STRESS AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG
SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS IN
URBAN DISTRICTS IN TEXAS

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
University of North Texas in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Elizabeth Cummings, B.S., M. Ed.
Denton, Texas
August, 1994
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Special education teacher turnover in urban districts is a problem for many school districts. Methods for retaining teachers within the teacher ranks are becoming critical as the number of special teachers needed increases.

The purpose of this study was to explore the correlation of stress and job satisfaction among urban special education teachers. A stress inventory, Maslach Burnout Inventory, a job satisfaction questionnaire, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, and a demographic profile were used to survey 292 special needs teachers.

The responses from the teachers surveyed were analyzed using one-way multivariate analysis of covariance procedures. Results indicate no significant differences were observable between teachers of students with varying classifications or between elementary and secondary teachers. Depersonalization was found to be a significant factor in the extrinsic satisfaction a teacher experienced in his/her job. The personal demographic variable which was related to the stress scales was race. Professional demographic variables related to the stress scales were the number of years the professional intends to remain on the job and the preparation the professional had received prior to entering the job. The
personal demographic variable related to the job satisfaction scales was marital status (extrinsic satisfaction). Professional demographic variables related to the stress scales were the number of years the professional planned to remain in special education and the preparation the professional had received prior to entering the job.

The results of this study suggest that hiring and retaining special education teachers is more complex than addressing simple stress and job satisfaction issues. Current literature indicates that special education teachers are in limited supply; the lack of professional personnel will continue to be a factor in the future of special education. This lack of qualified personnel and inability to retain experienced employees impacts the quality and services level for future special needs students. State educational agencies and local school districts must find ways to recruit, hire, and retain qualified teaching personnel to provide programs for special needs students. More refined studies are needed to address the negative impact of stressed teachers remaining in the special education profession and the preparation given to professionals prior to job entry.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background

Implementation of Public Law 101–476, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 (formerly Public Law 94–142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975), and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 has been underway for almost 20 years. Execution of this legislation has changed the scope and structure of special education services across the nation (Crane & Iwanicki, 1986). One of the effects of the implementation of these statutes has been the elevation of personnel concerns to a major interest item for state education agencies and individual school districts (Krause, 1993; McLaughlin, Smith–Davis, & Burke, 1986; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988). The need to recruit, hire, and retain an adequate number of teachers is now considered a significant factor in providing quality education for public school students (Dworkin, 1987). In addition, the need to recruit, hire, and retain an adequate number of special education teachers is now considered a significant factor in school districts' provision of a free, appropriate public education for all students with disabilities (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Hall, Villemme, & Phillippy, 1988; National Association of State Directors of Special Education [NASDSE]).
Of the almost 300,000 special education teachers employed throughout the United States, approximately 15,000 leave the profession each year; the influx of 25,000 new teachers does not keep pace with the need created by this exodus (Frank & McKenzie, 1993; USDE, 1989a; USDE, 1991; Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1982). Brownell and Smith (1992) reported that special education teachers exit the classroom in significantly greater numbers than their general education counterparts. Both the national and state attrition rates are consistently higher for special educators than for general educators (Brownell & Smith, 1992). The Department of Education, in 1991, reported a shortage of 28,000 special education teachers during the 1988–1989 school year; Krause (1993) noted that 26,000 special education jobs are unfilled yearly. (The apparent discrepancy between the two reports may be the result of discrepancies from the primary source documents). Factors contributing to the inadequate number of teachers entering and remaining in the special education field are (a) teacher stress (Brownell & Smith, 1992; 1993; Frank & McKenzie, 1993; Holland, 1982; Platt & Olson, 1990; Zabel & Zabel, 1982), (b) limited job satisfaction (Hudson & Meagher, 1983; Lombardi & Donaldson, 1988; Weiskopf, 1980), (c) high teacher-pupil ratios (Brownell & Smith, 1992; 1993; Weiskopf, 1980), and (d) lack of a cohesive, integrated system of teacher training (Hall et al., 1988; Platt Olson, 1990). Of the above, stress and job satisfaction are the focus of this research.
Despite efforts to conform to federal and state legislative requirements, school districts across Texas begin each school year with open positions for special education teachers, especially for students labeled emotionally disturbed, severely or profoundly disabled, and for children with disabilities living in rural school districts (McLaughlin et al., 1986; USDE, 1989a; USDE, 1991). McLaughlin et al. (1986) also reported that state administrators anticipate that two-thirds or more of the current special education teachers for emotionally disturbed and severely or profoundly disabled children will remain in their position for no more than 4 years. Studies of the national attrition rate for special education teachers report decreases in the teaching force ranging from 25% to 50% (Lauritzen & Friedman, 1993; Lawrenson & McKinnon, 1982; McIntyre, 1983; Smith-Davis & Billingsley, 1993).

Compounding the problem is the fact that fewer students are entering or graduating from colleges of education (Bowen & Klass, 1993; Brownell & Smith, 1992; NASDSE, 1990). Of the 589 high school students surveyed by Kemper and Mangieri (1987), 53% were not interested in teaching as a career. Still fewer students are choosing to enter the field of special education (Bowen & Klass, 1993; Kemper & Mangieri, 1987; McLaughlin et al., 1986). Kemper and Mangieri (1987) reported that less than one-half of college students were interested in education as a vocation and only 16% indicated a desire to work with children with special needs. The long-term prospect is for continued personnel shortages in all
areas of special education (Kemper & Mangieri, 1987; NASDSE, 1990). Rural and inner city school districts will experience the greatest impact of these shortages (Brownell & Smith, 1992; 1993; McLaughlin et al., 1986). The retention of prepared professional special educators in rural and urban settings will continue as a critical need in the foreseeable future and is vital to provision of a free appropriate education to special needs students living in those settings (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Hudson & Meagher, 1983; Lombardi & Donaldson, 1988; McLaughlin et al., 1986).

Studies of levels of stress among special education teachers suggest that stress is a factor in the attrition of this group of educators and have provided equivocal evidence that these teachers have greater potential for stress than do regular educators (Bensky et al., 1980; Cherkes & Fimian, 1982; Knowles, 1980; Presley, 1981). Research is needed to determine the degree to which stress and lack of job satisfaction may be significant determinants in the rate of turnover in the special education profession (Maslach & Jackson, 1982). Beck and Gargiulo (1983) suggested the need to survey urban, suburban, and rural teachers and to focus on the relationship of stress variables and distinctive personality attributes, such as job satisfaction. Definitive studies are required as the first step in the retention of a cadre of special educators in the classrooms (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Fimian, 1983; Fimian, Pierson, & McHardy, 1986; Weiskopf, 1980).

State and local school systems must be dynamic and responsive to the needs of their clients (the public) and to
their workers (teachers) (Adams & Bailey, 1989; Faidley & Musser, 1989; Shaw, Bensky, & Dixon, 1981). A substantial financial investment is made yearly in the recruitment, pre-service staff development and in-service staff development of new special education teachers. The time and fiscal resources consumed in recruiting, pre-service education, and in-service training of special educators is too significant to justify continued expenditure of those monies without data that supports those disbursements (Bowen & Klass, 1993; Brownell & Smith, 1992; 1993; Fimian & Blanton, 1987; Greer & Greer, 1992; Holland, 1982; Lauritzen & Friedman, 1993; McLaughlin et al., 1986; Shaw et al., 1981; Smith-Davis, Burke, & Noel, 1984; Sutton & Huberty, 1984).

Purpose

The purposes of this study are to (a) determine if there are differences in the stress and job satisfaction levels for urban special education teachers of four eligibility categories (learning disabled, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, and severely or profoundly disabled); (b) determine if differences in stress and job satisfaction occur between urban elementary and secondary special education teachers; (c) determine if stress is correlated with specific demographic variables, including leaving special education assignments for other regular education teaching appointments; (d) determine if job retention is correlated with specific aspects of stress and job satisfaction or dissatisfaction based upon participants' responses to a satisfaction questionnaire; and (e) explore possible reasons for the rate
of special education teacher turnover in urban centers in Texas.

Significance

Methods must be found to develop and retain master teachers in special education. This investigation is significant for three reasons. First, it provides empirical evidence of (a) special education teacher stress and job satisfaction levels among teachers in the urban areas of Texas; (b) the level and type of teacher stress and job satisfaction levels in Texas for teachers of the learning disabled (LD), emotionally disturbed (ED), mentally retarded (MR), severely or profoundly handicapped (SPH), and multicategorical; (c) the level of teacher stress and job satisfaction in Texas for urban special education teachers of elementary and secondary age students; (d) the correlation of the level of stress with the job satisfaction of the teachers; (e) the correlation of the level of stress with specific demographic variables; and (f) the correlation of the level of job satisfaction with specific demographic variables. Second, the data obtained provide a preliminary basis for suggesting areas of need that can be addressed to decrease or eliminate teacher shortages due to stress and lack of job satisfaction in special education assignments in the major urban school districts of Texas. Third, the results from this study provide a foundation for special education departments in major urban school districts in Texas.
to investigate possible methodological changes in employing and retaining master special education teachers.

Limitations

Data obtained from special education teachers employed in urban areas in the State of Texas are dependent upon the goodwill of those individuals. The measurements thus obtained may be affected by the quantity of respondents and the quality of their responses (Borg & Gall, 1983).

Another limitation involves the use of the two rating scales, Maslach Burnout Inventory, Form Ed (1986) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (1977). Both instruments require individuals to self-report. The ratings obtained are the result of the individuals' self-perceptions of the statements and thus are subject to individual interpretation.

Lack of consistent interpretations of (a) eligibility criteria, (b) classroom definitions, and (c) economic constraints on school district implementation of federal and state requirements are other limiting factors. Assessment personnel experience difficulty in consistently applying specific eligibility criteria to the students who are appraised. Some teachers who are assigned to a specific classroom type have students with various disabilities. Districts encounter economic factors which require that students with various disabilities be placed in a single classroom.

Another limitation is deliberate. The study is limited to urban special education teachers only. Within the literature, studies exist which compare the stress of special
education teachers to the stress level of regular education teachers. The focus of this study is the exploration of the stress level and job satisfaction of urban special education teachers with the goal of formulating possible changes in some aspect of the work environment or recruitment and hiring procedures.

Definitions of Terms

Functional definitions are used to clarify for the reader the terms used within the document.

Elementary describes schools serving children who are placed in kindergarten through the sixth grade.

Job Satisfaction is measured using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire which uses task satisfaction to measure the extent to which a person's competence matches the proficiency standards in work, and how well the person's requirements correspond to the reinforcers accessible in the occupational conditions.

Mentally retarded are students whose "Handicapping condition [is] characterized by significantly subaverage general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period, which adversely affects a child's educational performance" (34 Code of Federal Regulations Part 300).

Multicategorical describes Concomitant impairments (such as mentally retarded-blind, mentally retarded-orthopedically impaired, etc.), the combination of which causes such severe educational problems that they cannot be accommodated in special education programs solely for one of the impairments. The term does not include deaf-blind children (34 Code of Federal Regulations Part 300).
Secondary describes schools serving students placed in grades 7 through 12.

Seriously emotionally disturbed is

A condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree, which adversely affects educational performance: (a) An inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors; (b) an inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers; (c) inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances; (d) a general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; or (e) a tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems. The term includes children who are schizophrenic. The term does not include children who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that they are seriously emotionally disturbed (34 Code of Federal Regulations Part 300).

Specific learning disability is

A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor handicaps, mental retardation, or emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage (34 Code of Federal Regulations Part 300).

Stress is mental or physical tension or strain, or urgency, or pressure, which in turn exacerbates the mental or physical tension experienced by an individual in the human service professions. Using the definition developed by Christina Maslach and Susan E. Jackson (1986), stress is characterized by weariness in responding to feelings, lack of positive responses when working with clients, and diminished individual attainments that can develop among persons who work in the public community arena.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

A review of literature was undertaken to determine current needs in the special education teaching profession regarding evidence of teacher stress, job satisfaction, and career maintenance. The articles and texts chosen were written within the last 15 years, with the exception of seminal documents.

Sources used in compiling the list of literature reviewed were the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), Resources in Education (REI), the Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE), DIALOG OneSearch (Psychological Information and Psychology Alert), Dissertation Abstracts Online, The Education Index, and the bibliographies of the articles selected. Key words used in the search included: burnout, cause, education, educational personnel, effect, factor, handicapped, handicapped students, identification of, job, job satisfaction, occupational stress, special education, special education teachers, special educator, stress, stress (psychology), stress management, symptom, and teachers.

Selye provided the seminal work on stress in 1956. In a revision (1974) of his first book, he stated that stress was the "nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it" (p. 27). Stress has its roots in American–European
society and is related to the work environment (Ianni & Reuss-Ianni, 1983). Foundational theory for stress is found in Marxism (Karger, 1981).

Freudenberger (1983) in studying stress behavior, is reported to have first used the term "burnout" in 1974 and 1975 to refer to the "physical and emotional depletion resulting from conditions of work" (p. 1). Zabel, Boomer, and King (1984) characterized burnout as "a repeated cycle of unrealized expectations and negative experiences" (p. 219). Heifetz and Bersani (1983) characterized burnout as a disruption in the "cybernetics of personal growth" (p. 46). Although burnout has been used as a synonym for stress in a variety of professions, a strict definition limits the use of either word to the human service professions and to work related reactions (Freudenberger, 1983; Holland, 1982; Maslach, 1978). Fimian and Blanton (1987) indicated a continued deficit in the literature in operational definitions of both stress and burnout, but Dworkin (1987) provided the following theoretical explanation of burnout (stress):

Burnout is an extreme form of role-specific alienation characterized by a sense that one's work is meaningless and that one is powerless to effect changes which could make the work more meaningful. This sense of meaninglessness and powerlessness is heightened by a belief that the norms associated with the role and the setting are absent, conflicting, or inoperative, and that one is alone and isolated among one's colleagues and clients. (p. 28)

Stress includes components from the personal, emotional, physical, occupational, and social features of an individual's life (Dworkin, 1987; Farber, 1983; Freudenberger, 1983; Krause, 1993; Shaw et al., 1981; Trendall, 1989). A person who experiences stress is generally a people-oriented
individual who has high personal expectations (Farber, 1983; Fischer, 1983). Sakharov and Farber (1983) stated that burnout is "a dynamic interactive relationship between the individual teacher and the social world" (p. 67). Karger (1981) and Trendall (1989) located stress within the individual and his or her adaptive responses to the social and/or work environment.

Selye (1974) compared the stages of stress to the biological reactions of the body: alarm, resistance, and exhaustion. Current definitions of the levels of stress are based on Selye's comparisons and range from short periods of frustration, anxiety, fatigue, and irritability to specific physical problems (e.g., insomnia, headaches, chronic back pain, and ulcers) (Holland, 1982; Huston, 1989). Symptoms include constant fatigue, feelings of helplessness, work boredom, lack of commitment, and certain physiological changes, such as angina and high blood pressure (Konrad, 1986).

A single definition of stress is difficult because stress must be viewed as both a process and a product, a discrepancy between a person's perceived input and expected output (Beasley, Myette, & Serna, 1983; Trendall, 1989). As a process, it becomes subjectively defined for each person who experiences it. Stress, which can be pervasive in a person's life, is not limited by the work environment (Farber, 1983; Freudenberg, 1983; Harrison, 1983; Krause, 1993; Shaw, Bensky, & Dixon, 1981).
Factors and Causes of Stress

The behavioral and emotional environment of the organizational workplace shape an individual's perceptions of stress and their perceptions of job satisfaction as derived from assigned tasks (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Frank & McKenzie, 1993; Ianni & Reuss-Ianni, 1983; Johnson, Gold, Williams, & Fiscus, 1981; Trendall, 1989). Within the educational field, stressors may be created by the constraints imposed by structural, student, managerial, educator, parental, professional, personal, pedagogical, programmatic, and negative public attitudinal concerns (Beasley et al., 1983; Brownell & Smith, 1992; Cook & Leffingwell, 1982; Creekmore, 1981; Frank & McKenzie, 1993; Heron, 1988; Huston, 1989; Johnson, et al, 1981; Lutz & Maddirala, 1990; McIntyre, 1983).

Causes of stress can be defined as (a) vagueness in role definition, (b) dissension in function and capacity of the role, and (c) quantitative and qualitative overload for the role (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Cook & Leffingwell, 1982; Crane & Iwanicki, 1986; Creekmore, 1981; Farber, 1983; Harrison, 1983; Heifetz & Bersani, 1983; Huston, 1989; Lutz & Maddirala, 1990; Schwab, 1981; Shaw et al., 1981; Trendall, 1989). The ambiguity of the function of the teacher's role encompasses the elemental information regarding the assigned task or job, the prerogatives of the individual, the obligations to be sustained, the techniques used in fulfilling the responsibilities, long- and short-term or intermediate goals, the status of the position, and how the individual is answerable for the fulfillment of the job responsibilities.
Contradictory, incompatible, and irrelevant demands by superiors create internal dissension in individuals' fulfillment of the function and capacity of their assigned roles (Beasley et al., 1983; Brownell & Smith, 1992; Farber, 1983; Heifetz & Bersani, 1983; Huston, 1989; Ianni & Reuss-Ianni, 1983; Shaw et al., 1981; Trendall, 1989). Conflicts regarding values and ethics can occur between individuals and their superiors, their co-workers, or their supervisees. Situational obstacles can also occur that encourage conflict (Farber, 1983).

Quantitative and qualitative overload in an assigned role are the result of a lack of resources (Cook & Leffingwell, 1982; Farber, 1983; Harrison, 1983; Johnson et al, 1981; Shaw et al., 1981; Trendall, 1989). Budget cutbacks, job freezes, and lack of applicants for designated positions contribute to quantitative overload (i.e., too many students per teacher or too many clients per professional) (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Farber, 1983). Changes in task requirements that necessitate skills or abilities greater than an individual has or can attain result in qualitative overload (Brownell & Smith, 1993; Heifetz & Bersani, 1983). A common element found in all lists of causes or factors of stress is unrealistic expectations (Beasley et al., 1983; Brownell & Smith, 1992; Sakharov & Farber, 1983) or inconsequentiality of actions (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Farber, 1983). Individuals exhibiting stress under these conditions conclude that no
matter what is done or how much time is spent doing the task, no good will result.

Extent of Stress Applied to Teachers

In 1977, Bloch found stress most prevalent in teachers who (a) allowed teaching to monopolize their lives, (b) were intense about their occupation, (c) were unrealistic about the dynamics and components of their profession, and (d) were staunchly loyal to their responsibilities. A decade later, Lombardi and Donaldson (1988) found that beginning special education teachers were unaware of probable stressors which could occur during teaching. Brownell and Smith (1992) reported that this trend continues. Although excellence in teaching is to be desired, it can be exacting. Stress strikes the most caring, the most involved teachers because a discrepancy exists between their expended efforts and the results obtained. This discrepancy impacts their perception of their role and their self-esteem (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Farber, 1983; Frank & McKenzie, 1993).

In a study using the naturalistic inquiry method Garland (1981) found that teachers either left the profession or were under stress due primarily to poor administrative leadership. Similar findings were reported by Thompkins (1980) in a study of teachers in one region of Texas, and by Oberlin (1980) in a study of special education teachers in 49 of the 58 intermediate school districts of Michigan. Brownell and Smith (1992) and Platt and Olson (1990) reported that poor administrative leadership continues to be a primary factor in special education teacher attrition. McIntyre (1981) and
Banks and Necco (1990) found that teachers' levels of stress varied with their locus of control, age, gender, training, and years of experience. In a meta-analysis of the literature on stress and burnout among special education teachers, Jarvis (1988) documented significant correlations between specific (a) demographic variables, (b) teaching assignments, and (c) environment.


A study of 200 regular and special education teachers from four midwestern states also revealed no significant differences in the stress levels of teachers in the two groups (Hudson & Meagher, 1983). In a study of 524 Indiana teachers (262 in special education and 262 in regular education) Creekmore (1981) found no significant differences between teachers of students classified as emotionally disturbed, regular classroom teachers, and elementary and secondary teachers. Other researchers have reported higher stress levels for special education teachers (Bensky et al., 1980; Cherkes & Fimian, 1982; Knowles, 1980). However, Allie (1982), Olsen (1988), and Trendall (1989) found that special education teachers experienced less stress than did regular educators. Faas (1984b) noted that specific factors related
to their job assignment may induce stress for regular and special education teachers. However, when teachers are grouped according to grade level, student type, and classroom type, no difference is evident in their perceived stress level (Beasley et al., 1983; Cherkes & Fimian, 1982; McIntyre, 1981; Trendall, 1989).

Resource room teachers (Faas, 1984b; Fimian, Pierson, & McHardy, 1986; Olson & Matuskey, 1982), teachers of retarded children (Beck & Gargiulo, 1983; Faas, 1984b; Weiskopf, 1980) and emotionally disturbed students (Creekmore, 1981; Faas, 1984b; Lawrenson & McKinnon, 1982) and full-time special education teachers (Fimian, 1983; Fimian & Santoro, 1983) experience stress as a result of several factors. Among those factors, the most important appear to be (a) high teacher-pupil ratio (Bensky et al., 1980; Cook & Leffingwell, 1982; Farber, 1983; Olson & Matuskey, 1982; Trendall, 1989), 
(b) limited pupil progress (Beck & Gargiulo, 1983; Farber, 1983, (c) lack of administrative support (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Hudson & Meagher, 1983; Johnson, et al., 1981; Lawrenson & McKinnon, 1982; Lombardi & Donaldson, 1988; Platt & Olson, 1990), (d) lack of effective communication with colleagues and parents (Cook & Leffingwell, 1982; Faas, 1984a, 1984b; Farber, 1983; Hudson & Meagher, 1983; Johnson et al., 1981; Lawrenson & McKinnon, 1982; Lombardi & Donaldson, 1988), (e) lack of professional recognition (Fimian, 1983; Lawrenson & McKinnon, 1982); (f) high level of direct contact with children (Fimian, 1983), (g) self-perception of control (Fimian, 1983; Johnson et al., 1981; McIntyre, 1984); (h) legal concerns (Johnson et al., 1981); (i) paperwork (Faas, 1984b; Olson & Matuskey,
1982); (j) procedural red tape (Faas, 1984b); (k) discipline and behavior problems (Faas, 1984b; Hudson & Meagher, 1983; Olson & Matuskey, 1982; Trendall, 1989), (l) lack of time (Trendall, 1989), and (m) pupil misbehavior (Creekmore, 1981; Trendall, 1989).

However, reports of the significance of stress among special education teachers are vary according to the special needs group taught. For example, different levels of stress have been reported by teachers of learning disabled students and teachers of mentally retarded students (Banks & Necco, 1990; Faas, 1984b). Differences in levels of stress were also reported by resource room teachers and teachers in self-contained classrooms (Bensky et al., 1980; Crane & Iwanicki, 1986; Faas, 1984a, 1984b). In contrast, however, Atkins (1987) found no significant difference between teachers' stress levels and demographic data in her study of self-contained, resource, and residential educators in Mississippi. Parham (1988), who noted that resource teachers were absent more frequently than teachers in self-contained classrooms, also found no significant difference in the stress levels of the two groups. Johnson et al. (1981) and Presley (1981) reported no significant differences in either the frequency or the intensity of stress among teachers for the emotionally disturbed, learning disabled, or educable mentally retarded. Studies by Zabel and Zabel (1982), Johnson et al. (1981), and Banks and Necco (1990) of teachers of mentally retarded, learning disabled, and emotionally disturbed students revealed no significant differences in the stress levels of the groups. A 1987 study of rural Alabama teachers
of mentally retarded, learning disabled, and emotionally
disturbed children supported the findings of the two studies
by Zabel and Zabel in 1982 and Johnson et al. in 1981 (Wiley,
1987). The findings of another study of stress among teachers
of emotionally disturbed, behaviorally disordered, severely
learning disabled, and moderately mentally retarded students
indicated that the stress levels of all four groups were
similar (Goodall, 1986).

However, a study of selected special education teachers
in two counties of West Virginia revealed that teachers of
behaviorally disordered students tended to have greater
absenteeism, lower job satisfaction, and higher stress levels
than did teachers of mentally retarded or learning disabled
students (Knowles, 1980). McGrath (1988) found that, among
teachers of emotionally disturbed students, job stress was
significantly related to work experience, salary, sympathetic
employment atmosphere, and support staff.

Elements contributing to teacher stress may result from
inadequate preservice training which leads to feelings of
unpreparedness. A study of 54 special education teachers in a
master's level program at West Virginia University revealed
that only one-third planned to remain in the profession until
retirement. The teachers surveyed in the study indicated that
because the stresses which occurred during actual teaching had
not been considered during their teacher training, they
perceived themselves as inadequately prepared (Lombardi &
Donaldson, 1988). Later studies of special educators have
supported this perception (Brownell & Smith, 1992). Special
education teachers with a low self-concept reported a higher
number of stress symptoms and sources of environmental stress than did teachers in regular education in a study of 142 midwestern teachers (Wallace & Kass, 1986). Teacher preparation should include specific factual information about the realities of teaching, careful screening of applicants, and training in specific teaching strategies to prevent high attrition levels (Banks & Necco, 1990; Burton, 1983; Greer & Greer, 1992; Platt & Olson, 1990).

Results of Stress

Professional concerns about stress appear to have varied considerably during the past 15 years. From 1976 through 1979, the primary causes for stress listed by teachers were low salaries, lack of job mobility, involuntary transfers, public pressure, budget cuts, demanding parents, excessive paperwork, and excessive testing (Faas, 1984b; McGuire, 1979). Similar causes were reported in studies from 1980 through 1993, although the rank order and the vocabulary changed slightly (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Krause, 1993). Although articles on the stress of teachers appeared steadily during this 15-year period, the focus of the articles shifted from concerns about individuals to the needs of districts to retain a viable work force.

Each of these studies provided empirical evidence about a particular type of special education teacher or a combination of type of classes. Banks and Necco (1990), who used special education eligibility categories in their study, focused on two school districts, one 95% urban and one 66% urban. No research was found which addressed the stress and job
satisfaction of urban public school special education teachers at all levels within a state. Questions regarding the extent to which stress and job satisfaction differ among urban teachers of learning disabled, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, severely or profoundly disabled, and multica tegorical students and the extent to which stress and job satisfaction differ among urban special education teachers of elementary and secondary age students remain unanswered.

Stress is emotionally, physically, financially, and professionally costly. Stress and the symptoms of stress extend beyond individual teachers, to students in class, colleagues, parents of students, and to teachers’ own families (Fimian & Blanton, 1987; Fimian & Santoro, 1983; Holland, 1982; Lutz & Maddirala, 1990; Weiskopf, 1980). Teachers who experience untreated stress ultimately must assume financial costs for medical care. School districts or educational agencies must bear the cost of absenteeism when teachers’ stress becomes so severe that they cannot cope with it. In addition, local education agencies, the parents of special needs students, and teachers share the cost of decreased effectiveness when teachers’ stress levels become excessive (Holland, 1982; Hudson & Meagher, 1983; Lutz & Maddirala, 1990).

Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction index has been used consistently in determining or reaffirming job–related stress (Brief & Atieh, 1987). Stress results when teachers experience deficiencies in need satisfaction (Anderson, 1980). Allie (1982) found a
clear association between job pressure, employment displeasure, and emotional fatigue among public school educators. Beasley (1984) noted that the factors which have consistently shown a moderate relationship with stress have been teacher understanding of role conflict and expectation, and job fulfillment.

A 1984 study by Sutton and Huberty (N = 20) indicated that special education teachers were somewhat more satisfied with their jobs than were regular education teachers. Data from the same study also suggest that teachers report higher job satisfaction when job stressors are low (Sutton & Huberty, 1984; Murphy, 1986). Research has also shown that management style (system) is a significant factor in job satisfaction (Woodruff, 1980). "High self—esteem and job satisfaction . . . are important results of an organizational system in which teachers" generally agree with "administrative educational and procedural style" (Ianni & Reuss—Ianni, 1983, p. 89). Based on a study of teachers entering special education, gender, age differences, and time in position tend to be predictive of job satisfaction (Pullen, 1987). Teachers with longer employment histories often report lower job satisfaction (Murphy, 1986).

Sources of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction are relationships, dependability and competency of coworkers, support and/or recognition from administration, and remuneration. Oberlin (1980) reported definite associations between the factors of job satisfaction (except monetary gratification), authority, and leadership. Dempsey (1985) reported that the only significant variable associated with teachers' job satisfaction was role conflict.
In another study, 33 Iowa teachers of students categorized as emotionally disturbed reported the following features as sources of job satisfaction: (a) relationships with staff, students and parents, (b) job competency, (c) dependable and competent helpers, (d) flexibility of program and procedures, (e) compensation, (f) leave time, (g) recognition for a job well done, (h) dependable staff and administrative support, and (i) clerical/paperwork tasks. However, when the same teachers ranked the same items in terms of job dissatisfaction, the top categories were (a) lack of administrative support or recognition for a job well done, (b) inconsistent support staff, (c) clerical and paperwork, and (d) parental contact (Lawrenson & McKinnon, 1982). Friesen, Prokop, and Sarros (1988) reached similar conclusions. Several aspects of teachers' role appear to elicit both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This leads to the question, Is there a relationship between stress factors and job satisfaction factors in the job assignments of urban special education teachers?

School officials in Beaverton, Oregon, developed focus groups and obtained a written survey from 451 teachers about their job satisfaction. The focus groups targeted dissatisfaction items such as need for better materials, more support personnel and planning time, smaller classes, and higher salaries. The written survey showed that the greatest influences on job satisfaction were (a) decisions about instruction, (b) institutional working situations, (c) professional acknowledgment, (d) income, (e) benefits, and (f) job position. Teachers' satisfaction can be addressed by
investigating causes of their dissatisfaction rather than their symptoms. The decision-making process should include teachers' point of view (Leslie, 1989).

Approximately one-half of the 54 students earning master's degrees in special education in 1985 at West Virginia University indicated that they would select another profession if they were beginning a career again. Furthermore, 37% of the students stated that they would leave teaching if they were offered a position outside of special education with at least an equivalent salary (Lombardi & Donaldson, 1988).

Several researchers have found no perceived differences in stressors due to job satisfaction between special education and regular education teachers (Abbott–Koch, 1985; Burrell, 1982; Ettingoff, 1984; Kass, 1985; Murphy, 1986). Research by Knowles (1980) revealed that special education teachers were less satisfied with their more stressful jobs and were generally absent more. Lobosco and Newman's (1992) research demonstrated that teachers working with students with learning problems exhibited decreased job satisfaction.

In a study of 459 elementary, middle, and senior high school classroom teachers in two suburban Connecticut school systems, stress was compared with teachers' need deficiencies of security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. Security was a factor of teachers' length of experience in teaching. Social needs of elementary and high school teachers were met more often than were those of middle or junior high school teachers. Older and elementary teachers indicated that their esteem needs were met more frequently than did middle or
high school teachers. Elementary teachers also indicated higher self-actualization than middle or high school teachers. High need deficiencies in areas of self-empowerment and regard were correlated with high stress levels. Data from this study suggest a possible connection between stress and job satisfaction (Anderson, 1980). Lobosco and Newman (1992) and Friesen et al. (1988) reached similar conclusions.

In a study of 365 full-time special education teachers in 61 towns in Connecticut, teachers of learning disabled and non-learning disabled students showed similar job satisfaction levels; over 70% of each group rated their job in the moderately-satisfied to satisfied range (Fimian, Pierson, & McHardy, 1986). The same study revealed that teachers' general attitudes were more positive with time and experience on the job.

Is there a relationship between stress and job satisfaction and teachers' outlook toward staying in special education? Practical implications for comparing stress levels and employee job satisfaction may serve as predictor of employee turnover (Brief & Atieh, 1987). Such predictions could allow administrators to plan for future vacancies within the ranks of special education teachers.

Conclusion and Summary

Review of the literature suggests that many professionals recognize the existence of stress as a negative factor in the education profession. However, the degree to which stress is a factor and the components of stress are not areas of consensus in the profession. Therefore, stress is difficult to
measure in terms that are satisfactory to all interested professionals.

The job satisfaction of teachers is the result of various intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Components of job satisfaction which seem to be most significant are time on the job, role conflict and expectations. Addressing those components positively provides a practical way of coping with high teacher turnover rates in special education.

Review of the literature suggests a need to explore the relationships between stress factors or job satisfaction factors and selected demographic variables; to determine the extent to which stress and job satisfaction differ among urban teachers of the learning disabled, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, severely or profoundly disabled, and multicategorical students; and to ascertain the extent to which stress and job satisfaction differ among urban special education teachers of elementary and secondary age students?

In the 1980s and 1990s, Texas experienced an economic downturn coupled with increased immigration of people from third world countries, particularly, Cambodia, Mexico, and Viet Nam. During the 1980s, the state education agency mandated student tests of achievement as a vehicle for addressing teacher effectiveness (Lutz & Maddirala, 1990). National reports on the state of education in this country have indicated the importance of improving the educational level of high school graduates if this nation is to maintain its status as a major world power, both financially and diplomatically (Boyer, 1983; Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, 1986; Goodlad, 1984; Heritage Foundation,

These external factors are significant elements in the recruitment, employment, and maintenance of a viable professional teaching force for special needs students in urban school districts. Therefore, urban school districts in Texas must assume total fiscal responsibility for the educational practices employed, including the provision of programs to maintain professionals within the classrooms.

**Research Questions**

Based on this review of the literature, the following questions need to be explored to address concerns about recruiting, hiring, and retaining adequate special education teachers in urban settings. Utilizing ratings on the Maslach Burnout Inventory, Form Ed and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and a demographic data sheet, four groups of urban special education teachers were surveyed to find answers to the following questions:

**Research Question 1:** To what extent do stress and job satisfaction differ among urban teachers of the learning disabled, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, severely or profoundly disabled, and multicategorical students?

**Research Question 2:** To what extent do stress and job satisfaction differ among urban special education teachers of elementary and secondary age students?

**Research Question 3:** Is there a relationship between the stress factors and job satisfaction factors?
Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between stress factors or job satisfaction factors and selected demographic variables?

Research Question 5: Is there a relationship between teachers' stress and job satisfaction and their outlook toward staying in special education
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Instrumentation

The questionnaire, which is an instrument of choice for measuring the attitudes and opinions of individuals, was selected for use in this study (Borg & Gall, 1983). The addition of a second instrument made it possible for the relationship between stress and various aspects of job satisfaction to be correlated. Data from the demographic profile permitted the relationships between stress, job satisfaction and demographic variables to be evaluated, and facilitated analysis of the retention rate correlated with the degree of teacher stress and level of job satisfaction experienced by the subjects surveyed.

A review of available tests was undertaken. Sources used were Burrows Tenth Mental Measurement Yearbook, Test Critiques, a review of the literature, and Tests in Print Series, Second Edition and development of research questions. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) were chosen for ease and rapidity of self-administration and for their relevance to the population to be surveyed.

Both the MBI and the MSQ have been normed on professional educator populations. The MBI has a form (Form Ed) specifically designed for administration to professionals in the educational field; professionals included are at all
levels of education (elementary to college), and can be teachers, administrators, paraprofessionals, social workers, specialists, counselors, and psychologists.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1986), a 22-item questionnaire which uses a Likert-type scale, is designed to measure the factors in a respondent's experience of burnout. Items on the MBI are written statements about personal feelings; an individual's responses indicate the degree of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, or personal accomplishment experienced in relation to the individual's occupation. The MBI was developed over a period of 8 years. Two sample forms consisting of 47 and 25 items were constructed and administered to 605 and 420 persons, respectively, in health and service professions. Previous research by Maslach and Jackson had indicated that individuals in these areas were at risk for burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1982, 1986). A factor analysis of both samples (N = 1025) yielded the three-factor structure of the instrument: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion and depersonalization should be considered separate but related aspects of stress, based on the moderate correlation (.52) between the two subscales. The personal accomplishment subscale is independent of, and has a low correlation with the other two subscales. Neither emotional exhaustion nor depersonalization can be assumed to be the opposite of personal accomplishment.

Reliability coefficients summarized in the MBI manual were established using samples not employed in the item
selections. This action was taken to avert escalation of the reliability approximations. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to assess the internal consistency of the MBI. Alpha coefficients for the three subscales were .71 for personal accomplishment, .79 for depersonalization, and .90 for emotional exhaustion. Test–retest reliability was reported on two samples: Graduate students in social welfare and administrators in a health agency (N = 53), and teachers (N = 248). The test session interval for the first sample was from 2 to 4 weeks. For the second sample, the test interval was 1 year. Test–retest reliabilities reported for the first sample were .80 for personal accomplishment, .60 for depersonalization, and .82 for emotional exhaustion. Test–retest reliabilities reported for the second sample were .54 for depersonalization, .57 for personal accomplishment, and .60 for emotional exhaustion (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Both sets of reported reliability measurements are in the median range of reliabilities reported for attitude scales by Borg and Gall (1983).

Convergent validity and discriminant validity were assessed by the authors of the MBI. Three sets of correlations were used to determine convergent validity: Independent behavioral ratings, the dimensions of job experience, and personal outcomes.

Comparison of MBI test responses were made with the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Hackman & Oldhand, 1975) and the Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Crown & Marlowe, 1964) to ascertain the degree to which the instrument discriminated stress constructs. The JDS showed a moderate negative
correlation with the emotional exhaustion and the
depersonalization scales and a slightly positive correlation
with the personal accomplishment scale. None of the MBI
subscales showed a significant correlation with the SDS, which
suggests that stress is not influenced by a socially desirable
response.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss,
Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1977), originally developed in
1957 as part of the Work Adjustment Project at the University
of Minnesota, was updated and renamed in 1977. Norms related
to the teaching profession are provided for the MSQ. The MSQ
is the result of a series of research studies which have been
conducted on the widespread difficulties of work adaptations.
The two forms developed were a 21-scale long form and a
3-scale short form. Both forms examine inherent and
extraneous reinforcement measurements in a work environment.
Readability of the questionnaire was determined to be at the
fifth grade level.

The MSQ (Weiss et al., 1977), a 100-item instrument with
a Likert-type scale, is designed to measure respondents’
general adjustment to problems in the work environment. Items
on the MSQ are written statements about feelings related to
the job the persons are doing; the individuals’ responses
indicate the degree of satisfaction that they achieve on the
job and within the job environment.

Internal consistency on the MSQ was estimated by Hoyt's
analysis-of-variance method. The reliability coefficients
ranged from .97 on ability utilization and working conditions
to .59 on variety. Weiss et al. (1977) noted that the
reliability of some scales may vary across groups and suggested that reliability coefficients for internal congruity should be estimated for a sample representing the group on which the MSQ is used.

During the development of the MSQ, construct validity, concurrent validity, and content validity were assessed. Indirect evidence supporting construct validity was derived from the studies of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire; the separate scales of the MSQ were the dependent variables to be predicted from the correlation between occupational requirements and degrees of career reinforcement. The study of concurrent validity tested for group differences among 25 vocational groups. Differentiation between career groups could be determined when a one-way analysis of variance was used; data were statistically significant at the .001 level for both means and variances on all 21 MSQ scales (Weiss et al., 1977).

Fourteen norm groups (N = 100 each) were used to analyze the content validity of the MSQ through intercorrelation matrices which were then "factor analyzed using a principal factors solution, with squared multiple correlation in the diagonal, the Kaiser criterion for number of factors to extract, and rotation a varimax solution" (Weiss et al., 1977). Intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction were factors among all groups, but the factor structure of satisfaction varied among the career groups.

A demographic profile was developed to evaluate the relationships between stress, job satisfaction and specific demographic variables. Variables investigated were personal,
professional, and projective. Personal variables included (a) sex, (b) age, (c) local zip code of residence, (d) race, (e) marital status, (f) number of years residence in the teaching locality. Professional variables included (a) the highest degree held, (b) certification held in Texas, (c) the current primary assignment, (d) total number of years taught, (e) total number of years experience with the population now given as the primary assignment, (f) the number of students assigned to the teaching unit, (g) the type of class (resource type or self-contained), (h) the primary grade level taught, and (i) the extent to which the respondent was prepared for the responsibilities of the primary teaching assignment in special education. Projective variables asked were: (a) Are you going to remain in your current position? (b) How long do you anticipate remaining in your current position? (c) If you leave special education, will you remain in teaching? (d) If not, why not? (e) If you have left a special education teaching assignment, why did you leave? (f) Would you consider returning to a special education teaching assignment? and (g) If not, why not?

Data Collection

An effort was made to obtain a representative sample of special education teachers from urban centers in the State of Texas. The eight major metropolitan (Ysleta, El Paso, Corpus Christi, Houston, Austin, San Antonio, Dallas, and Fort Worth) special education departments were contacted for lists of master special education teachers within each of the districts.
From each of the special education departments responding, two lists of names and addresses were requested. The specification given for solicitation of names was that the first list contain approximately 30 names of teachers considered by the district's special education department personnel to be master teachers within special education classes on the local campuses, and that the second list contain 10 to 20 names of teachers who had left the special education field for any reason.

Of the eight large urban school districts in Texas contacted, two districts did not participate. Responses from nonparticipants ranged from: "Who to include in the list of current teachers is not clear . . . Further, the four eligibility categories specified are handicapping codes for students, not labels that relate to the programs that teachers are assigned to" to no response after a positive answer to the first solicitation. Therefore, subjects of the study were (N = 291) teachers employed in six of the eight large urban school districts in Texas. Respondents were asked to complete and return three survey instruments (the Teacher Demographic Data Sheet, the Maslach Burnout Inventory, and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire). Each mail out included a cover letter and a self-addressed, stamped envelope with the three survey instruments. One school district requested that a copy of the letter approving the survey be included in the mailout. The letter was included. Two districts supplied specific lists of teachers compiled by the administrator responding to the initial request for names and addresses of master teachers. The selection of teachers from the other four
districts was made from general teacher lists supplied by each of the districts. The alphabetical lists were categorized into regular education and special education teacher lists. The special education teacher lists for each district were further sorted in lists of elementary and secondary teachers. From the second list, every n-th teacher was selected to compile a representative number for the mail out of the survey instruments. One hundred forty-seven mail outs were returned with responses to the survey instruments. Nine mail outs were returned because the teachers had moved from the address listed. One hundred forty-one completed and returned all three survey documents, and six respondents returned responses lacking one of the three survey instruments. The total from this mail out was combined with the pilot study, yielding a total of 166 responses for analysis. The overall return rate was 50%. Of that number, 47.95% of the returns were usable. Percentages of returns by districts are recorded in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Number Sent Out</th>
<th>Number Returned Responses</th>
<th>Percentage Returned Responses</th>
<th>Percentage of Usable Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>District A</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>34.88</td>
<td>33.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District B</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>45.95</td>
<td>43.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District C</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>81.16</td>
<td>78.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continues)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Number Sent Out</th>
<th>Number Returned Responses</th>
<th>Percentage Returned Responses</th>
<th>Percentage of Usable Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>District D</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District E</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District F</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District G</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37.21</td>
<td>34.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District H</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>84.62</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Special Education Teachers</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>47.83</td>
<td>43.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:**
- *Refused to participate
- +Agreed to participate, but no list of teachers or addresses could be obtained

Responses to the demographic profile yielded the following personal information. Twenty-one (12.80%) of the respondents were male, 142 (86.58%) were female, three (.62%) respondents did not indicate their gender. Ages ranged from 24 years to 62 years, with a mean of 39.5 years; the majority (67) of the persons responding were between 40 and 50 years old which supports Huston's (1989) and Lindley's (1984) contention that teachers as a group are aging workers. One (.6%) of the respondents was Asian or Asian American, 34
(20.7%) were African American, 17 (10.4%) were Hispanic, none were Native American, and 109 (66.5%) were White. One person listed his or her ethnicity as Other, but failed to specify a specific ethnic group, and two respondents (1.2%) chose not to indicate their ethnicity.

Ninety-nine (60%) of the persons responding were married, 36 (22%) were divorced, 25 (15.2%) indicated they were single, and 2 (1.2%) were widowed. Eighty-three (50.6%) of the respondents held a bachelor's degree; 53 (32.3%) held a master's degree; and 26 (15.9%) had a master's degree plus at least 30 hours of additional college work. One person had a doctorate. Respondents had lived in the locality in which they were teaching from 0 to 45 years, with a mean of 11.62 years.

Professional data included the following information. Most (73 or 44.5%) of the persons responding indicated that their primary assignment was teaching children within a class serving a combination of students with learning disabilities, mental retardation, emotional disturbance, and severe or profound disabilities. Twenty-eight (17.1%) stated that their primary assignment was teaching children with learning disabilities, 15 (9.1%) listed their assignment as teaching children with mental retardation, 14 (8.5%) were assigned to teach students with emotional disturbances, and 23 (14%) were teaching children with severe or profound disabilities. Six respondents indicated that they no longer taught in a special education assignment and therefore were added to the group analyzed as former special education teachers. Respondents' total teaching experience ranged from 2 to 35 years, with a
mean of 12.51 years. The range of time for teaching the same population was 1 to 35 years, with a mean of 8.56 years. One hundred (61%) of the respondents indicated that they taught in a self-contained classroom. One hundred five (64%) persons taught students within the kindergarten to sixth grade range. The remainder of the respondents (36%) taught at secondary level schools (middle or junior high school, or high school). One hundred forty-three respondents (87%) stated that they planned to remain in their present positions. Fifty-four percent indicated that they would remain in teaching or a related profession if they left the special education field. One hundred twenty (72%) of the respondents indicated that they felt somewhat prepared or well prepared for their job assignment (data for this category were added from the proposal presentation, therefore only 146 respondents were included rather than all respondents). Twenty-nine percent of the respondents indicated that they would return to a special education teaching assignment and 50% chose not to respond to this question.

Responses to the expanded question "If you leave special education teaching, why will you not remain in teaching?" ranged from no response (54, or 33%) to negative responses about administrative practices, lack of preparation of administrators in working with special education issues, physical factors (aging, fatigue, stress, little time for doing a good job, paperwork, physical danger, too much preparation/grading required), legal constraints, limited rewards in education (money, low job status, professional respect), requirement for advanced degree, lack of experience
in a regular classroom, racial discrimination, and a desire to leave the teaching profession. Positive responses to the question indicated that respondents were seeking retirement; had no interest in teaching regular education classes; liked the program flexibility, the activities required, or the opportunity to help students; were seeking another position within the educational field; and the desire to start a private school.

Data Analysis

The computer program, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nil, 1985) was used for data analysis. To assess significant differences on the Maslach Burnout Inventory between the five types of teachers, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance was used. A second one-way multivariate analysis of variance was used to assess differences in stress and job satisfaction between elementary and secondary teachers. A correlation matrix was used to determine (a) the relationship between stress, job satisfaction and a teacher staying in special education, and (b) the relationship between the three subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, the three composite scales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the demographic variables.

Conclusion and Summary

Based on the data from the pilot study, it was anticipated that a comparison of the stress and job satisfaction scales for the full study would show that
teachers of students with emotional disturbances differed significantly from teachers of students with mental retardation on the depersonalization scales, and from teachers of students with learning disabilities on the general and extrinsic satisfaction scales. No differences were expected from the comparison of the stress and job satisfaction levels of elementary and secondary teachers. In the larger study, depersonalization was expected to correlate highly with the extrinsic satisfaction scale when the relationship between stress levels experienced by the teachers and the degree of job satisfaction the teachers perceived in their current assignment were explored. Significant demographic variables in the pilot study were sex, age, marital status, the number of years teaching in a special education classroom, the number of students in a classroom, the primary class assignment, and the number of years the teacher planned to remain teaching in a special education class assignment when correlations are derived for the three stress scales and the three job satisfaction scales. Retention of teachers in a special education classroom appears to be based on depersonalization and general, intrinsic, and extrinsic satisfaction because all four scales showed significant correlation with that demographic variable.
CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

The purposes of this study were to (a) determine if there were differences in the stress and job satisfaction levels of urban special education teachers of students in five eligibility categories (learning disabled, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, severely or profoundly disabled, and a combination of the categories); (b) determine if differences in stress and job satisfaction occurred between elementary and secondary urban special education teachers; (c) correlate stress with specific demographic variables, including leaving special education assignments for other regular education teaching appointments; (d) correlate job retention with specific aspects of stress and job satisfaction or dissatisfaction based on participants' responses to a satisfaction questionnaire; and (e) explore possible reasons for the rate of special education teacher turnover in urban centers in Texas.

The results of the study are presented as follows: (a) tests of the research questions, (b) overall conclusions of significance, and (c) a synopsis of findings.

Tests of the Research Questions

One-way multivariate analyses of variance were used in analysis of the data for two of the questions. An analysis of
variance allows a determination of relationships of subgroups which vary significantly on one factor. With the multivariate analysis the researcher is allowed to test the statistical significance of several comparisons and interactions among groups of subjects who vary on one or more factors. Such statistical analysis allows the data to be viewed from multiple perspectives.

A correlation matrix was used for further data analysis. In this procedure, each predictor factor is correlated with each criterion variable using canonical correlation. Within this study, the demographic variables were reviewed to determine the relationship of each to the summary subscales, and to determine the relationship of stress and job satisfaction.

Overall Conclusions of Significance

Research Question 1 explored stress and job satisfaction among teachers of students with learning disabilities, mental retardation, emotional disturbances, severe or profound disabilities, and any combination of students with these disabling conditions. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was used to analyze the data between the five groups (see Table 2).

Table 2
Multivariate Tests of Significance for Stress and Job Satisfaction among Five Groups of Teachers

(table continues)
Research Question 1: To what extent do stress and job satisfaction differ among urban teachers of learning disabled, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, severely or profoundly disabled, and multicategorical students?

No significant statistical difference was found among urban teachers of students with learning disabilities, mental retardation, emotional disturbances, severe or profound disabilities, and of multicategorical classes when a conservative analysis (the Scheffe' procedure) was used. Less rigorous range analyses (Duncan's multiple range test and least significant difference [LSD] test) yielded 1 to 3 significant differences: The least significant difference test demonstrated differences in stress levels (emotional exhaustion) between teachers of students with mental retardation and teachers of students with emotional disturbances, between teachers of students with mental retardation and teachers of students with severe or profound disabilities, and between teachers of students with mental retardation and teachers of a combination of students in the classroom. Duncan's multiple range test showed a significant difference in stress level between teachers of students with mental retardation and teachers of students with emotional disturbances. No significant differences in job satisfaction
were found among the five groups on any other of the range tests. Therefore, when the more conservative approach was taken, no two groups were significantly different at the .05 level when the summary scales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, and extrinsic satisfaction) were compared with the five primary assignment groups.


Research Question 2 explored the extent to which stress and job satisfaction differed between urban special education teachers of elementary and secondary students. A second one-way multivariate analysis of variance was used to analyze the data.

Research Question 2: To what extent do stress and job satisfaction differ among urban special education teachers of elementary and secondary age students?

No significant statistical difference was found between stress and job satisfaction among urban special education teachers of elementary and secondary age students. The data
presented in Table 3 indicate the F statistics collected from various univariate F-tests.

Table 3

Multivariate Tests of Significance for Stress and Job Satisfaction among Elementary and Secondary Teachers. . . . .

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Wilks' F</th>
<th>Hypo. DF</th>
<th>Error DF</th>
<th>Sig. F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>.96716</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>.513</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. P < .05

Range tests could not be used to analyze the data for this question because there were only two groups to be considered. Neither the elementary group nor the secondary group of teachers differed significantly when compared for emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal achievement, general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, or extrinsic satisfaction. The results of this study generally replicate the results of nonsignificant statistics on stress levels reported by Beasley et al. (1983), Cherkes and Fimian (1982), Fimian, Pierson, and McHardy (1986), McIntyre (1981), and Trendall (1989) in studies addressing teachers grouped by grade levels. The results of this study do not support the results of job satisfaction reported by Frank and McKenzie (1993), Knowles (1980), Lobosco and Newman (1992) and Zabel and Zabel (1982).

Research Question 3 addressed the relationship between stress levels experienced by teachers and the degree of job
satisfaction the teachers perceived in their current assignment. A correlation matrix was used to compile the data.

**Research Question 3:** Is there a relationship between the stress factors and job satisfaction factors?

The stress factor, depersonalization, shows a relationship with the job satisfaction scale, intrinsic satisfaction, as shown in Table 4.

**Table 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation of Stress Scales with Job Satisfaction Scales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>JOB SATISFACTION</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stress Scales</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional exhaustion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .223</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** P ≤ .05

The data from this study suggest that a subtle relationship exists between stress and job satisfaction, as reported by Anderson (1980); however, the relationship may be dependent
upon the individuals' internal nature and their ability to distance themselves from the intricacies of a situation.

For Research Question 4, a correlation matrix was used to determine the relationship between the demographic variables, the three subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment), and the three summary subscales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction).

Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between stress factors or job satisfaction factors and selected demographic variables?

Emotional exhaustion is correlated significantly with race, the degree held by the professional, the total number of years taught, and the preparation the professional had received prior to entering the job ($P < .05$). The number of years the professional intended to remain on the job did not show any statistical relationship to the stress subscales; however, it did show a relationship to each of the job satisfaction summary scales. The results of this study do not support the relationships of age and stress reported by Banks and Necco (1990) and McIntyre (1981). However, the training of the professionals reported in these studies is supported by the correlation of emotional exhaustion with the preparation that the professionals had received prior to entering the assignment. The results of the professionals' training background reported by Banks and Necco (1990) are clearly supported by the findings of this study. Depersonalization is negatively correlated with the preparation given professionals
prior to entering their assignments ($P < .05$). The results of this study do not support the relationship of gender and stress reported by Banks and Necco (1990) and McIntyre (1981). Personal accomplishment is negatively correlated with the sex of the individual, the total number of years taught, the number of students assigned to the professionals' classrooms, and the preparation given the professionals prior to entering the assignment ($P < .05$). Again, the Banks and Necco study (1990) and the McIntyre report (1981) are supported by the relationship of personal accomplishment with gender and the preparation given the professionals prior to entering the assignment. Preparation prior to job entry correlated with each of the Maslach Burnout Inventory scales. Table 5 presents the correlation of the Maslach Burnout Inventory scales with the demographic variables.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation of Demographic Variables with Stress Scales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maslach Burnout Inventory Scales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P = .286$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P = .489$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continues)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion</th>
<th>Depersonalization</th>
<th>Personal Accomplishment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>.1479</td>
<td>.0362</td>
<td>.0541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .029 )</td>
<td>( P = .323 )</td>
<td>( P = .246 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>.0086</td>
<td>.0364</td>
<td>-.0512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .456 )</td>
<td>( P = .322 )</td>
<td>( P = .258 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree Held</td>
<td>-.1391</td>
<td>.0130</td>
<td>-.0336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .038 )</td>
<td>( P = .434 )</td>
<td>( P = .335 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years Taught</td>
<td>-.1321</td>
<td>-.1234</td>
<td>-.1372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .046 )</td>
<td>( P = .056 )</td>
<td>( P = .040 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years Taught With Special Education Population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.1256</td>
<td>-.0948</td>
<td>-.1017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .054 )</td>
<td>( P = .114 )</td>
<td>( P = .097 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students in Class</td>
<td>-.0493</td>
<td>-.3014</td>
<td>-.5394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .423 )</td>
<td>( P = .112 )</td>
<td>( P = .010 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Years Residence in Location</td>
<td>.1790</td>
<td>-.1199</td>
<td>-.1607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .239 )</td>
<td>( P = .318 )</td>
<td>( P = .262 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continues)
The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire scales showing correlation with the demographic variables are presented in Table 6. The general satisfaction scale is associated negatively with the degree held by the professionals, the total number of years the professionals have worked with the assigned population, and the number of years the professionals intend to remain on the job ($P < .05$). Pullen's (1987) finding that gender and age tend to be predictive of job satisfaction is not supported by this study; however, the indication that time in position is predictive of job
satisfaction (Fimian et al., 1986; Pullen, 1987) is supported by the data of this study. The intrinsic satisfaction scale is negatively correlated with the number of years the professionals intend to remain in a special education assignment (P < .05). The extrinsic satisfaction scale correlates negatively with marital status, and the number of years the professionals intend to remain in a special education assignment (P < .05). The decision of a teacher to remain in teaching is correlated with each of the three summary subscales on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Table 6

Correlation of Demographic Variables with Job Satisfaction Scales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Scales</th>
<th>General Satisfaction</th>
<th>Intrinsic Satisfaction</th>
<th>Extrinsic Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demographic Variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.1073</td>
<td>.0167</td>
<td>.0497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .086</td>
<td>P = .416</td>
<td>P = .264</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.0312</td>
<td>-.0132</td>
<td>.0218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .346</td>
<td>P = .433</td>
<td>P = .391</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>-.0588</td>
<td>-.0890</td>
<td>-.1020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .227</td>
<td>P = .129</td>
<td>P = .097</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>-.1164</td>
<td>-.0862</td>
<td>-.1734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .069</td>
<td>P = .136</td>
<td>P = .013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continues)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>General Satisfaction</th>
<th>Intrinsic Satisfaction</th>
<th>Extrinsic Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree Held</td>
<td>(-.1513)</td>
<td>(.0504)</td>
<td>(-.0939)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P = .027)</td>
<td>(P = .261)</td>
<td>(P = .116)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years Taught</td>
<td>(-.0380)</td>
<td>(.0179)</td>
<td>(.0401)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P = .314)</td>
<td>(P = .410)</td>
<td>(P = .305)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years Taught With Special Education Population</td>
<td>(-.1371)</td>
<td>(-.0466)</td>
<td>(-.0824)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P = .040)</td>
<td>(P = .277)</td>
<td>(P = .147)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students in Class</td>
<td>(-.0156)</td>
<td>(-.0063)</td>
<td>(.1429)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P = .476)</td>
<td>(P = .490)</td>
<td>(P = .286)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Years Residence in Location</td>
<td>(-.3202)</td>
<td>(-.2945)</td>
<td>(-.2858)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P = .098)</td>
<td>(P = .118)</td>
<td>(P = .125)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Years Will Remain in Special Education</td>
<td>(-.2304)</td>
<td>(-.1902)</td>
<td>(-.2326)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P = .003)</td>
<td>(P = .011)</td>
<td>(P = .002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will Remain in Teaching if Leaving Special Education</td>
<td>(-.0647)</td>
<td>(-.0856)</td>
<td>(-.1165)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P = .219)</td>
<td>(P = .152)</td>
<td>(P = .081)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continues)
For Research Question 5, a review of the data was used to compare a specific demographic variable (a teacher's outlook toward staying in special education) with the stress scales and the job satisfaction scales.

**Research Question 5:** Is there a relationship between stress and job satisfaction and a teacher's outlook toward staying in special education?

The data indicate that emotional exhaustion is a significant factor as shown in Table 5. All three summary satisfaction scales are negatively correlated with the number of years the professionals intend to remain in a special education assignment.

**Synopsis of Findings**

The one-way multivariate analyses of variance indicated no significant differences between the five groups of teachers' responses to the eligibility categories taught. When conservative statistical analysis is applied to the data, the results indicate that the eligibility of the students taught and the grade level taught are not statistically important in determining the stress level or the degree of job satisfaction.
satisfaction of the individual urban special education teaching professionals.

A correlation matrix demonstrated that the Maslach Burnout Inventory subscale, depersonalization, is a factor in the intrinsic satisfaction experienced by teaching professionals at any level and for any assignment. The ability of an individual to emotionally remove him or herself from the specific task at hand appears to allow the individual to experience internal or innate satisfaction to a significant level.

The professionals' preparation prior to job entry is the only demographic variable showing correlation with each of the scales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory. The number of years the professionals planned to remain in a special education teaching assignment is the only demographic variable showing correlation with each of the summary scales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. For each scale on each instrument, the correlation is negative, suggesting that preparation prior to the job entry may contribute to stress in some way, or that the preparation does not contribute significantly to a positive level of job satisfaction, or that the professional views remaining in the assignment negatively.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purposes of this study were to (a) determine differences in stress and job satisfaction levels for urban special education teachers of five eligibility categories (learning disabled, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, severely or profoundly disabled, and a combination of those eligibilities), (b) determine possible differences in stress and job satisfaction occurring between urban elementary and secondary special education teachers, (c) correlate stress and job satisfaction with specific demographic variables, including leaving special education teaching assignments, (d) determine if job retention correlates with specific aspects of stress and job satisfaction, and (e) explore possible reasons for special education teacher turnover in urban centers in Texas. In this section, implications drawn as a result of the study and possible directions for future research are presented.

This study of urban special education teachers in the State of Texas has raised more questions than answers. The data generated adds to the equivocal results reported since 1980; however, no resolution is provided to stated questions about stress and job satisfaction.
Results of the Study

Statistical analysis for Research Questions 1 and 2 indicates that neither the eligibility of the students taught nor the grade level of the students taught significantly impacts the job stress or job satisfaction of the teacher employed. The pilot study indicated that teachers of students with emotional disturbances would differ significantly from teachers of students with mental retardation on the depersonalization scale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, that teachers of students with emotional disturbances would differ significantly from teachers of students with learning disabilities on the general and extrinsic satisfaction scales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The full study does not these findings of the pilot study; however, the general perception still persists that teachers of students diagnosed as emotionally disturbed and teachers of secondary special education students have higher stress levels and receive less job satisfaction in their assignments. It is obvious that the instruments used did not capture the particular variables which define the source of the perception. Also, a review of data generated by less-conservative range tests indicates that some degree of significance can be attributed to certain relationships; the possibility exists that the use of less rigorous data analysis may have contributed to the dichotomous results reported in the literature. Focusing on the characteristics of urban teachers of classes for students with emotional disturbances and of secondary special education classes might help to resolve the enigma presented by the literature review and the
results of this study. It is also possible that the teachers’ perceptions of stress and limited job satisfaction are constructs of the ubiquitous teacher’s lounge. Do teachers and staff talk themselves into a self-fulfilling prophecy about their stress levels? Is a teacher’s job satisfaction level related to or influenced by his or her colleagues’ attitudes expressed in private conversations, or in reaction to the treatment of colleagues by the staff in leadership positions in the workplace? Is it immaturity in response to professional situations?

The data for Research Question 3 indicates that teachers with the ability to remain depersonalized have some sense of intrinsic fulfillment. Professionals who can remain detached from an assigned task and view the assignment as a professional task to be done have a greater sense of accomplishment than do professionals who become emotionally involved with their assigned tasks. Teachers’ development of the professional skills to address the needs of the assigned students in an impersonal manner allow teaching professionals to guide and support students who may be unlovable. The professional can feel that his or her job is well done.

The analysis for Research Question 4 demonstrates that each stress scale bears a relationship with at least one demographic variable. Emotional exhaustion shows a significant statistical correlation with the race of the individual teachers (a personal variable), the degree held, the total number of years taught, the number of years the teachers plan to remain in a special education assignment, and the preparation the professionals received prior to entering
the job. Billingsley and Cross (1992) reported a negative correlation between race and job satisfaction when the effects of other variables were controlled for in the statistical analysis. Depersonalization shows correlations only with the amount of preparation the individuals received prior to job entry. Apparently preservice training is a factor in individual professionals' maintenance of emotional distance from their assigned tasks. Personal accomplishment showed correlation with the gender of the individuals (a personal variable), the total number of years teaching, the number of students in the classroom, and the preparation the individuals received prior to job entry.

Questions which warrant further exploration include (a) the relationship of the degree held by the professionals to the preparation the professionals received prior to job entry, (b) the extent of emotional maturity of the professionals in the classroom, (c) how the gender of the individual professionals relates to the sense of personal accomplishment attained, and (d) the number of significant negative correlations occurring (8 of 10 on the demographic variables and Maslach Burnout Inventory comparison, 5 of 5 on the demographic variables and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire comparison) and factors which explain why the number of negative correlations is higher than the number of positive correlations.

Review of the correlations of the demographic variables with the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire summary scales indicates that the only personal variable with a significant impact on the extrinsic satisfaction scale is marital status;
the impact is negative. Professional variables which show significant impact on general satisfaction are the degree held by the individual, the total years teaching a special education population, and the number of years the professionals plan to remain in a special education assignment. The latter variable negatively impacts on all three satisfaction scales. The negative impact of marital status on extrinsic satisfaction may be a result of the general public's negative attitude toward the teaching profession, the lack of monetary reward, or a heretofore unexplored factor.

Other questions generated are the following: Is it possible that teachers have changed over the past decade (the beginning of which saw the most research in stress and job satisfaction)? Certainly the political, social, and economic climates have changed. For example, quality of life is emerging as a significant factor among the professional work force of the 1990s. Perhaps the current urban teaching force exhibits characteristics which are products of various political, social, and economic changes.

Within the current economic climate which continues to be a holdover from the economic practices of the 1980s, do teachers view their teaching position as a job or as a vocation? If the respondents view their position as a chore, they might respond differently to survey instruments than if they perceived the position as a career? To what extent does the economic climate require that an individual remain for a significant period of time in a position which the individual finds untenable?
Are individuals entering special needs teaching with a more realistic view of the task of teaching children with disabilities? Is that view a result of pre-service training, in-service training, innate teaching ability, an acceptance of responsibility, or some other factor?

Are there innate individual qualities that are not addressed by a demographic profile or by survey instruments which might ultimately account for current data which tend to support perceptions or previous studies? The sociability of the individual teacher, or the interrelationship between a given faculty and how well they like each other versus the degree of stress felt and the degree of job satisfaction perceived are possible factors. Are local campuses providing a unified curriculum or a cohesive faculty with special education teachers and students integrated into the web of the school day, to the extent that students can cope with a less restrictive environment?

When a teacher has decided to leave the teaching field, does the decision to leave diminish the intensity of the individual's reaction or attitude toward stress levels and job satisfaction factors? Do teachers' responses on self-report instruments accurately capture their changes in attitude toward stress or job satisfaction components (Friesen, Prokop, & Sarros, 1988)? A review of the research literature indicates that quantitative information is available about teachers (both special education and regular education) who leave the profession. Of the three studies found which surveyed teachers, two included regular teachers and special education teachers (Barry, 1985;
Bogenschild, Lauritzen, & Metze, 1988; Mcknab, 1993). No general procedures seem to be in place to collect longitudinal data for analysis of individuals' change in attitude over time, although Parshall (February, 1990) questioned, "When do they [teachers] decide (to leave the profession) and on what factors are their decisions based (salary, status, more desirable occupation)?"

Current philosophy requires that the education system be viewed more and more as a business. Children are viewed as a product (test score) or as customers. However, urban students are in greater need of being viewed as children who need nurturing because their homes and society often provide very little of the support needed for them to mature into productive adults. Concurrent with that view is one that teachers are technicians who are hired to rebuild or restructure the product. Teachers are not perceived as workers within society who produce an outcome for the longevity of the societal structure.

One perspective of current business practice is the acquisition of data that is appropriate for making decisions. As school districts emulate business practices, data collection will become imperative for informed decision making regarding policies and procedures which affect both staff and students.

Frank and McKenzie (1993), in a longitudinal survey of beginning special education teachers, reported differences in teachers' self-reports of burnout over a 5 year period. The teachers surveyed generally reached an average level of stress during their fourth or fifth year of teaching. Cross and
Billingsley (1994) found that white teachers with more experience are more likely to remain in special education teaching assignments.

Urban special education departments need to gather more definitive information about stress levels and retention of the staff serving special needs children so that administrators can develop, within their districts, appropriate policies for recruiting, hiring, training, and keeping professional staff to provide adequate services for special needs children. Administrators must review the staff development and inservice training programs within their purview. Such programs must assist in the expansion of teachers' inventory of teaching strategies and treatments (Lobosco & Newman, 1992).

The profile of the urban special education teacher which emerges from the data in this study is that of a white, married female, 40 to 50 years of age, with a bachelor's degree who is teaching in a self-contained type classroom serving elementary children with a variety of disabilities. The population of Texas, especially in the urban areas, is largely African-American and Hispanic. School districts need to address in significant ways the recruitment of minority special education teachers, younger individuals, and male teachers, and the preparation of individuals prior to job entry and job change. The urbanization of society suggests that the metropolitan areas will continue to face the cutting edge on new issues.
Recommendations

Focusing on the continuing and expanding need for special education teachers must be a priority of urban school districts (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Krause, 1993). School districts in general, and special education departments specifically, must develop and maintain a capable work force. Variables related to teachers' stress and job satisfaction within the district or division should be carefully reviewed and changed to predicate and preserve teachers' commitment to students and to the organization. Such variables include administrative support (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Crane & Iwanicki, 1986; Fimian, 1983; Friesen et al., 1988), clarification of roles (Crane, 1982; Schwab, 1981), and stress reduction (Frank & McKenzie, 1993; Schloss, Sedlak, Wiggins, & Ramsey, 1983). Retention of good instructors requires that administrators begin early in the teachers' careers to recognize stress factors and to facilitate the individuals' process in contending with those elements (Frank & McKenzie, 1993).

The data generated in this study suggest multiple areas of possible future research: (a) determining ways in which teaching professionals can hone their professional skills while developing emotional disengagement from the subjects on whom their skills are practiced; (b) expanding the demographic variables explored with a focus on the innate ability demonstrated by master teachers, (c) developing skills to perceive the fundamental problem of stress and job satisfaction in light of a changing urban culture, and (d) acquiring and maintaining demographic data on professional
special education staff to develop appropriate departmental and district policies to retain master teachers for special needs children.

Twenty years after Public Law 94–142 (1975), even with the revision to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, there are still 26,000 to 28,000 vacant special education positions nationally, primarily in provincial or metropolitan districts. With the inclusion of disabled students in regular classes, these vacancies become even more critical. Any factors which a district can address to lower the expenses of recruiting, hiring, and providing additional training become acute in this time of limited fiscal resources.
Pilot Study

Twenty-five teachers working in a special education extended year services setting (summer school) were asked to complete the surveys and return the three documents in the envelope provided. Each teacher was surveyed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1986), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (1977), and a demographic profile sheet.

Eighteen of the 25 surveys were returned for a 72% return rate. Several of the demographic items were inconsistently answered and were deleted from the final data sheet. Items deleted were the institution the degree was received from, the certification held outside the State of Texas, and the zip code where the school was located.

Personal data yielded the following information. Eleven percent of the respondents were male; one was black or African-American and one was Hispanic. Eighty-nine percent were female; seven were black or African-American, one was Hispanic and eight were white or Caucasian. Forty-four percent of the teachers responding were black or African-Americans, 6% were Hispanic, and 50% were white or Caucasian. Ages ranged from 27 to 56; the mean age was 36. The respondents lived throughout the metropolitan area as indicated by their zip codes. Twenty-eight percent of the respondents were single, 44% were married, 22% were divorced, and 6% were widowed. Half of the persons responding held a bachelor's degree, one-third had master's degrees and 17% had a master's degree plus 30 hours. All held Texas teaching certificates. Seven (39%) held certificates in another state,
also. The respondents had lived in the area from 1 to 29 years.

Professional data included the following information. Eleven percent of the persons responding taught learning disabled students. The other 89% were evenly divided between teaching children with the eligibility of mentally retarded or emotionally disturbed or severely or profoundly disabled, or a combination of those eligibilities. The range of total teaching experience was from 4 to 16 years, but the range of teaching experience with the indicated population was from 1 to 13 years. The mean number of years of total teaching experience was 10. Six percent of the respondents taught in classes of 1 to 5 students, and 6% taught in classes of 16 to 20 students. Sixty-seven percent of the teachers taught in classes of 6 to 10 students. Twenty-two percent taught in classes of 11 to 15 students. All respondents indicated that their primary assignment was with a self-contained type of classroom. Eleven percent taught at the secondary level and 78% taught at the elementary or pre-kindergarten level. Two persons did not respond to this item.

Eighty-nine percent of the respondents indicated that they planned to continue to teach special education classes. Six percent indicated that they planned to leave special education teaching, and one did not respond. The respondents indicated that they would remain from one year to a point of ineffectiveness, retirement, or when they no longer enjoyed the job. Two persons indicated uncertainty in this area, and four gave no response. Three individuals did not indicate whether they would remain in teaching if they left special
education assignments. Fifty-six percent indicated that they would remain in teaching even if they left special education. Twenty-eight percent indicated that if they left special education they would not remain in the teaching profession. Those leaving special education teaching indicated that they would go into administration or teacher education, or that they were leaving due to political games and nonsupport by the administration, high teacher-pupil ratios, poor pupil placement, limited creativity allowed, and limited money available in teaching.

Data applied to the research questions provided an indication of areas for closer scrutiny when the complete study was completed. One research question yielded no significant data, but the quantitative limitations of the pilot study may have been a factor.

Research Question 1 explored the extent to which stress and job satisfaction differ among teachers of students with learning disabilities, mental retardation, emotional disturbances, severe or profound disabilities, and any combination of the handicapping conditions. None of the five groups differed significantly when compared for emotional exhaustion, personal achievement, or intrinsic satisfaction. When the five groups were compared using the Scheffe procedure, teachers of students with mental retardation differed significantly from teachers of students with emotional disturbances on the depersonalization scale at the .05 level. Teachers of students with learning disabilities showed a significant difference (at the .05 level) on the general satisfaction and the extrinsic satisfaction scales
when they were compared with the teachers of students with emotional disturbances. (See Table 7 in Appendix, p. 72.)

Research Question 2 explored the extent to which stress and job satisfaction differ between elementary and secondary teachers. The data suggest no differences in either stress levels or job satisfaction levels when elementary teachers were compared with secondary teachers. (See Table 8 in Appendix, p. 73.)

Research Question 3 addressed the relationship between stress levels experienced by teachers and the degree of job satisfaction the teachers perceived in their current assignment. A review of the data shows a single significant correlation between depersonalization and extrinsic satisfaction ($P < .05$). (See Table 9 in Appendix, p. 74.)

For Research Question 4, a review of the data comparing demographic variables with the stress scales and with the job satisfaction scales indicated several areas for consideration. The stress scales (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) showed significant correlations ($P < .10$) with the demographic variables of sex, race, marital status, the total number of years a teacher had taught in a special education classroom, the number of students in a classroom, the primary class assignment, and the number of years the teacher planned to remain in a special education class assignment. (See Table 10 in Appendix, p. 75.) Using the job satisfaction scales (general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, and extrinsic satisfaction), significant correlations ($P < .10$) were evident between (a) sex, the number of years the person has resided in
a location, and the number of years the person planned to remain in special education teaching with the general satisfaction scales; (b) sex, age, and the number of years the person planned to remain in special education teaching with the extrinsic satisfaction scales; and (c) marital status and the number of years the teacher planned to remain in special education teaching with the intrinsic satisfaction scale. (See Table 11 in Appendix, p. 77.)

For Research Question 5, the relationship of stress and job satisfaction to the retention of an individual as a special education teacher focused primarily on the job satisfaction scales. There was a significant correlation between all three scales (general satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, and extrinsic satisfaction) and the number of years a person planned to remain in a special education classroom teaching assignment. The only stress scale with a significant correlation was depersonalization with the number of years an individual planned to remain in a special education classroom assignment.

Data from the pilot study for Research Question 5 indicate some correlation between stress, job satisfaction, and the longevity of a teacher on the special education staff. The number of teachers surveyed during the pilot study was insufficient to determine the exact relationship.
Table 7 (Pilot Study)

Comparison of Stress and Job Satisfaction Factors with Five Teaching Assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Assignment</th>
<th>Stress</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EE</td>
<td>DP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Disability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Retardation</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotionally Disturbed</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severely or Profoundly Disabled</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicategorical Classes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. EE = Emotional Exhaustion, DP = Depersonalization, PA = Personal Accomplishment
Table 8
Comparison of Stress and Job Satisfaction Factors Between Elementary and Secondary Teachers (Pilot Study)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td>DP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1. There is no significant differences in how elementary and secondary teachers react to stress or job satisfaction factors.

Note 2. EE = Emotional Exhaustion, DP = Depersonalization, PA = Personal Accomplishment
Table 9 (Pilot Study)

**Correlation of Stress Scales with Job Satisfaction Scales**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress Scales</th>
<th>General Satisfaction</th>
<th>Intrinsic Satisfaction</th>
<th>Extrinsic Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>0.0651</td>
<td>-0.1696</td>
<td>-0.0769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .399</td>
<td>P = .251</td>
<td>P = .381</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>-0.2407</td>
<td>-0.1055</td>
<td>-0.5055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .168</td>
<td>P = .338</td>
<td>P = .016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal accomplishment</td>
<td>-0.0573</td>
<td>-0.2212</td>
<td>0.1026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P = .411</td>
<td>P = .189</td>
<td>P = .343</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10 (Pilot Study)

Correlation of Demographic Variables with Stress Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion</th>
<th>Depersonalization</th>
<th>Personal Accomplishment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.2695</td>
<td>-.5577</td>
<td>.1611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = .140</td>
<td>P = .008</td>
<td>P = .070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.0496</td>
<td>1.025</td>
<td>.0520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = .423</td>
<td>P = .343</td>
<td>P = .419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>.3591</td>
<td>.3325</td>
<td>-.3777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = .072</td>
<td>P = .089</td>
<td>P = .061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>.1376</td>
<td>.3704</td>
<td>-.1764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = .293</td>
<td>P = .065</td>
<td>P = .242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years Taught</td>
<td>.0471</td>
<td>.0801</td>
<td>-.0923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = .426</td>
<td>P = .375</td>
<td>P = .358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years Taught With Special Education Population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0239</td>
<td>-.0078</td>
<td>.3181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = .462</td>
<td>P = .488</td>
<td>P = .009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students in Class</td>
<td>.0205</td>
<td>-.3709</td>
<td>.3252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P = .468</td>
<td>P = .065</td>
<td>P = .094</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continues)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion</th>
<th>Depersonalization</th>
<th>Personal Accomplishment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Class</td>
<td>.4509</td>
<td>.2429</td>
<td>.1569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assignment</td>
<td>$P = .030$</td>
<td>$P = .166$</td>
<td>$P = .267$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Years</td>
<td>.2667</td>
<td>-.0454</td>
<td>.1469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residence in Location</td>
<td>$P = .142$</td>
<td>$P = .429$</td>
<td>$P = .280$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number Years Will Remain</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion</th>
<th>Depersonalization</th>
<th>Personal Accomplishment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in Special Education</td>
<td>.2881</td>
<td>.4217</td>
<td>-.0696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P = .123$</td>
<td>$P = .041$</td>
<td>$P = .392$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number Years Will Remain</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion</th>
<th>Depersonalization</th>
<th>Personal Accomplishment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in Teaching</td>
<td>-.1197</td>
<td>-.2323</td>
<td>-.0196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P = .318$</td>
<td>$P = .177$</td>
<td>$P = .469$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 11 (Pilot Study)

#### Correlation of Demographic Variables with Job Satisfaction Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>General Satisfaction</th>
<th>Intrinsic Satisfaction</th>
<th>Extrinsic Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.3512</td>
<td>.2281</td>
<td>.4709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .077 )</td>
<td>( P = .181 )</td>
<td>( P = .024 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.1326</td>
<td>-.1035</td>
<td>.3253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .300 )</td>
<td>( P = .341 )</td>
<td>( P = .094 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>-.1682</td>
<td>-.2673</td>
<td>-.2995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .252 )</td>
<td>( P = .142 )</td>
<td>( P = .114 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>.2958</td>
<td>.3652</td>
<td>.0798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .117 )</td>
<td>( P = .068 )</td>
<td>( P = .376 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years Taught</td>
<td>-.0518</td>
<td>-.1200</td>
<td>-.2605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .419 )</td>
<td>( P = .318 )</td>
<td>( P = .148 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years Taught</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Special Education</td>
<td>-.1960</td>
<td>.0574</td>
<td>-.2660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>( P = .218 )</td>
<td>( P = .411 )</td>
<td>( P = .143 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students in Class</td>
<td>-.0156</td>
<td>-.0063</td>
<td>.1429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( P = .476 )</td>
<td>( P = .490 )</td>
<td>( P = .286 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continues)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>General Satisfaction</th>
<th>Intrinsic Satisfaction</th>
<th>Extrinsic Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Class</td>
<td>-.2516</td>
<td>-.3333</td>
<td>-.3401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assignment</td>
<td>$P = .157$</td>
<td>$P = .088$</td>
<td>$P = .084$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Years</td>
<td>-.3202</td>
<td>-.2945</td>
<td>-.2858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residence in Location</td>
<td>$P = .098$</td>
<td>$P = .118$</td>
<td>$P = .125$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Years</td>
<td>-.3302</td>
<td>-.3317</td>
<td>-.4251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will Remain in Special Education</td>
<td>$P = .090$</td>
<td>$P = .089$</td>
<td>$P = .039$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will Remain in Teaching</td>
<td>-.2414</td>
<td>-.2282</td>
<td>-.2108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if Leaving Special Education</td>
<td>$P = .167$</td>
<td>$P = .181$</td>
<td>$P = .201$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Helge, D. (1983, July). Personal development skills and strategies for effective survival as a rural special educator. (Student text for the Curriculum Module: Murray State University, Kentucky). (University Microfilms International RC014292).


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