, cook, take care of the house. And, it’s not Neanderthal, but [my husband] will sit and toast bread waiting for me to come home and cook dinner.” If it is assumed that married women have more responsibility at home, all of the high-burnout female respondents are married. While they might not specifically discuss their home responsibilities, research (e.g., Greenglass & Burke, 1988) supports the assumption that they do more work at home than their husbands do.

One male, low-burnout respondent (ML1) admits that his wife takes care of the kids (he has two young children), as well as most of the housework. The other two low-burnout men have grown children; however, they are all married, so they have the support of a wife to run their households. While ML2 and ML3 are both married and have grown children, they do say their
wives work full-time; ML2 says he only works late when his wife works late.

Depersonalization. On the note of working late, it is critical to discuss the earlier mentioned difference between men and women when it comes to depersonalization. Depersonalization, as defined by Maslach (1976), is impersonal dealings toward the recipient of one’s service. In the case of teachers, this means feelings of detachment from students and/or colleagues. Maslach et al. (2001) goes on to describe that highly burned-out individuals will even feel cynical or distrusting of other people’s motives. This is all a part of depersonalization. With this in mind, depersonalization was evident in two distinct ways between men and women respondents.

For highly burned-out female respondents, cynicism and distrust were wildly evident during the in-depth interviews. FH1 says, “Males come to school, go home, and it’s all good. They go fishing on the weekend and they actually have a life. Females have more work to do, more responsibilities. [I have] aging parents, I have kids.” The cynicism is even more evident in FH3, who says,

We have one man in our department now and he’s hilarious. He leaves exactly when school’s over. [We] never see him go home with anything in his hand. I don’t know how he does it. We’re all there late hours, trying to get stuff done and worrying about this and that, and he goes home and it’s family time.

On the other hand, the high-burnout men are also experiencing elevated depersonalization, but this is evident more in the form of taking work home—they can’t simply “unplug” from their work. They admit to taking work home on a regular basis, and that they often stay at work later than the typical hours. MH2 says, “I end up taking my work home; it’s a 24-7 lifestyle. ... I almost always have papers to grade.” This respondent, MH2, says he does notice a difference in genders among his colleagues. Males’ isolation is an issue, he says (referring to depersonalization, or not having colleagues to connect with for help). “Men don’t ask for help, we carry it on our own shoulders,” MH2 says.

The low-burnout men and women are both experiencing much lower expressed
depersonalization. These two groups (low-burnout men and women respondents) all say they do not take work home with them, and they don’t express any distaste for colleagues who might not be pulling their own weight or doing their share of work. The cynicism and distrust were simply not evident in the respondents with low levels of burnout (and low levels of depersonalization).

Technology self-efficacy. Another theme that became evident during evaluation of the in-depth interviews was the differences of expressed technology self-efficacy among the men and women. Women, particularly high-burnout female respondents, expressed lower technology self-efficacy than low-burnout males. The high-burnout women all teach in suburban classrooms, where (for the most part) technology has a large presence in their classrooms. High-burnout men (all of whom have graduate degrees, and therefore higher self-efficacy) also utilize technology in their classrooms, but they all express familiarity and comfortable emotions with the changing demands on their instruction.

This phenomenon does have some theoretical basis. In the literature review, research supported higher technology self-efficacy among males (He & Freeman, 2010). Other research found that females experience more anxiety around new technology (Beyer, 2008), and that females are less comfortable with technology than males (Beyer, 2008; Karsten & Schmidt, 2008). In Beam et al.’s (2003) research on mass communication professors, higher self-efficacy among the professors was significantly related to lower burnout, and higher job satisfaction among the teachers. However, it is critical to note that self-efficacy did not significantly predict burnout in the quantitative section of this study.

Among the high-burnout women interviewed for this study, FH3 says, “It’s necessary to integrate technology [into my curriculum], but I feel like I don’t have time to learn it in order to teach it.” FH4 says, “Technology doesn’t add stress, but it’s that it changes so quickly. I feel like the kids know more than I do.” These emotions aren’t widespread over all of the high-burnout female respondents. FH1 says she loves new technology, and admits that she’s “aging but I stay ahead because I have a passion for it.”

Other women, with low burnout (two of three have their master’s degree), say technology
is just part of modern teaching. But, these teachers also say they’ve got the equipment needed to make this leap into the future. FL3 says, “I have a computer lab with 19 computers, with Adobe Suite Master Collection CS4; 12 new Rebel cameras, and equipment to actually print and bind (self-publish) our own yearbooks.” This is a distinct difference in the other high-burnout females who say their equipment is lacking. If they don’t have the equipment to learn on, their technology self-efficacy in that particular medium (whether it is a design software or digital camera) will be lagging. FH1, who has a bachelor’s degree (versus the other high-burnout women with master’s degrees), says, “We don’t have stuff that other people have. We use CS2. That’s crap. It pisses me off; I want the new stuff.”

For the high-burnout males, keeping up with the new technology is “exciting and overwhelming all at once,” says MH2. This respondent (MH2), who is between age 40 and 49, says he also struggles to get the equipment he needs to teach technology in his journalism curriculum. “I have to train and fund myself,” he says. “We are old dogs trying to learn new tricks. … It takes me a long time to learn new software, but I can see the practical application for it.” The difference here—between a high-burnout male and high-burnout female with technology self-efficacy—is this: high-burnout females seem to give up, whereas the males keep pushing themselves to learn and grow. The females, on the other hand, seem to be so worried about their students (this goes back to the maternal mindset), versus worried about how prepared they are to teach the new changes in the journalism curriculum.

A passion for new technology is very evident in the low-burnout male respondents. ML3 lists off a handful of ways his classroom is pushing the technology limits, as does ML2. ML2 admits that some of his students actually don’t like the extra work, like recording audio or videos; this respondent goes out of his way to take seminars, go to conferences, and workshops to help him stay ahead of the curve. If he can’t get school funding, “I pay,” ML2 says. The higher the technology self-efficacy, the lower the burnout. This is distinct in the interview subjects.

Workload. When this research project was being developed and designed, writing the
survey and, later, developing the questions for the in-depth interview, several omissions were made that could possibly explain the high levels of burnout among high-school journalism teachers in general. These themes do not appear to have a distinct difference among genders, but are rather experienced across the board. One of these themes is a teacher’s workload.

It was a naïve assumption to think that high-school journalism teachers teach one thing: journalism. The reality, however, is that many high-school journalism teachers instruct other subjects in addition to journalism. These subjects include English (more commonly), computer technology, science, and U.S. history for the interview subjects at hand. The interviews suggest that teachers who filled out the online survey also teach other subjects, but the survey did not ask for these specifics.

However, the theme of a teacher’s workload arose with a strong presence among teachers with high levels of burnout. Workload has been found to add to stress levels and thus make a worker more subject to burnout. In this regard, teaching is a highly stressful occupation (Chaplain, 2008). Teachers with duel specialties may be called “high achievers” by Freudenberger (1974); these high-achievers are more likely to get burned out. One teacher (FH2) describes herself as the type of person who “can’t do anything half-assed.”

Among the high-burnout males, all three interview subjects instruct classes other than journalism. They say the journalism classes are not the courses that make them feel burned out. MH2 says, “I think I feel double pressure. The bigger stressor is that the journalism [classes] are so all-consuming that you get behind in your other classes. MH1 says, “I don’t feel burned out; I’m concerned. I’m concerned that I’m going to be burned out, specifically in my English [classes]. Partly because … the English classes push back a lot more.” He says his journalism students are willing to try; “you get the kids who are generally more advanced,” he says. MH3 shares a strong voice of anger toward his dueling courses, as he was hired specifically as a journalism teacher but now finds himself teaching computer technology and science. “Because I use technology so much in my [journalism] classroom, my principal made me a computer teacher, which I absolutely did not want to do. But I was the best qualified,” says MH3, who
adds that he actually quit his past teaching job and moved to another journalism position at a different high school.

The burned-out females are not teaching multiple classes, such as journalism and English, for instance. However, they’re advising a vast number of student-produced publications. This fell within the realm of the initial survey, but the in-depth interviews added a voice to why these teachers are taking on so much work. For FH2, who teaches at a suburban Texas school, multiple advisory responsibilities keep her at school for very long hours each day. Her school is under a hiring freeze, which means she had to take on the broadcast channel, as well as a student newsmagazine. Her typical advisory roles were limited to the student-produced newspaper and yearbook before the freeze and reduction in teaching staff. FH2 says, “This year I had two full-time jobs. I made a couple of dumb moves [agreeing to advise the broadcast channel and newsmagazine] that put work on me … I shouldn’t have arranged it this way; I fostered the kids’ growth, but not my own.”

This severe overloading of the journalism teachers’ workload could magnify the stress and burnout expressed by nearly one-third of surveyed teachers.

Student Behavior. According to Chaplain (2008), teachers’ stress is derived from students’ disruptive behavior. Other researchers (Evers et al., 2004; Chan, 2006) argue that student misbehavior and disruption in the classroom are a significant driver of burnout linked to teachers’ emotional exhaustion. The survey distributed to this research’s sample did not include any questions about the perceived behavior of students in the classroom. However, the further literature review on burnout made a strong case for behavior and its causation of burnout and elevated emotional exhaustion in teachers. Therefore, it was necessary to include a question about student behavior in the in-depth interviews. The teacher’s responses were surprising.

According to the majority of interview subjects, no matter their level of burnout, behavior is not an issue or a concern. Most expressed the sentiment that kids are kids, and they will act like children. As FH2 says, “Classroom management hasn’t been a problem for me. I just don’t have problems because I … don’t command them. I choose my battles.” FH1 says, “If they
choose to take my class, they want to be there.” In all of the interview subjects, journalism is an elective, so students choose to take the courses. Because a number of the teachers are also instructing courses other than journalism, these teachers do note a difference the behavior of students in classes outside of journalism. However, they do not think students’ behavior is declining or worsening.

Teachers say they certainly don’t tolerate bad behavior, either. Most interview subjects admit to working late hours on occasion to help make up slack when students can not get the job done (on a newspaper, for instance). But, there is no grace given to those who misbehave. According to FH3, “I tell the kids that it’s an elective, no one is holding your head to the fire. [If you can’t behave], get out. Respect has eroded in some ways, the way they speak to adults.”

Support and autonomy. While the burnout and job satisfaction scales present in the survey asked specifics about each teacher’s administration support and autonomy in classroom and curriculum management, this was only lightly discussed. When reviewing the literature for job satisfaction, both autonomy and administration support arose as possible predictors of job satisfaction levels in teachers. According to Rathmann (2002), a teacher with greater autonomy, or freedom to make curriculum and management decisions in the classroom, is more likely to be satisfied with his or her job. Researchers also suggest that administration support is a strong predictor of a teacher’s job satisfaction (Baughman, 1996; Perie & Baker, 1997; Morgan & O’Leary, 2004). As it pertains to burnout, Wolpin et al. (1991) argues a causal relationship between burnout and job satisfaction—not the opposite: “A teacher’s dissatisfaction with his/her job increases in proportion to the increase in sources of stress and psychological burnout experienced by him/her” (p. 205).

High-burnout interview subjects in this research expounded upon a lagging support of administrators and an overwhelming sense of isolation as a journalism teacher. MH2 says, “The lack of support is really what’s unique to journalism teachers. We don’t have a support network. I don’t have that support in my building [with another teacher] who does what I do with the newspaper.” For MH1, this lack of support from the administration is born from the drive for
numbers-proven success, such as with standardized state test scores. For journalism teachers, who might not have numbers-proven results in their classroom, this could just add to the sense of isolationism and, possibly, insecurity in their job. FH4 adds that she feels hurt when she sees other teachers using the student-produced newspaper as trash, or to line hamster cages in the classroom. She says, “We get no credit. We’re at the bottom of the feeding pool here at the school. Sometimes you feel like, what am I doing this for?”

Additional feelings of isolation may breed in the form of late nights spent at the school finishing the paper—alone. FH4 says she often stays late because she doesn’t want to print an incomplete paper. FH3 says, “I’m the only journalism teacher. They keep saying they’re going to hire a second journalism teacher. I’m hoping eventually I can give up the yearbook.”

Test scores-driven curriculum plays a role in a lagging sense of autonomy expressed by high-burnout teachers who were interviewed for this research. But more specifically, budgetary autonomy seems to play an even greater role in adding stress to the teachers’ lives. FH2 expresses frustration with her school district because the top administration will not allow her to spend allotted funds for travel to and from conferences that would help her and her students learn and grow. While she says they have the money in their account, such as money earned by yearbook sales, they don’t have control over how it is spent, even for continued learning experiences and/or competitions. “I just think that our kids are being shortchanged by all of these experiences that they’re being invited to [but can’t go]. What it boils down to is that … the principals have the power,” FH2 says.

This lagging sense of power and control over the classroom could put an added burden of stress on teachers’ already deteriorating sense of job satisfaction, leading to higher levels of burnout and emotional exhaustion.

**Qualitative Discussion**

High-school journalism classrooms are similar to miniature incubators because they grow and develop future journalists, but they also breed strong friendships, a sense of identity among students, and collaborative work environments that allow both teacher and student to develop
close, personal relationships with one another. Because journalism is an elective, students choose to be in the staff classrooms of a student-produced newspaper, yearbook, or broadcast channel. This is a very unique type of student—one that wants to do hard work and contribute to a group project. As noted by Varallo, however, students are depending more and more on teachers to provide caring feedback and support during their learning process.

While students might view this as simply getting to know, or even befriend, a teacher, female teachers responded differently. Females are historically noted as more nurturing than males. When given the chance to step into a nurturing role within their classrooms, teachers in this research report that they are parenting their students more often. It is this added responsibility that, according to the in-depth interviews conducted, explains why gender is the more significant predictor of burnout among high-school journalism teachers. These teachers are busy managing a classroom, supporting student-produced publications, and yet they are also losing sleep at night wondering if their “kids” are in trouble. It’s proving to be too much for female high-school journalism teachers.

The suggestion all interview subjects offered for a reduction in burnout was for teachers to take more time for themselves: Do not allow your profession, no matter how involving it may be, to rob the individual of his or her passions outside of the classroom. Admittedly, this might not easy to do if it could negatively affect performance in the classroom (such as if a teacher leaves without completing a task and thus gets reprimanded for the incompletion). Therefore, administrators need to be more aware of what is happening (maternal mindset) in these close-knit, student-staffed classrooms.

This research also found several additional stressors that could be adding to the significant levels of burnout among high-school journalism teachers. The first was a diversified workload that includes classes other than journalism. The high-burnout males are all teaching classes other than journalism. This adds more workload to their daily schedule, and also means they are spending more time at school after hours. Female high-burnout interviewees did not report that they’re teaching other subjects, but all of the high-burnout females are advising
multiple student-produced publications. This heavy workload is obviously taking a toll on the teachers’ morale and motivation in the classroom. To help reduce this diversity and its negative effect on teachers’ burnout and job satisfaction, the interview subjects suggest that schools should consider hiring additional teachers to either help support the advisory positions or allow the specialized journalism teachers to focus on just one subject matter. However, the interviewees also note that the current economic climate is not conducive to additional hiring. If hiring is not an option, the interviewees suggest that journalism teachers locate outside help, like a professional journalist, to donate time or lectures and perhaps instruct students on a new technology that the teacher has yet to have time to learn.

Administration support and autonomy also arose as two loudly voiced complaints by teachers with high levels of burnout. Whether the administration is simply not providing positive feedback, forcing the journalism programs to prior review of the paper, or not allowing the journalism departments to have the budgetary autonomy that is believed to help students and teachers succeed, change is required to help reduce this stress. Interview subjects suggest that administrators could consider positive feedback, whether it is mentioning the student-produced paper at a staff meeting, or sending out a positive email to all of the teachers.

Additionally, student behavior, while suggested strongly in the literature review, proved to not have any noticeable impact on teachers.
CONCLUSION

The quantitative aspect of this research sought to explore the frequency of technology use in journalism classrooms, including the types of tools being used, as well as journalism teacher’s experienced self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and burnout. The survey revealed that, while there was a growing prevalence of technology tools being used in classrooms, traditional tools (such as the AP Stylebook) remain more frequently used. In other words, multimedia journalism appears to be taking a backseat to traditional journalism in the high-school journalism education setting.

Perhaps the most important aspect of this research was the results showing nearly one-third of respondents reporting high levels of burnout. The quantitative research sought to explore which possible variables (including self-efficacy, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, demographics, and school profile factors) may be significantly related to burnout. In this case, job dissatisfaction proved to be the strongest predictor of burnout; however, gender prevailed as the second strongest predictor. Female journalism teachers reported higher levels of burnout than their male counterparts. Further analysis did not reveal an explanation of why females were more likely to experience burnout.

Therefore, a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative research was developed to further explore the reasoning behind this phenomenon. It was suspected that gender roles might have accounted for the greater significance of females experiencing burnout. However, qualitative in-depth interviews revealed that females are experiencing a heightened maternal mindset, in which they feel as though their students are their own children. Therefore, they experience higher levels of expressed stress when their students struggle or experience hardship. This extra emotional investment could possibly account for the higher level of experienced burnout, particularly when compared to the male respondents (with low burnout) who claim they do not parent their students.

The quantitative arm of this research has several limitations. First, the initial response rate was not very high, which necessitated extending the survey period. It could have been better if the JEA membership directory had been available. Although no significant difference in
response existed between the first and second halves of respondents, the artifact of history affected the validity of this survey is unknown.

Also, additional research is needed to examine the elevated levels of burnout among high-school journalism teachers, as well as possible significant predictors in the types of specific technology tools and/or skills taught in their classrooms. This study did not draw a distinction between traditional uses and multimedia uses of desktop-publishing software, nor did it differentiate specific software programs in terms of how they were used in class: traditional journalism or multimedia journalism. To understand exactly how those tools are affecting burnout levels, those distinctions are necessary.

The qualitative research provided a glimpse of “why” this sample of teachers was expressing emotions of high-level burnout. Yet, this is just a glimpse. With only 14 teachers successfully interviewed, this is a major limitation in the depth of research. However, the interviews did provide a starting point for this research.

Unfortunately, the controlled sampling did not provide a diverse range of interview subjects. All interview subjects described themselves as Caucasian/white, and only one was located in an urban environment (ML2). Urban atmosphere was identified as a significant predictor of burnout in the quantitative study. Therefore, more diversity may have better provided a more representative look at how teachers are feeling and coping with burnout.

Also, the timing of the interviews was also a major limitation during this research. The initial survey was distributed to teachers in November 2010 through February 2011. Interviews did not begin until May 2011 and were completed in August 2011. This means that teachers were being interviewed about their experiences with burnout during their summer vacation, which may have resulted in either a hyper-sensationalized or a reduced sensation of their emotions, depending on the individual.

Finally, the next step is to determine the causal structure of high-school journalism teachers’ burnout. Given that both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were strong predictors of the teachers’ expressed burnout levels, it is imperative to explore what variables are affecting
both satisfaction and dissatisfaction measures while accounting for some control variables, such as gender.

The concept of maternal mindset among teachers, specifically in high-school elective coursework such as journalism, is severely lacking in research. More research on this phenomenon could better investigate the nuances of teaching an elective, and how this specialized-type of environment creates an incubator of stress and burnout among educators, especially females. Additional research is also needed in the realm of high-school journalism technology: What tools are specifically being used? How is the Web creating new challenges in prior review among high-school administrators? More research on the types of technology and the legal issues surrounding Web publishing will provide further insight into the additional stress high-school journalism teachers face in their classrooms.
REFERENCES


doi:10.1080/01443410500342492


http://www.lonang.com/exlibris/blackstone/


doi:10.1016/j.tate.2009.11.001


doi:10.1080/03634529209378869


