AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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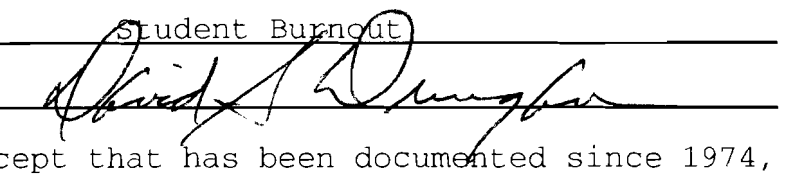
Title: Student Burnout

Abstract approved: 

Burnout, a concept that has been documented since 1974, is occurring in the helping professions. It is characterized by symptoms of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion and may be an outcome of chronic stress. Students under chronic stress may be at risk for burnout. It is also possible professionals who burn out could have started the process during their formal education.

This study was designed to examine possible student burnout levels. Data was gathered from sophomores and seniors using a fixed-effect group design with a cross-sectional approach. Volunteering to participate were 127 undergraduate students from a small, midwestern university. The Tedium Measure (TM) and a demographic questionnaire were used in data collection. Specifically, it was hypothesized seniors would have significantly higher TM test scores than sophomores.

To determine significance, a three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used with gender (male/female), age (traditional/nontraditional), and academic level (sophomore/senior) as independent variables and overall TM test scores as the dependent variable. No significant

differences were found between sophomores and seniors on overall TM test scores. However, the mean of overall TM test scores fell in the moderate range (M = 3.37, SD = .69) which is in the same range of TM scores from previously tested students (Pines, Aronson, & Kafry, 1981).

Separate ANOVAs for sections A and B of the TM were also calculated utilizing the same variables of gender, age, and academic level. No significant results were obtained from section A. However, traditional sophomore females scored significantly higher on section B than did nontraditional sophomore females. Section B items are more positive than section A and suggest traditional sophomore females may be experiencing life in more positive terms than nontraditional sophomore females.

STUDENT BURNOUT

A Thesis

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In Partial Fulfillment

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Master of Science

by

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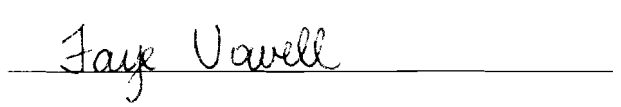

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Stress is a part of everyone's life. There can be "good" stress as well as "bad" stress. Generally, good stress is the pressure experienced during pleasurable events, such as getting married, obtaining a job promotion, or going on vacation. Bad stress is the pressure experienced during negative events, such as breaking up a relationship, wrecking an automobile, or contracting an illness (Greenberg, 1980). Stress may be experienced in shorter or longer time-frames. One of the possible outcomes of long-term stress is burnout.

The key characteristic associated with burnout is exhaustion. It is a depletion of the resources normally available to people. Physical, emotional, and mental resources are used in coping with stress. However, in burnout these resources eventually become depleted (Kahill, 1986). Physical exhaustion is characterized by a loss of energy. Emotional exhaustion is characterized by depression, helplessness, and hopelessness. Irritability and nervousness may also be experienced. Mental exhaustion is characterized by the development of negative attitudes toward self, work, and others (Pines et al., 1981).

Burnout is believed to be caused by the depletion of these energy reserves through a constant overextension of the self (Garden, 1991). This means pushing to the limit all of the time. If there is no time away from the pressures, there

is no time spent refueling the energy reserves; therefore, no more energy is left to expend. In other words, people who burn out are "running on empty."

A constant overload of responsibilities contributes to this depletion. Basically, people who have too much to do scheduled into too little time are candidates for burnout (Maslach, 1982). Once the fatigue starts to set in, the negative attitudes may start to develop (Pines et al., 1981) People may be overwhelmed by negativity, as if a dark cloud descends and blocks out the view of anything positive.

Another aspect of burnout is its development. Instead of occurring quickly, due to any particular event, it develops slowly and may wear people down quietly. Compulsiveness and intensity fuel the fires that drive people. An outcome of these aspects may be physical fatigue, one stage of deterioration. Along with this, denial occurs. There is a denial of problems, of conflicts, and of self-needs. The denial enables people to continue to push themselves into the next stage of emotional fatigue. Depression is a key component in this stage. Eventually, the final stage of mental fatigue develops. Cynicism and a detachment from others occur. Full-blown burnout has appeared. While these stages may not always uniformly appear, it is important to note there are phases involved in burnout (Pines et al., 1981).

In summary, burnout is characterized by exhaustion and

may be an outcome of chronic stress. The lack of restorative activities coupled with high performance demands make burnout a slow, developing problem with far-reaching effects.

Statement of the Problem

Students experience much stress. Specifically, students in higher education experience many stressors (Baird, 1989; Gilbert, 1982; Halleck, 1976; Lozoff, 1976; McLaughlin, 1985). High quality work in a small amount of time is demanded from students. Trying to maintain schoolwork, jobs, and personal lives becomes a balancing act which creates stress. Time pressures seem to exacerbate all other existing problems (Kuper, 1991; Nedleman, 1991). From the freshman year through the senior year and on into graduate school, the number of pressures actually increases, as well as the type of pressures. Students overwhelmed by their load may become exhausted.

Exhaustion is the key component of burnout (Pines et al., 1981). Physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion can combine and produce individuals who are too drained to function well in their lives. For students, as the years of chronic stress accumulates and increases, exhaustion is a possible consequence. Therefore, students run the risk of becoming burnout candidates by an accumulation of years in higher education (Haack, 1988).

Statement of Purpose

This research will answer questions concerning whether or not students experience burnout and whether or not an accumulation of years in school increases student levels of burnout. Data will be collected regarding student academic levels along with the measurement of burnout levels.

Statement of Significance

If it could be recognized that students are at risk for burnout, then preventive measures could be taken. However, burnout in students has not been thoroughly researched. The original burnout research surrounds the helping professions. Specifically, research has included army officers, executives, police officers, physicians, daycare workers, managers, speech and occupational therapists, pastors, psychotherapists, Social Security Administration employees, nurses, and those working with the disabled. Finally, educator burnout also has been an area of research concentration (Perlman & Hartman, 1982).

The aspects of burnout discussed in the helping professions' literature might be shown to apply to students and their stressors. If the parallel could be established, the importance of burnout for students could be recognized. With an increased awareness of burnout and its connection with students, possible preventive measures could be established. Specifically, students would be able to complete their education in a more effective manner and would

be able to enter their chosen fields in a better frame of mind. Students who are aware of burnout could become professionals who are capable of dealing successfully with burnout, should it occur.

Literature Review

The literature review contains four sections. The first section differentiates stress, chronic stress, and burnout. The second section discusses student life, specifically the development and stressors of students. The third section introduces the burnout literature. Finally, the fourth section discusses the burnout research which is relevant to students.

Stress and Burnout

Stress is a well known concept in today's society. People commonly talk about feeling "stressed out." But what is stress and how may it be defined? Selye (1956) defined stress as "the rate of all the wear and tear caused by life" (p. viii). Selye also developed the concept of the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). This is a three stage process: 1) alarm reaction, 2) resistance, and 3) exhaustion. The first phase, alarm reaction, is the initial response to stress and mobilizes the body's forces against the stress. If the stressor is excessive, such as extreme temperatures, and adaptation cannot occur quickly enough, death may result. If the defenses can mobilize quickly enough, then the second phase is apparent, that of resistance. This phase is

characterized by a resistance to the stress and an adaptation to it. With long enough exposure, the third stage appears, which is exhaustion. This is when the adaptation begins to diminish and death may occur (Selye, 1956).

The final stage of Selye's (1956) model, the stage of exhaustion, is the focus of this project. When death does not occur, a concept known as burnout may appear.

Freudenberger (1974) was the first to describe and to introduce the concept of burnout. It was used to describe a phenomenon which was occurring in the staff of the free clinic movement, of which he was a member. To burn out is "to fail, wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources" (p. 159). To Freudenberger, physical symptoms of burnout included fatigue, exhaustion, and a preoccupation with bodily functions. Behavioral symptoms included difficulty in dealing with feelings, the emergence of cynical thinking, and the development of depression.

Freudenberger (1974) concluded those susceptible to burnout were the dedicated and committed workers. His reasoning was that they felt internal and external pressures to work and to give, sometimes to unrealistic heights. Finally, a monotony could set in from the lessening of the daily challenges of work.

An important concept brought out by Freudenberger (1974) was the dynamics of mourning, which ties into the burnout

concept. If a highly committed and idealistic worker burns-out, then he or she may be experiencing a loss. For example, he or she may have been a volunteer in the free clinic movement and feel a loss of the original interest and idealism. This grief most assuredly would be followed by anger.

Pines et al. (1981) also studied burnout. Their data was based on self-report measures and correlational statistics. They agree with Freudenberger that the best and brightest workers would burn out. They contend "in order to burn-out a person needs to have been on fire at one time" (p. 4). They believe excitement and idealism are prerequisites to burnout.

Pines et al. (1981) discuss the dispositional and situational attributes involved in burnout. Dispositional attributions are weaknesses in the self and situational attributions are problems in the situation that contribute to the individual susceptibility to burnout. They also contend the majority of the weakness exists in the situational attributes. This continues to be debated in the literature.

Another important component is the manner in which burnout develops. It does not occur as a result of several specific traumatic events "but sneaks up through a general erosion of the spirit" (Pines et al., 1981, p. 3).

Along with burnout, Pines et al. (1981) introduced the concept of tedium. Tedium and burnout are similar in

symtomatology but different in origin. Tedium is the result of any prolonged chronic pressure and burnout is the result of constant emotional pressure from involvement with people. For practical purposes, these items will be viewed together with the idea too many negative features exist, and there is a lack of positive features, which contribute to the burnout concept.

These researchers address the stages of exhaustion in three avenues: 1) physical, 2) emotional, and 3) mental. Physical exhaustion is characterized by chronic fatigue and low energy. Emotional exhaustion is characterized by depression and a loss of emotional energy. Nervousness and irritability may also occur along with the other symptoms. Mental exhaustion is characterized by the development of negative attitudes toward self, life, and work (Pines et al., 1981).

Another prominent researcher of burnout is Maslach (1982) who takes burnout a step further. For her, burnout is emotional exhaustion with the inclusion of depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion is feeling used up or drained. Depersonalization is used somewhat differently than the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM-III-R) terminology. In the DSM-III-R, depersonalization is "an alteration in the perception or experience of the self so that the feeling of one's own reality is temporarily lost" (p. 347). For Maslach,

depersonalization is more of a detached and of a dehumanized response to other people and can be equated with the Pines et al. (1981) mental exhaustion phase. Finally, a feeling of reduced personal accomplishment is described as a gnawing sense of inadequacy and failure. Lower performance in work is assumed, and this notion has since been challenged either as whether or not actual performance is lowered or whether it is only perceived in a more negative fashion (Garden, 1991).

Maslach (1982) also supports the notion that environmental factors, rather than individual factors, are more responsible for burnout. She also introduces the notion that an overload of work contributes to burnout. People just simply cannot keep up with the myriad of demands.

While Freudenberger (1974), Pines et al. (1981), and Maslach (1982) were all original researchers in burnout, their research was developed primarily around those in the helping professions. Additionally, small samples of students were sometimes included in their studies.

Chronic Stress and Burnout

It is the notion of chronic stress that can lead to burnout. This is supported by the original researchers Maslach (1982), Pines et al. (1981), and many others since the original research (D'Aurora & Fimian, 1988; Delvaux, Razavi, & Farvacques, 1988; Koeske & Koeske, 1989; Perlman & Hartman, 1982; Pfifferling, 1984). While these researchers support the notion of chronic stress leading to burnout,

little research has actually been conducted on chronic stress itself, due to the nature of the phenomenon. The demands and reactions to chronic stress may have persisted for months, years, and even decades. What distinguishes stress from chronic stress is the excess of demands coupled with an excess of reactions. It is as if the threshold to arousal has been lowered by chronic stress, which in turn, sets up a persistent over-arousal in response to stress (Thoresen & Eagleston, 1983).

Student Life

Student Development

The assumption could be made the overriding reason for attending college is to learn. But, while learning is the overriding reason for obtaining higher education, many other growth opportunities exist.

One commonly thinks of development as something that occurs in childhood. However, development actually continues throughout the entire lifespan. It is Chickering's (1981) central thesis that the purpose of education is to enable students to continue with developmental changes throughout their full life cycles. Chickering (1969) proposes seven major developmental vectors through which students may pass. The seven vectors, or stages include the following components: 1) achieving competence, 2) managing emotions, 3) becoming autonomous, 4) establishing identity, 5) freeing interpersonal relationships, 6) clarifying purposes, and 7)

developing integrity. These seven areas comprise the elements of development believed to be important in adolescence and early adulthood. It is the transition from stage to stage, interacting with six major aspects of the college environment, that give students their unique experiences. The six major aspects of the college environment are the following: 1) the clarity and consistency of objectives; 2) the institutional size; 3) the curriculum, teaching, and evaluation; 4) the residence hall arrangements; 5) the faculty and administration; and 6) the student culture. It is evident by now the many possible and complex interactions that occur in the higher educational setting serve to set the stage for student experiences.

One must also remember not all students enter into the college scenario with the same background or characteristics. Therefore, individual differences play a part in the determination of which developmental areas will be focused on and of how quickly students will achieve a degree of mastery over the areas. In other words, individual differences will affect the outcomes (Chickering, 1969).

But just how do these developmental changes occur? Chickering (1969) believes development occurs through alternating cycles of differentiation and integration. Differentiation is the process of being able to identify the interacting components in something formerly seen as one single unit. An example would be seeing all the interacting

necessary components of a watch, instead of simply seeing the watch. Integration is the process of perceiving the relationship among parts. An example would be pulling together concepts from different disciplines to make sense of a complex social phenomenon. Therefore, differentiation and integration must both occur during the educational process.

In order for differentiation and integration to occur, some type of disruption or disequilibrum must also occur. Students must be exposed to contradicting theories and conflicting points of view. They will be confronted by others' prejudices, as well as their own. These activities mean taking risks and opening up to the unknown. Furthermore, turmoil (Chickering, 1969) and anxiety (Weathersby, 1981) would appear to be accompanying aspects of the learning process. While basic development continues throughout students' lives, the special challenges of education offer many more opportunities for growth.

However, it is not simply attendance at an educational institution that spurs the learning process. One critical aspect is motivation. Keppel & Chickering (1981) purport motivation to be the most important element. Motivation has been described as the "prerequisite for behavior" (Chickering, 1982, p. 23). It is motivation that is the fulcrum in the educational system that balances and reaches all the interacting components.

Motivation is akin to involvement with the educational

process. Astin (1977; 1984) proposes more direct involvement in different aspects of the college environment will enhance general satisfaction with higher education. He delineates personal, academic, and athletic involvement and states higher involvement in all three areas will also increase chances of completing educational and career goals. Astin also believes involvement contributes to overall student development. In other words, it is the interaction of involvement and motivation that contributes to student development and change, and is not simply a matter of maturation (Astin, 1977; Cross, 1985).

In addition, Astin (1984) suggests there are desirable limits to involvement. While it may be thought "more is better," there are instances in which too much involvement could be actually counterproductive. Such could be the case of students in burnout.

Astin (1977) and Chickering (1969) both assert it is the responsibility of higher education to help young students move effectively into adulthood. The idea that education would be actually better serving society in this manner leads them to believe the educational process merits the special attention of research.

In today's world, one aspect of student development that has been emerging for sometime now, is nontraditional study. Numerically, the definition of nontraditional students would be those over 25 (Cross, 1985). However, Cross goes on to

expand the definition to include adult learners, who may study part-time, and who also carry adult responsibilities, such as jobs, parenting, and marriages (Cross, 1980). The assumption could be made that nontraditional students also would be continuing with their personal development, which is sometimes called "lifespan development" (Cross, 1985, p. 18). However, due to their positions in life, nontraditional students' interaction with the college environment may differ from the more traditional students' experience.

Regardless of age or traditional/nontraditional status, researchers believe education can be continued throughout a lifetime. If students become self-directed learners, then they can become lifelong learners. This does not mean attending classes forever but learning how to learn and using that knowledge throughout life (Cross, 1980).

Student Stressors

The stressors students have to deal with are many. In fact, younger students and gifted students are even being studied in connection with stress. Models have been proposed which delineate stressors for children. Fimian proposed the sources of student stress can be put into three categories: 1) the student distress area, 2) the social/academic problem area, and 3) the poor instructional relations area (D'Aurora & Fimian, 1988). The student distress area includes an inability to make friends easily, a feeling of nonacceptance by peers, an inability to learn in school, receiving poor

grades, and having an inadequate amount of leisure time. The social/academic problem area may consist of procrastinating, dealing with excessive or ambiguous information, dealing with high parental expectations, being fidgety, becoming fatigued, being a class pet, and experiencing feelings of powerlessness. The poor instructional relations area may consist of a perception of repetitious classwork, a difficulty in communicating with the teacher, an excess of interruptions during a classroom routine, and a feeling of loneliness (D'Aurora & Fimian, 1988).

These researchers support the notion that experiencing these stressors for prolonged periods of time can lead to burnout in students, which is similar to the burnout experienced in teachers (D'Aurora & Fimian, 1988; Fimian, Fastenau, Tashner, & Cross, 1989). At this point, the literature moves into more of a balanced but complex view by combining internally and externally induced components of burnout.

Some young students may develop anxiety and depression and may go as far as attempting suicide in response to the felt pressures. While the gifted have been studied for burnout (Fimian et al., 1989; Solano, 1987), high-achievers are also at risk. A need to succeed coupled with pressures from parents can push teens past their own limitations, resulting in feelings of inadequacy (Bernardo, 1990).

The stressors for older students are surprisingly

similar to the younger students. There are personal, social, and academic issues. Specifically, issues affecting graduate students include financial issues, family issues, and time restraints. Finances may be drained during school, and some student-families may live in near-poverty situations (McLaughlin, 1985). Sometimes the students may be dependent upon their parents or their spouses for help. This dependence can be a source of emotional turmoil for the students and may be seen as prolonging feelings of immaturity. Resentment may develop and reinforce the dependencies that students, at this point in life, would normally be overcoming (Halleck, 1976).

Marriage and family issues are many. To begin with, those who have done well enough to get into graduate school have often done so at the expense of their social life. This can breed loneliness and further isolation (Halleck, 1976; Lozoff, 1976). If students are already married, problems may develop in several areas. Nedleman (1991) found five basic areas of stress: 1) the spousal role, 2) the parenting role, 3) the worker role, 4) the financier role, and 5) the recreator role. Multiple roles are expected to be balanced and the strain may eventually cause stress. The female student who is married may still carry the burden of traditional household tasks alone (McLaughlin, 1985), which is then compounded if there are children involved (Gilbert, 1982). These areas can put strain on relationships.

However, Lozoff (1976) found students who believed this time was particularly important to them, because they learned to survive through tough times. Viewed as a positive experience, respect for each other was felt to be enhanced for the couples. There is also the possibility of a growing apart as one partner pursues an academic life (Hedstrom & Hedstrom, 1983). Sexual difficulties also have been pointed out (Gilbert, 1982; Halleck, 1976; McLaughlin, 1985).

One issue-which overlaps into the personal, social, and academic areas is time. Time pressures seem to exacerbate all of the key problems (McLaughlin, 1985). It is in the juggling of multiple roles that time plays a factor (Baird, 1989; Gilbert, 1982). Add to this equation job responsibilities and the complexities increase (Baird, 1989).

As students move into the practical aspects of their training, there are other stressors with which to contend. There is the need to translate textbook knowledge into work with real people. There might be fear of failure and fear of the unknown. There can be unrealistic expectations with these students who expect themselves to be perfect. There can also be ambiguous expectations from the worksite (Brust, 1986). Another added stressor can be lack of support from supervisors (Yuen, 1990).

It can now be established, with the myriad of stressors delineated, how students could suffer from the consequences of their stressors. Year after year this chronic stress

could add up to the risk of burnout.

Burnout Research

As stated previously, the early research in burnout was based primarily on the helping professions. Freudenberger's (1974) research, in particular, was with helping professionals, specifically those working in the free clinic movement. As a psychotherapist, some of Freudenberger's observations came from his clients, namely, housewives, executives, and students, as well as from his own personal experiences. His conclusion of burnout as a result of the environment came because, on the whole, these people were committed to active and to involved lives. They were not self-destructive or failure-oriented. He saw them as "most likely to suceed" (Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980, p. xvii).

Of importance to the notion of burnout is the environment in which it occurs. The intense involvement with people has been seen as a major factor in burnout. Due to the negative situations of many client problems, there are many emotions with which to deal. There may be anger, fear, or despair. Frustration and ambiguity abound, simply due to solutions that are not always obvious or easily obtained. For workers who continuously deal with this type of situation, the chronic stress may lead to burnout, as discussed by Maslach & Jackson (1981) and others (Delvaux et al., 1988; Koeske & Koeske, 1989; Maslach, 1982).

Since the early research on burnout, there has been an

expansion of workers studied. Policemen, educators, nurses, and teachers have also been studied (Gold, 1984; Iwanicki & Schwab, 1981; Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Perlman & Hartman, 1982).

For the field of psychology and the mental health professions, the study of burnout is important. This is true for several reasons. First, mental health professionals are at risk for burnout due to the high expectations placed upon them. The "professional mystique" paints a picture of ideal workers who have autonomy, who are interesting, who are competent, who have good relations with peers, who have clients motivated to change, and who are humanistic (McCullough, 1980).

Second, the emphasis during professional education is client-centered (Pines & Aronson, 1988; Pines & Maslach, 1978). Due to high expectations, professionals are not often prepared for the inevitable disappointments inherent in their work (Farber & Heiftz, 1982). If professionals have too high of expectations and lack the proper support systems and skills, they may begin to feel inadequate in their positions.

Third, the outcome of work in the mental health field is difficult to evaluate and "cures" are rarely found. If a feeling of a lack of accomplishment sets in, a decrease in motivation may occur (McCullough, 1980). Fourth, mental health professionals are, by definition of their work, to

influence and to motivate others. If they lose their motivation, the delivery of effective and efficient mental health services will most probably be affected (McCullough, 1980).

Farber and Heifetz (1982) discuss the lack of research on burnout in psychotherapists and conducted some research of their own. Cherniss and Egnatios (1978) also support the need for research in community mental health and in job satisfaction of those workers. They advocate the development of theories and of research where present knowledge is now lacking.

If the mental health community and professionals are to continue delivering services efficiently, they need to face the burnout concept. McCullough (1980) was part of a task force who did just that. McCullough and his associates explored the impact of burnout on mental health service programs. Blake (1980) also advocates this notion and adds it is the responsibility of mental health professionals to conduct quantitative research about primary prevention programs. He believes prevention is a deterrent to therapy.

Student Burnout

Research regarding students and burnout is beginning to emerge and burnout is indeed considered an experience of university students (McCarthy, Pretty, & Catano, 1990; Meier & Schmeck, 1985). Many sources list various factors believed

to be related to burnout in students (Brust, 1986; Gold, 1985; Gold & Michael, 1985; Haack, 1988; Kahill, 1986; Lemkau, Purdy, Rafferty, & Rudisill, 1988; McCarthy et al., 1990; Meier & Schmeck, 1985; Neumann, Finaly-Neumann, & Reichel, 1990; Pfifferling, 1984; Taylor, 1975). The factors examined for being related to burnout are the following: the sense of community, the loss of memory, the low self-esteem, the amount of sensation-seeking, the number of years in school, the personality style, the part student/part professional identity, the academic self-concept, the amount of isolation, the loss of control, the reality shock, the unrealistic expectations of self and the profession, the lack of social support, and the learning conditions of high demand without supportive mechanisms.

Evidence for burnout in students exists. Freudenberger, who coined the term burnout, observed both students and professionals in his research (Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980). Pines et al. (1981) included students in their research and found moderate to high test score results with the Tedium Measure (TM). Meier & Schmeck (1985) conducted a research project with 120 undergraduate students who were evaluated on memory, level of burnout, type of learning process, vocational self-concept, self-esteem, and on a sensation-seeking aspect. This correlational study provided support for the validity construct of burnout in college students. The instrument Meier & Schmeck (1985) utilized for

assessing burnout, the Meier Burnout Assessment (MBA), was correlated with scores on the instrument developed by Maslach & Jackson (1981), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), and a relatively strong relationship was found (r=.58).

McCarthy et al. (1990) also studied undergraduate students. Physical and psychological distress, burnout, and a psychological sense of community were measured. The results lend support to Meier & Schmeck's (1985) findings that burnout is an experience of university students. McCarthy et al. (1990) found burnout related to academic performance. They hypothesize continued burnout could lead to students dropping out of college. They suggest looking at dropout rates of capable students for outcome measures of burnout.

It is interesting to note attrition rates in doctoral programs have been found to be as high as 50% (Knox, 1970; Mallinckrodt, Leong, & Fretz, 1985). Perhaps burnout is a factor in these attrition rates.

Finally, few studies have looked at time as a variable. Burnout was explored in 67 residents who were in four family practice training programs. The scores on the MBI were examined in relation to regrets about career decisions; to two personality instruments (the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator); and to situational and background measures. Specifically, the scores on the MBI subscales were not found to interact

significantly with the variable of postgraduate years (Lemkau et al., 1988).

Another study was conducted over two academic years with undergraduate nursing students. Burnout, depressive symptoms, alcohol consumption, social support, and attributional style were measured. Specifically, the cross-sectional data revealed a significant increase in burnout from the sophomore to the senior year. This study supports the implication that students are at risk for burnout and burnout increases with years in school (Haack, 1988).

Given the stressors of students and the establishment of burnout in students, it seems imperative to further study the burnout process. In fact, the DSM-III-R already has a category established for students. In the V Code section, the category "academic problem" may be given as a diagnosis when the focus of treatment is an academic problem not due to a mental disorder (American Psychiatric Association, 1987). This fact in itself suggests the importance of psychological functioning in students.

A better understanding of the process for students holds several important implications. First, if burnout is related to attrition, perhaps burned out students could continue their schooling after some recovery. Regardless of attrition, just being able to complete an education without going through the burnout process, or at least being able to deal with it, would be an important process. Second, if

students in training are already burned out, going into a career could exacerbate the burnout. An early recognition could not only prevent student burnout but also produce better prepared and better functioning professionals.

In fact, many support the idea of introducing students to the burnout concept during their formal education. Greer and Wethered (1984) regard learning to understand personal limitations and what can actually be accomplished as critical for professionals and should be dealt with at the student level. Moreover, Sadow and Ryder (1990) incorporated students into the educational process for chronic schizophrenics. Anxiety was measured with the State Trait Anxiety scale. The pre and post results showed significant decreases in anxiety for those students who participated. The students along with their patients, actually learned some important skills. Richardson and West (1982), Cronin (1990), and Arches (1991) all point to the importance of making students aware of future stressors and teaching them skills to deal with them.

Watkins (1983) states college students are quite prone to burnout in terms of their school work as evidenced in poor performance, inability to concentrate, and procrastination. This researcher has a structured support group approach to combatting burnout in students. Haack (1987) suggests burnout intervention at the undergraduate level in order to avoid later professional burnout. Finally, Pines and Maslach

(1978) state it is crucial to advanced psychiatric or other clinical training programs to have at least one course preparing mental health professionals for their future positions and the emotional pressures that accompany them.

The link between burnout and affect, specifically anxiety and depression, point toward another reason for study. The question has been asked whether burnout and depression are the same construct. Some would argue this is true. Meier (1984) states if the relationship between burnout and similar constructs, such as depression, are too high, then the possibility exists that it may just be a new name for an old construct. In Meier's research, high correlations were found between depression and burnout which does not support discriminant validity. Others argue depression is a symptom of burnout (Blake, 1980; Freudenberger, 1974; Pines & Aronson, 1988). For clinical psychology, these are important avenues to explore. Competent clinicians must be able to recognize depression and burnout in their clients in order to effectively treat them.

Exogenous depression may occur due to external events such as the death of a loved one. Endogenous depression occurs due to internal causes. An example would be depression caused from a chemical imbalance in the brain (Chaplin, 1985). Treatment for depression then becomes a matter of diagnosing its origins. This would also hold true for burnout. If an individual described burnout, clinicians

would have to sift through all the symptoms and determine the possible origins to provide the best treatment possible.

The question of whether burnout and depression are the same construct is not as important as understanding how the negative feelings originated. For depression, a treatment focus would be on individual history. For burnout, a treatment focus would be on the environment (Pines & Aronson, 1988). Brill (1984) supports this notion by suggesting a line of questioning involving identifying unmet expectations. Given student development and stressors, it is understandable why students would be prone to burnout. With the inclusion of students into the burnout literature, it can be demonstrated that the issue is timely.

While the field of psychology wrestles with the burnout concept, its importance cannot be overlooked. Brill (1984) cautions whenever a new concept enters the field, there will be a variety of usages. The "ultimate definition unfolds over time" (p. 14).

McLaughlin (1985) suggests further research in these areas is essential for the ability to ameliorate stresses and promote a quality experience for those involved. Gilbert (1982) adds given the contributions of graduate students to society in later years, meeting their needs is essential. Yuen (1990) suggests a stress-reduction seminar in which the issues of stress and burnout in students would be addressed. Brust (1986) and Haack (1987) conclude intervention at the

student level will help at the professional level. Gold (1985) also reiterates the importance of addressing burnout at the student level. A better understanding of burnout risk in students could provide students with more realistic expectations toward their education and their future careers.

Summary

In this literature review, several areas have been highlighted. Stress, chronic stress, and burnout have been differentiated. Student development and stressors have been examined. Finally, the research relevant to students and to burnout has been discussed. The outcome of this examination is the awareness and importance of possible burnout in students and the ability to look for preventive measures. The hypothesis of this study states that TM test scores will increase with an increase of student academic level, specifically from the sophomore to the senior level.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

The following chapter provides information concerning the current study and how it was implemented. Included is information on the subjects and their selection, the research method employed, the instruments utilized in measurement, the steps and procedures involved, and the statistical design.

Subjects

Volunteering to participate were 127 sophomores and seniors enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses at a midwestern regional, state university. Sophomores who volunteered were 61 in number and comprised 48% of the sample. Seniors were 66 in number, which was 52% of the sample studied. There were 53 males who participated in the study, which comprised 42% of the sample. There were 74 females who participated, which consisted of 58% of the sample. There were 105 traditional students, which comprised 83% of the sample. There were 22 nontraditional students, which comprised 17% of the population sampled. The nontraditional definition included subjects 25 years of age or older.

Sampling Procedures

A class schedule was obtained from Emporia State University for the fall of 1993. Courses were randomly selected, with the goal of obtaining approximately 120 subjects. Eight instructors were called during the first

half of September in order to obtain permission to enter their classrooms and test volunteer subjects. Six of the original instructors gave their consent. During the second half of September, the researcher confirmed the testing date with all six instructors. Ten courses from the Psychology division were originally scheduled and nine were actually sampled. During the first week in October, sophomores and seniors in the selected courses were asked, by a verbal request from the researcher, to volunteer to participate in the research project.

Research Design

The Tedium Measure (TM) was distributed in classes for students to complete. This survey instrument assessed levels of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion (see Appendix B). Demographic information was also collected from all students on a separate form (see Appendix A).

To gather information for this study, a fixed-effect group design and a cross-sectional approach were used by gathering data from sophomores and seniors simultaneously. Student attrition from school, a possible threat to the internal validity of this study, was controlled by utilizing sophomores, instead of freshmen. It has been documented most student attrition occurs during the first year of college (Bean, 1985; Porter, 1989; "Retention and Transfer," 1980).

External Validity

The use of intact groups, or cluster sampling, reduced generalizability due to possible differences in the groups prior to admission into the classes. Also, the selection of subjects from one division of the university limited generalizability. However, the population homogeneity added the ability to analyze more minute details.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: No significant differences will be found in TM test scores of students at the sophomore level compared with students at the senior level. The hypothesis stated in the alternate form is: Significant differences will be found in TM test scores of students at the sophomore level compared with students at the senior level.

HO: $M1=M2$

HA: $M1 \neq M2$

Procedure

All subjects completed an informed consent document (see Appendix C), a demographic questionnaire, and the TM. Testing took approximately five minutes. Following the testing, the researcher placed all materials in sealed envelopes. Information from a total of 127 subjects was gathered.

Demographic Information

A demographic questionnaire was presented along with the survey instrument to obtain extra information about the subjects. The following information was requested: gender, age, academic level, and grade point average.

Survey Instrument

The TM was used to examine possible levels of burnout in students. The TM is a self-report inventory developed by Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981). This 21-item inventory is designed to measure the three components of burnout: physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion. It has also been regarded as a measure of satisfaction with life in general, regardless of occupational choice. Therefore, the instrument has also been recommended for use with those outside of the helping professions (Arthur, 1990). Kahill (1988) advocates the use of the TM as an objective measure of burnout and as having acceptable psychometric properties.

Subjects were asked to rate the frequency with which they experienced specific physical, emotional, or mental aspects of burnout with items such as "being tired," and "feeling disillusioned and resentful about people." A 7-point frequency scale was used to evaluate each item. The following frequencies were used: 1) never, 2) once in a great while, 3) rarely, 4) sometimes, 5) often, 6) usually, and 7) always. The overall tedium score was the mean of the responses with four items reversed. Scores of 1 or 7 were

not anticipated, due to the unrealistic expectation of people being either completely euphoric (1), or too debilitated to participate in testing (7). Scores between 2 and 2.9 suggest individuals are adjusting well to life. Scores between 3 and 3.9 imply moderate levels of burnout and suggest individuals evaluate priorities and possibly make changes in their lives. Scores higher than 4 imply high levels of burnout and suggest immediate attention (Chester, 1983).

Reliability

The original research utilizing the TM was gathered on 30 samples with groups ranging in size from 9 to 724 people for a total of 3,916 subjects. The samples were taken in four different geographic locations: United States, Canada, Japan, and Israel between the years of 1976 and 1980. Participants included professionals and students. The mean values of tedium are documented for all samples studied, for women and men, and by profession (Pines et al., 1981).

Pines et al. (1981) assessed internal consistency of the TM with coefficient alpha for the samples studied. The values ranged between .91 and .93. Test-retest reliability was measured at one, two, and four-month intervals. The scores were respectively .89, .76, and .66. These high test-retest reliability scores reflect stability of measurement over time (Stout & Williams, 1983). Corcoran (1985) used the coefficient alpha (.93) and the Standard Error of Measurement (3.87), which establishes a confidence interval to assess

reliability. Results displayed the TM as being highly reliable and all of the items in the instrument as tapping the same construct domain.

Validity

Pines et al. (1981) assessed construct validity of the TM through correlational analyses with satisfaction from work, from life, and from oneself. These variables were found to be significantly and negatively correlated with burnout (Pines & Kanner, 1982). A study of counselor burnout in family service agencies also found significant correlations with the TM scores. Dissatisfaction with work variety (.22), challenges offered (.22), and growth opportunities (.16) were the variables which reached significance (Beck, 1987). Kafry and Pines (1980) found physical health negatively correlated with the TM in studies of professionals and students (-.40 and -.48) and sleep problems also correlated with the TM (.32 and .33). Stout and Williams (1983) found job satisfaction, desire to leave one's job, and negative attitudes towards clients correlated with the TM, ranging between .20 and .40, in the expected direction.

Criterion-related validity was examined with use of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), another widely-used and standardized burnout instrument (Kahill, 1988). In fact, Corcoran (1985) asserts the MBI and the TM are considered the two most prominent burnout instruments in use today. Stout

and Williams (1983) found significant Pearson product-moment correlations between the TM and all six subscales of the MBI. (Emotional Exhaustion frequency = .54, intensity = .53; Depersonalization frequency = .52, intensity = .54; Personal Accomplishment frequency = -.30, intensity = -.26). Corcoran (1985) also cross-validated the MBI and the TM, finding a high correlation ($r=.75$, $p<.001$). These results suggest the MBI and the TM are measuring the same construct domain. Corcoran asserts further that both devices are psychometrically sound.

Since the original research, the TM has been used to assess burnout levels in nurses (Duxbury, Armstrong, Drew, & Henly, 1984; McCranie, Lambert, & Lambert, 1987; Pagel & Wittmann, 1986; Pines & Kanner, 1982), missionary families (Chester, 1983), high school teachers (Dabrowski, 1990/1991), preadolescent and early adolescent gifted students (Fimian & Cross, 1986), married couples (Emerson, 1983/1984), home-care workers (Bartoldus, Gillery, & Sturges, 1989), and mental health professionals (Stout & Williams, 1983; Stout & Posner, 1984). Duxbury et al. (1984) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .92 from their sample. McCranie et al. (1987) reported an alpha coefficient of .94 from their sample.

Statistical Design

Using means and standard deviations, descriptive statistics were calculated for all students. The statistical test used to determine if any significant differences occured

in TM test scores with academic levels of students was an analysis of variance (ANOVA), with a three-way factorial design. Gender (male/female), age (traditional/non-traditional), and academic level (sophomore/senior) were independent variables used in the analysis with overall TM scores as the dependent variable. A .05 level of significance was employed. Computer analyses took place utilizing the SPSS 4.0 version.

Separate ANOVAs for section A and section B of the TM were also calculated, utilizing the same variables of gender, age, and academic level. Factorial ANOVAs were useful in looking for significant differences and interactions between the variables of gender, age, and academic level.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

The assessment of possible burnout levels for sophomores and seniors was examined through the use of the Tedium Measure (TM). The TM assessed physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion, which are the key components of burnout. Subjects completed an informed consent form, a demographic questionnaire, and the TM. Subjects who volunteered to participate in the present study consisted of 127 undergraduate students from a small, midwestern university.

Data Analysis

The entire student sample mean from the TM was 3.37 (*SD* = .69). Previous studies with student samples and the TM have recorded similar results. Kanner, Kafry, and Pines (1978) reported a total sample mean of 3.5 with 84 undergraduate students from the West Coast. Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981) reported a total sample mean of 3.5, with 199 students from Japan. Kafry and Pines (1980) reported a total sample mean of 3.3, with 294 students from the West Coast.

For the TM, scores of 1 or 7 are not anticipated, due to the unrealistic expectation of people being either completely euphoric (1), or too debilitated to participate in testing (7). Scores between 2 and 2.9 suggest individuals are adjusting well to life. Scores between 3 and 3.9 imply moderate levels of burnout and suggest individuals evaluate

priorities and possibly make changes in their lives. Scores higher than 4 imply high levels of burnout and suggest immediate attention (Chester, 1983). Thus, the student population as a whole scored in the moderate range.

A three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the data. Gender (male/female), age (traditional/ nontraditional), and academic level (sophomore/senior) were independent variables, with the overall test score from the TM used as the dependent variable. The hypothesis of this study states significant differences would be found between sophomore and senior, traditional and nontraditional, and female and male students on overall TM scores. All analyses were conducted at an .05 alpha level. No significant effects were found (see Table 1). In addition, cell means and standard deviations were calculated for each variable level.

Next, the complete TM was divided into two sections and each section was analyzed separately with subtest scores. Section A of the test consists of 17 items requesting how often an individual experiences specific physical, emotional, or mental states. Examples include "being emotionally exhausted," and "feeling depressed." Section B of the test consists of four items which are polarized from those on section A. Examples include, "being happy," and "feeling energetic." In essence, section A consists of more "negative" items and section B of more "positive" ones. However, when the TM is administered, all of the items are

presented in random order. An example of the TM is in Appendix B.

A three-way ANOVA was carried out with gender (male/female), age (traditional/nontraditional), and academic level (sophomore/senior), and section A of the TM as the dependent variable. No significant differences were found between sophomores and seniors and no interactions were significant (see Table 2). Finally, a three-way ANOVA was utilized to analyze the independent variables of gender (male/female), age (traditional/nontraditional), and academic level (sophomore/senior) and section B of the TM as the dependent variable. The data in Table 3 indicate a significant three-way interaction occurred between gender, age, and academic level F (1,119) = 6.23, p = .014.

Post hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted utilizing the Tukey-Kramer test to identify the specific cells which were significantly different. A significant difference was found between traditional sophomore females (M = 4.886) and nontraditional sophomore females (M = 3.667) on section B of the TM. The nontraditional sophomore females scored significantly lower than the traditional sophomore females. While this same pattern held true for the traditional and nontraditional senior female sample, it did not reach statistical significance.

Table 1

Analysis of Variance

Tests of Significance of Overall Scores of the TM

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	p
ERROR	56.00	119	.47		
GENDER	.23	1	.23	.49	.486
AGE	1.03	1	1.03	2.18	.142
LEVEL	.00	1	.00	.00	.955
GENDER BY AGE	.12	1	.12	.25	.615
GENDER BY LEVEL	.68	1	.68	1.45	.231
AGE BY LEVEL	.00	1	.00	.00	.962
GENDER BY AGE BY LEVEL	1.78	1	1.78	3.78	.054

Table 2

Analysis of Variance

Tests of Significance of Section A of the TM

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	p
ERROR	67.83	119	.57		
GENDER	.14	1	.14	.25	.618
AGE	.35	1	.35	.61	.437
LEVEL	.14	1	.14	.25	.616
GENDER BY AGE	.40	1	.40	.70	.404
GENDER BY LEVEL	.64	1	.64	1.13	.290
AGE BY LEVEL	.00	1	.00	.01	.935
GENDER BY AGE BY LEVEL	1.38	1	1.38	2.42	.122

Table 3

Analysis of Variance

Tests of Significance of Section B of the TM

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	p
ERROR	67.89	119	.57		
GENDER	.33	1	.33	.58	.449
AGE	5.01	1	5.01	8.78	.004
LEVEL	3.54	1	3.54	6.21	.014
GENDER BY AGE	.28	1	.28	.48	.489
GENDER BY LEVEL	.70	1	.70	1.23	.270
AGE BY LEVEL	.00	1	.00	.00	.987
GENDER BY AGE BY LEVEL	3.55	1	3.55	6.23*	.014

* significant F-ratio

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

This project was created to examine burnout levels in undergraduate students. It was hypothesized an accumulation of years in school would increase student levels of burnout. Specifically, Tedium Measure (TM) test scores for sophomores and seniors would be significantly different with seniors having a significantly higher TM score than sophomores. However, upon analysis of the data, this hypothesis was not supported. The seniors did not have higher TM test scores than the sophomores. The TM test scores for both class levels were similiar and fell in the moderate range. Results from previous studies suggest the students sampled fell within the same range of scores as have other students previously tested with the TM (Pines et al., 1981). Kanner, Kafry, and Pines (1978) reported a total sample mean of 3.5. Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981) reported a total sample mean of 3.5. Kafry and Pines (1980) reported a total sample mean of 3.3. The current study appears to lend support to the existing literature that states burnout is an experience of university students.

Speculation concerning these results are as follows: It could be the sophomores are still adjusting to academia and find it quite challenging, thus the moderate TM test scores. It might also be by the time students are in their senior year, with the scores staying approximately the same and not

increasing, they actually have adjusted to academia, have coped well, but still find it a stressful experience. In terms of student development, they have passed successfully through different stages, which is considered a type of "good" stress. Thus, the scores staying the same could be interpreted as a positive outcome. Finally, the possibility exists the seniors who experienced high levels of burnout became dropouts and were not available for testing.

The one area of statistical significance that did occur was between traditional and nontraditional sophomore females. The difference occurred on part B of the TM, which consists of more positive items. The nontraditional sophomore females scored significantly lower on the positive items than did the traditional sophomore females. While this same pattern held true for the traditional and nontraditional senior female sample, it did not reach statistical significance.

The area of significance occurred in section B of the TM. Section B items are as follows: 3) having a good day, 6) being happy, 19) feeling optimistic, and 20) feeling energetic. It could be assumed the nontraditional female sophomore does not feel she has as many good days, she is not as happy or as optimistic, and she does not feel as energetic as the younger traditional female.

Previous studies suggest married female graduate students experience stress due to their multiple roles. They most often have the responsibility of taking care of a home,

having a job, going to school, and in many cases, taking care of children (Gilbert, 1982; McLaughlin, 1985). These same variables could also exist in the world of nontraditional undergraduate females. Rogers (1981) studied nontraditional female students who were experiencing family, academic, and personal problems. Therefore, this study appears to add to the existing literature concerning female students.

It could be hypothesized the nontraditional sophomore females are manifesting any combination of mental, emotional, and/or physical fatigue by their lower responses on the positive items. If nontraditional students have multiple roles and live under constant time pressures, it could also be assumed they do not have time for extracurricular activities or more direct involvement with the university. Astin (1984) proposed involvement would enhance general satisfaction with higher education. Another link with higher scores is a lack of social support. McCarthey et al. (1990) found a lack of sense of community linked to burnout and Gold (1985) also found isolation linked to burnout. Perhaps the nontraditionals in this study lacked adequate social support. This could be a question for further study.

In a study by McGregor (1990), traditional students scored significantly higher on a questionnaire of close friendships than did nontraditionals. Perhaps close friendships help lessen the stress of students' lives. With the many roles of nontraditional females, a lack of time for

close friendships may occur. Theory points to the notion females, more so than males, define themselves more by relationships with people. An assumption could be made that a lack of close friendships during the formal educational process could add stress to the female identity. Perhaps this is one element which influenced the nontraditional sophomore females to answer the questions as they did.

Another possible interpretation of section B of the TM suggests section B exists as a consistency scale. In other words, positive items (section B) were inserted randomly amongst the negative items (section A) to evaluate the consistency of subject responses. Viewed in this manner, the nontraditional sophomores females showed more consistency in item response by obtaining lower scores on the positive items.

The question remains why the statistical difference occurred in the sophomores sampled and not in the seniors. It could possibly be the nontraditional sophomore females are feeling stressed in a different way than the nontraditional senior females. The idea could be proposed that the nontraditional sophomore females, due to their particular student level, cannot "see the light at the end of the tunnel," so to speak, as would their nontraditional senior counterpart (L.D. Tompkins, personal communication, Oct. 14, 1993). The seniors would still be stressed but would be much closer to graduating and would most likely be realizing

academic and personal goals more so than the sophomores.

From previous discussions of developmental stages through which traditional students must pass, it might be assumed nontraditionals would have already moved through most of the stages. Therefore, higher education might provide different types of challenges for them. In fact, nontraditionals might actually be able to attain higher concentration levels on academics. Rogers (1981) found nontraditional females under self-pressure to obtain perfect grades. The attainment of perfect grades could be perceived as unrealistic or rather high expectations and burnout has been linked to these types of unmet expectations (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

Returning to the original hypothesis of this study, the overall TM scores were not significantly different for the sophomores and seniors. However, even though this hypothesis was not accepted, it does not point to the complete exclusion of burnout education and prevention at the student level. The overall TM test scores of students were in the moderate range, suggesting individuals might evaluate priorities and possibly make some changes in their lives (Pines et al., 1981). Perhaps nontraditional females need to be particularly aware of burnout and its prevention. While emphasis on nontraditional females could prove valuable, all students could still possibly benefit from learning effective coping, by sharing amongst themselves how they already cope

with student stresses (Rogers, 1981). Also, if students are completing their education with moderate levels of burnout, they could very well be entering their professional lives with remnants of burnout still lingering. The implications for professional burnout still exist. Perhaps it would be beneficial to incorporate classes into curriculums which focus on professionals and the development of realistic expectations regarding careers in the helping professions.

Further studies could be conducted in which nontraditional and traditional students, particularly females, could be examined for burnout using a purely random sampling. Due to the fact students were sampled in intact groups and only within one area of the university, the generalizability of this study is severely limited. Expansion into all areas of the university with random sampling could expand the scope of study. Homogeneity of population samples may sometimes produce more minute differences but can weaken generalizability. Another possible research project could include a longitudinal study by following sophomores through to their senior year. Possibly graduate students could also be examined with burnout questions in mind.

This chapter has integrated the results and implications from the results. Also included were study limitations and suggestions for future research. While the specific study hypothesis was not confirmed, statistically significant

results were indicated in the female sophomore population. The possibility of burnout being experienced by university students was also supported.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Subject no. _____

Gender: _____Male _____Female

Age: _____

Academic Level: _____Freshman _____Sophomore

_____Junior _____Senior

What is your grade point average? _____

All information is confidential and will be used for thesis data collection.

APPENDIX B

TEDIUM MEASURE SAMPLE QUESTIONS

AND

PERMISSION TO PRINT

The Tedium Measure

How often do you have any of the following experiences? Please use the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Once in a great while	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Usually	Always

_____ 1. Being tired.
_____ 2. Feeling depressed.
_____ 3. Having a good day.
_____ 4. Being physically exhausted.
_____ 5. Being emotionally exhausted.
_____ 6. Being happy.
_____ 7. Being "wiped out."
_____ 8. Feeling "burned out."
_____ 9. Being unhappy.
_____10. Feeling rundown.
_____11. Feeling trapped.
_____12. Feeling worthless.
_____13. Being weary.
_____14. Being troubled.
_____15. Feeling disillusioned and resentful about people.
_____16. Feeling weak.
_____17. Feeling hopeless.
_____18. Feeling rejected.
_____19. Feeling optimistic.
_____20. Feeling energetic.
_____21. Feeling anxious.

Note. From Burnout: From Tedium To Personal Growth (p. 203) by A. Pines and E. Aronson, 1981, New York: The Free Press. Copyright 1980 by A. Pines and E. Aronson. Reprinted by permission.

APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

The Division of Psychology and Special Education supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research and related activities. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time, and that if you do withdraw from the study, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach.

Please fill out the Demographic Questionnaire and the Tedium Measure, following this form. During the course of survey completion, you may find answering questions concerning thoughts and feelings as uncomfortable. This is not unusual.

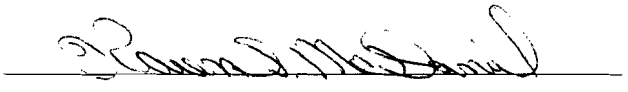
The findings of this research project will broaden the understanding of student stressors. It will also aid in the eventual improvement of the student experience and add to the knowledge base of stress in the field of psychology and related disciplines.

Please sign below.

_____ _____

Name Date

I, Karen S. McDaniel, hereby submit this thesis to Emporia State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree. I agree that the Library of the University may make it available for use in accordance with its regulations governing materials of this type. I further agree that quoting, photocopying, or other reproduction of this document is allowed for private study, scholarship (including teaching) and research purposes of a nonprofit nature. No copying which involves potential financial gain will be allowed without written permission of the author.



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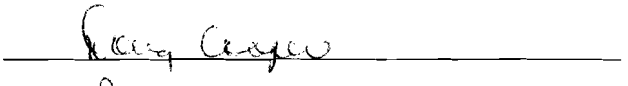
Student Burnout



December 9, 1993