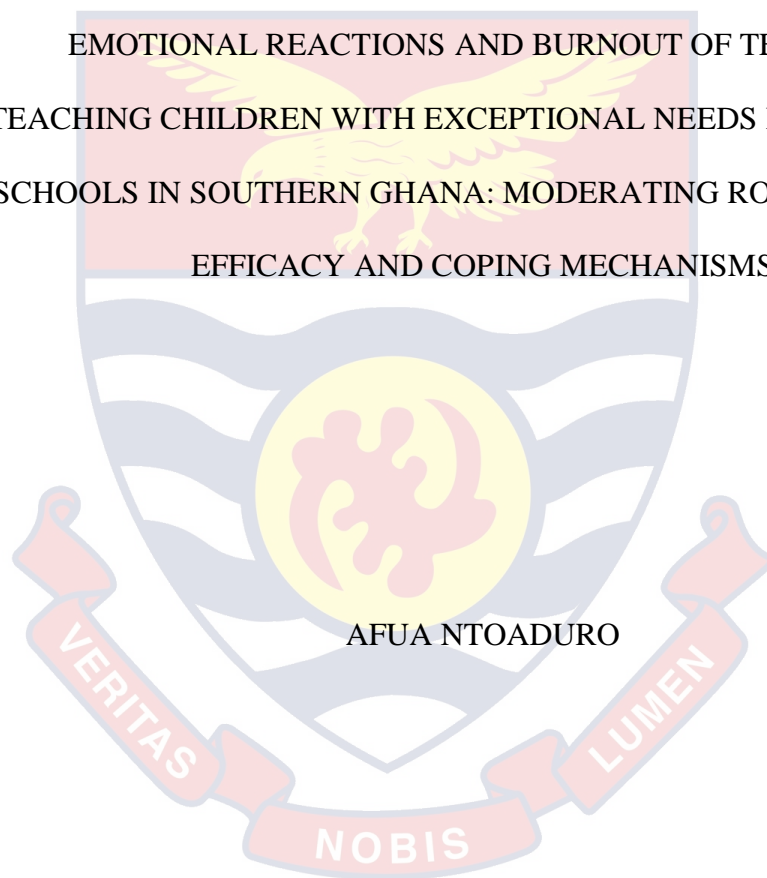


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EMOTIONAL REACTIONS AND BURNOUT OF TEACHERS  
TEACHING CHILDREN WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS IN INCLUSIVE  
SCHOOLS IN SOUTHERN GHANA: MODERATING ROLES OF SELF-  
EFFICACY AND COPING MECHANISMS



AFUA NTOADURO

2021



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EFFICACY AND COPING MECHANISMS

BY

AFUA NTOADURO

This thesis submitted to the Department of Education and Psychology of the  
Faculty of Educational Foundations, College of Education Studies, University  
of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of  
Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Special Education

OCTOBER 2021

## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature..... Date: .....

Name: .....

### Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature..... Date: .....

Name: .....

Co-Supervisor's Signature..... Date: .....

Name: .....

## ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers teaching children with exceptional needs in inclusive schools in southern Ghana: moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms. The study used convergent mixed method approach where both quantitative and qualitative data were collected in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. A sample of 390 teachers was drawn from a population of 3,090 from 182 schools through purposive, proportionate cluster and systematic sampling techniques. Questionnaire and an interview guide were used to elicit responses from the respondents. The study answered five research questions and tested nine hypotheses. Frequencies and Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations, Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient, Independent Samples T-test, ANOVA as well as Multiple Regressions Analysis for moderation were used to analysed the quantitative data. A qualitative thematic analysis was carried out on the qualitative data to gain an understanding of the participants' world. The results of the study showed that the teachers exhibited low self-efficacy while teaching in inclusive settings in southern Ghana. The teachers also expressed poor emotional reactions in their inclusive classrooms. Again, the study revealed that teachers adopt inappropriate coping mechanisms in dealing with their burnout in inclusive settings. It was evident from the study that the sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in southern Ghana were mastery of experience, vicarious experience, verbal or social persuasion, emotional and physiological factors. Among the recommendations was the need for educators of pre-service teachers to take the pre service teachers through how to develop a higher self-efficacy and adopt positive emotions before they graduate.

## KEYWORDS

Burnout

Emotions

Emotional Reactions

Coping mechanisms

Inclusion

Regular Teacher

Regular School

Self-efficacy

Exceptional children



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## DEDICATION

To my entire family whose wishes made my dream possible.





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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides information about the background to the study, the statement of the problem, purpose, objectives, research questions, hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitation, limitation, definitions of terms and organisation of the study.

#### **Background to the Study**

Education is a basic right which every child is entitled to regardless of his or her ability. However, studies have shown that most children with exceptional needs are out of school in most developing countries because of socio-cultural beliefs and practices (Gyimah, 2006; Ozoji, 2020). It is for this reason that inclusive education has been advocated in most countries. Equity and equality in education, according to Lamture and Gathoo (2017), are important aspects of modern-day education. Equity and equality also contributed to a shift in education philosophy, so various models have emerged, such as segregated, integrated and inclusive education. A global phenomenon is the emerging practice of incorporating children with exceptional needs in regular schools.

The inclusion of children with exceptional needs in public schools, as noted by Ainscow (2011), has been a central issue for most educational systems in the world. In several countries, therefore, the issue of educational inclusion is a key topic for educational policies. Globally, there is a movement from segregated education for children with exceptional needs to include such

children in the regular classrooms (UNESCO, 2006). Inclusion of children with exceptional needs in the regular classroom is, therefore, a global concept of education for all. The inclusive education concept is centred on the fundamental right to education for all as well as the right to non-discrimination and participation (Nolan, Schultz, Cialdini, Goldstein & Griskevicius, 2011). Inclusive education is highly recognised and supported, not just by a few passionate individuals and groups, but by UN agencies and governments.

Inclusive education has been achieved immensely through conventions and legal mechanisms such as the 2006 Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) which has been the first worldwide lawfully binding instrument to expressly encourage inclusive education as a right. Three prior documents paved the way: The World Programme of Action (1982); the Standard Rules on Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1993); and the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (1994). This structure reflects some of the main principles of inclusion that children have a wide range of characteristics and needs. Schools therefore need to house all pupils irrespective of the intellectual, physical, social or emotional status. Children with exceptional needs should attend their neighbourhood schools with structures in place to support their education and that community participation is essential for inclusion.

Inclusion has also been a central part of the reform campaign for enhancement of the delivery of instructions to children with exceptional needs by concentrating on the placement of these pupils in general education classes. Public schools are obliged to offer education in the least restrictive setting possible to all children who have been diagnosed with special conditions

(UNESCO, 2005). In Ghana, the Government saw the need to implement the system of inclusive education by piloting the programme in the 2003/4 academic year with the aim of educating teachers in handling children with exceptional needs in regular classrooms and making education accessible to all children.

Inclusive education includes children with exceptional needs attending education in mainstream schools, usually under the responsibility of a regular teacher (Lamture & Gathoo, 2017). A resource teacher is assigned to play supporting roles in meeting the needs of exceptional children in resource units (Mastropieri, et al 2015). A general and resource teacher plays a crucial part in achieving the aims of comprehensive education in mainstream schools.

The emergence of inclusion has contributed to the shoot up growth in the children's numbers in general educational settings in Ghana. A teacher is likely to encounter huge problems as they educate children with exceptional needs in inclusive schools as teachers are the most significant human resource for curriculum implementation. They are the ones who adapt and execute the designer's ideas and expectations. The challenges in improving the pedagogy of teachers in teaching programmes in Ghana are enormous, and a qualified teaching force for persons with exceptional needs is an unquestionable necessity. Teaching children with exceptional needs in an inclusive environment requires some professional behaviour to be exhibited by regular teachers as they engage in their work in assisting children to obtain the skills of writing and reading. The regular teachers' roles in teaching in inclusive schools now include daily duties which involve careful planning, teaching, and coming out with all embracing strategies to reduce challenges imposed on

their pupils' learning (Nind, & Wearmouth, 2016, Florian, 2013), and teachers also are required to recognise resources for supporting progressive inclusion (Agbenyega, 2012), regular education teachers are now required to exhibit their personal sensitivity to the complex nature of the particular exceptionality of their pupils (Bourke, 2011), and the way they will be able to reach their students so that no learner suffers from their practices while delivering their lessons (Jordan, Glenn & McGhie, 2011).

Moreover, teachers are called upon to step up assessment testing and reporting to their supervisor and principal (Bourke, 2011). Child-centered pedagogy is essential to inclusion. Flexible curricula should be tailored to children and not vice versa. Inclusive education needs proper resources and support so as to meet the needs of children with exceptional needs. Opertti and Brady (2011) also note other new roles of inclusive teachers, they note that teachers play a key role by addressing the diversity of learners' expectations and needs through a vast repertoire of innovation teaching and learning strategies that do not marginalize them within the broader education system (p.470).

The essence of their role as teachers in inclusive schools demands the complete use of peculiar skills and resources so as to meet the various levels of capability and the increasingly diverse needs of learners. They need to devote more time and resources to ensure that children with exceptional needs meet their learning goals (Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2013). Teachers are continually required to enhance their expertise in areas like problem solving, personal communication, curricula preparation and development (Winzer, 2011), as well as being accountable for designing and implementing special

education programmes and strategies (Klein, Cook, & Richardson-Gibbs, 2011). Teachers have also been required to advance innovative pedagogical methods, collaborate with other professionals within and outside their schools and to contribute to the designing of environments that enable children to achieve success in schools (Stainback, 2012).

Reform is difficult and demanding, hence, it needs strong teachers with foresight accompanied by clarity of comprehension of what inclusion is and how to accomplish it effectively. A problem that is presented by this reform is inadequate preparation of teachers in the implementation of the reform. However, an investigation by the U.S. DE OSERS (2002) found that, most general education teachers did not feel they were adequately prepared to work with or provide instructional accommodations for children with exceptional needs (Moore-Abdool, 2012, p.155).

Furthermore, children with exceptional needs have a unique set of challenges which has affected the success of the inclusive educational programme. Again, with the prevalence of children with exceptional needs increasing exponentially in today's classrooms, general education teachers face a broad range of challenges within inclusive settings (Busby, Ingram, Bowron, Oliver, & Lyons, 2012). In particular, the opportunity to be imaginative and think in a more creative way than literal approaches to work is important in general education classrooms, which is a challenge for teachers who teach in inclusive environments (Harbinson & Alexander, 2011). This can give rise to issues within the context of general education curriculum standards. Teachers also need additional assistance in their classes, which could be tremendously supportive dependent on the nature of the aid given. Even with interventions

put in place, some children with exceptional needs can still scuffle with inadequate vocabulary, remembering words, and general difficulties in communicating thoughts (Casey, Williamson, Black, & Casey, 2014).

The achievement of curriculum depends on teachers (Okello & Kagoire, 2012). While the relevance of teachers in promoting quality education cannot be understated, it has been realised that over the years, the inclusion of children with exceptional needs in the mainstream schools have stirred up emotions in teachers causing teachers to react negatively (McWilliam, 2014). Even though teachers generally experience emotions in teaching, it appears that the emotions teachers experience in teaching children with exceptional needs is triple what is experienced in regular schools because of the nature and characteristics of children with exceptional needs (Stoutjesdijk, Scholte & Swaab, 2012).

Teachers in inclusive schools therefore face a huge task in helping children with exceptional needs. Their personalities as well as their emotional dispositions are important. Teaching involves emotions and as such teachers' inherent emotions are deemed an integral part of instructional space (Hargreaves, 2011). The inherent emotions of teachers are related to a variety of outcomes, such as health and well-being of teachers (Chang, 2012; Keller, Chang, Becker, Goetz, & Frenzel, 2014), classroom effectiveness (Sutton, 2013), the emotions and motivation of students (Becker, Goetz, Morger, and Ranellucci, 2014; Radel, Sarrazin, Legrain, & Wild, 2014), as well as the learning and success of students (Becker, Goetz, Morger, & Ranellucci, 2014; Radel, Sarrazin, Legrain, & Wild, 2014), (Beilock, Gunderson, Ramirez, & Levine, 2015).

Emotions are complex psychological state that involves three distinct components: a relative experience, a physiological response and a behavioural or verbal response (Cherry, Fletcher, O'Sullivan, & Doman, 2014). Whiles emotional reactions refer to the expression of emotional states by teachers in inclusive schools which could be positive or negative.

Emotions are important in the classroom in the sense that they have an adverse impact on students' learning. Emotions affect learners' ability to process information and to meaningfully grasp what they encounter. For these reasons, it is critical for teachers to build a healthy, emotionally secure classroom setting for the optimal learning of children. However, Gyimah (2006) found in a study that teachers experience negative emotional reactions in teaching the children with exceptional needs. As opined by Zembylas and Barker (2012), teachers experience negative emotions such as frustration, anxiety, guilt, anger, fear, embarrassment, feelings of loneliness and powerlessness as a result of their limited knowledge of dealing with children with exceptional needs.

Sarıçam and Sakız (2014) report that, relative to those working with mainstream children, teachers working with children with exceptional needs report additional burnout and feel more exhausted and depersonalized. These feelings exacerbating from the negative reactions lead to burnout among teachers. Burnout refers to exhaustion, fatigue or apathy that may result from protracted periods of overwork and burnout (Berry, 2011). Teachers who educate children with exceptional needs experience higher burnout rates and are more likely to leave their jobs than teachers who teach regular children (Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, & Harniss, 2013; Stempien & Loeb, 2012). This



may be due to the numerous positions and distinctive duties required of teachers in inclusive schools. A permanent and ineffective coping with negative feelings can also lead to burnout: the feeling of emotional and bodily exhaustion, depersonalisation and diminished personal accomplishment (Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber (2011), which occurs as a reaction to chronic burnout exposure.

When the negative reactions and burnout are not managed effectively, the self-efficacy of the teacher may be affected. Tschannen-Moren and Woolfolk-Hoy (2013) describe teachers' self-efficacy as a teacher's judgement of his or her capabilities to bring about anticipated outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated". The negative emotions and burnout take a toll on the self-confidence of the teacher particularly when dealing with children with exceptional needs. Self-efficacy is not only an indicator of teachers' performance and dedication to work but also it relates to their resilience and motivation (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2012; Labone, 2014; Wheatley, 2015).

The extent to which emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy, and coping mechanisms influence teachers in inclusive classrooms can be moderated by demographic variables such as gender, age and years of teaching experience. These have been significantly related to emotions, burnout and self-efficacy of teachers (Özokcu, 2017). Emotion has been overlooked as an area of research in teacher education (Spillane, Reiser, & Reimer, 2012; Zembylas, 2014) in spite of central roles which emotion plays in the lives of individuals. Teachers encounter a multitude of feelings when they associate on

regular basis with children and other colleagues at their workplace. While one of the most known aspects of teacher burnout is emotional fatigue, the emotions of teachers and emotional control (coping mechanisms) have been overlooked (Carson, 2016; Zellars, Hochwarter, Perrew, Hoffman, & Ford, 2014).

Comprehending the influence of emotional dimensions of teaching will improve our understanding of the reasons for which teachers feel emotionally drained (Day & Leitch, 2011). An emotionally drained and burnout teacher who stays in his/her job is less efficient and also has more negative attitudes towards the work (Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, & Hamiss, 2011). These negative results make studying emotional reactions, burnout and self-efficacy an important issue.

School administrators also require their inclusive schools to perform same with other regular schools; hence much pressure is exerted on teachers to perform, and thus causes teachers to experience more negative emotions (Hadaway & Brue, 2016). However, less attention is paid by both scholars and policy makers to address this phenomenon (Grimaldi, 2012). Also, considering the importance or benefits children with exceptional needs could gain when educated in the regular school, having them out of regular schools may not be beneficial to society. It is against this backdrop that this current study sought to examine emotional reactions and burnout of inclusive school teachers in Southern Ghana: moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms.

### **Statement of the Problem**

It is recognized that Ghana, as a country, has ratified various conventions on disabilities and mainstream schools in the country are

inclusive of children with exceptional needs. This ratification is made possible through the Education Strategic Plan, 2003-2015 (also reviewed 2018-2030) by the Ministry of Education, the adoption of the Disability Act 715 passed by parliament in 2006, (Republic of Ghana, 2006) and the Inclusive Education Policy 2015. The Inclusive Education Policy 5.1.1.2 stipulates that regular schools shall provide for all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistics or other conditions. This makes it mandatory for all mainstream schools to accommodate children with exceptionality. The ultimate aim of the policy is to re-define and manage the delivery and management of educational services to respond to the diverse needs of all children within the framework of a uniform design for learning and child friendly school concept.

The policy of Inclusive Education was piloted in Ghana in 2003-2004 (Deku & Vanderpuye). Since then, children with exceptional needs are being admitted into mainstream schools. They are usually taught by mainstream teachers without special education qualification who may not be very prepared and knowledgeable in the pedagogy of teaching children with exceptional needs. Even though section 5.1.1. of the Inclusive Education Policy highlights training capacity and professional development of teachers, little has been done as, it is often realized that, there is a large lacuna between policy formulation and implementation particularly at the local level in Ghana. This is because it has been observed that not much has been done in terms of capacity and professional development. Again, most of the teachers in regular schools appear to lack some basic skills required to teach children with exceptional needs (Bhatnagar & Das, 2014). Additionally, it is uncertain

whether regular school teachers have the skills in assisting children with exceptional needs in the use of support services and adaptations of the general school curriculum to suit their needs.

It is well noted that to ensure a successful and efficient development at any stage, the availability of the necessary resources is important (Sunderman, Tracey, Kim & Orfield, 2014). In agreement with this, it is imperative to note that educators need resources to be able to engage efficiently in the teaching and learning process in all educational institutions particularly, at the basic levels. The resources for the children with exceptional needs become necessary because if teachers can give of their best there is the need to first overcome their challenges (Wood & McCarty, 2012). In some of these inclusive schools, teaching aids and special equipment are virtually absent (Sunderman, Tracey, Kim & Orfield, 2014). Resultantly, the children may be faced with lots of academic problems. Sunderman et al (2014) indicate that, the lack of amenities including special materials and equipment adversely affects the academic performance of children with exceptional needs. In dealing with all these difficulties, the teacher is likely to be exhausted, experience burnout and have his or her self-efficacy negatively affected. Again, it has been revealed that the nature and type of disability can also influence teachers' emotions towards inclusion (Ryan, 2016). These situations are likely to affect how well and accurately teachers impart knowledge to their pupils and their own wellbeing.

While teaching and learning difficulties certainly occur in all educational professions, educators in inclusive schools experience such difficulties at a higher rate than teachers in general education (Boe, Bobbitt, &

Cook, 2017; Stempien & Loeb, 2012). Teachers who have a lower sense of self-efficacy in teaching this unique population may experience more emotional exhaustion and burnout, in addition to the complexity of providing educational services to children with exceptional needs (Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2013). This can eventually impact the success of teaching and learning.

In spite of these, it appears that limited studies have been conducted in the Ghanaian setting concerning emotional reactions, burnout, self- efficacy and coping mechanisms of teachers teaching pupils with exceptional needs in inclusive schools. For instance, Gyimah (2006) found that teachers did not respond positively to teaching persons with severe, profound intellectual disability, hard of hearing, deaf and blind and as such expressed negative emotions. While pre-service teachers recognized disability in terms of the complex interaction of both biological factors and environmental factors, Nketsia (2016) also found that pre-service teachers felt more comfortable engaging with children with special needs, but their overall attitudes were barely positive, with some predisposed to cultural beliefs about disability. These studies indicate some emotional difficulties in teachers in inclusive schools.

The study by Gyimah (2006) focused on only the attitude of teachers teaching children with exceptional needs, while that of Nketsia (2016) focused on only teacher trainees. The current study however, focuses on in-service teachers in inclusive schools, paying special attention to their emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy and their coping mechanisms in teaching

children with exceptional needs in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana. In this regard, the current study is considered necessary.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The general purpose of the study was to investigate the emotional reactions and burnout of teachers teaching children with exceptional needs in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana: moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Find out the emotional reactions of teachers who teach in inclusive schools.
2. Find out how the emotional reactions of teachers' in inclusive schools affect their burnout.
3. Identify the sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana.
4. Find out the level of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana.
5. Find out what coping mechanisms teachers adopt to manage their burnout in inclusive schools.
6. Determine if self-efficacy will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.
7. Determine if coping mechanisms will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.
8. Determine if there is any statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their burnout.
9. Determine if there is any statistically significant relationship between teachers' coping mechanism and their burnout.

10. Determine if there is any statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout.
11. Determine if there is any statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their emotional reactions.
12. Determine if there is any statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of the burnout they experience.
13. Determine if there is any statistically significant difference between the academic qualifications of teachers and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.
14. Determine if there is any statistically significant difference between teachers' years of teaching and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.

### **Research Questions**

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. What are the emotional reactions of teachers who teach in inclusive schools?
2. How do the emotional reactions of teachers in inclusive schools affect their burnout?
3. What are the sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana?
4. What is the level of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana?
5. What coping mechanisms do teachers adopt to manage their burnout in inclusive schools?

## Research Hypotheses

1.  $H_0$ : Self-efficacy will not moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.

$H_1$ : Self-efficacy will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.

2.  $H_0$ : Coping mechanisms will not moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.

$H_1$ : Coping mechanisms will moderate, emotional reactions and burnout of teachers

3.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their burnout.

$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their burnout.

4.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' coping mechanism and their burnout.

$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' coping mechanism and their burnout.

5.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout.

$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout.

6.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their emotional reactions.

$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their emotional reactions.



7.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of the burnout they experience.

$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of the burnout they experience.

8.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant difference between the academic qualifications of teachers and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.

$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant difference between the academic qualifications of teachers and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.

9.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant difference between the teachers' years of teaching and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.

$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant difference between teachers' years of teaching and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.

### **Significance of the Study**

The results of the study are of significance to the Ghana Education Service and the Ministry of Education in their policies regarding inclusive schools in Ghana. The Ghana Education Service as well as the Ministry of Education will be enlightened as to the actual situations regarding emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy and coping mechanisms of teachers who teach children with exceptional needs in inclusive settings. This would inform policies that would help implement inclusive education successfully.

Students in inclusive schools will also gain positively from the outcomes of this study. This is because identifiable stakeholders such as teachers and the Ghana Education Service involved in pursuing the inclusive programme can put in efforts and advance a positive response to meet the

unique need of the exceptional pupils. The findings of this study would go a long way to provide exceptional children with the high-quality instruction accepted by law.

Finally, other researchers would use the results emanated from the study as reference point as well as an entry point for other studies relative to the current topic so as to cover areas that this study was not be able to address.

### **Delimitations**

The study was limited in its scope and geographical coverage. In terms of the scope, the study covered emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy as well as coping mechanisms of teachers. The study covered only in-service teachers in inclusive basic schools.

Geographically, the study covered inclusive schools in Greater Accra, Eastern and Central Regions. These three regions were selected because when Ghana made the decision to pilot the inclusive education policy, they were the first places to start inclusive education and as such were in the best position to provide the needed information.

### **Limitations**

A potential drawback was that the study did not include observations. As indicated in this research work, however, my aim was to capture the emotional reactions, burnout, and coping mechanisms of teachers. Observing the students may have affected the actions of the teachers in class. Therefore, the data obtained through observation may have been limited because teachers could have exhibited actions that could have been counterproductive or manage their actions according to the context cultural which may have defeated the purpose of this study

Some respondents might have changed their answers and phrases, telling me what they thought I wanted to hear or maybe change their words for fear that I would be judgmental. This may have been likely because the relational bond between teacher and student generates the impression that teachers are actively supportive of students rather than adversarial (Enos, 2016; McLeod, 2015; Richmond, 2012; Robillard, 2017; Yoon, 2015). Some participants may have felt that admitting negative feelings towards students, such as indignation or annoyance, would be seen as admitting their inability to be compassionate and caring teachers. I reacted to this limitation by establishing a good relation and trust with the participants. This helped me to cope with these limitations and reduced the probability that a person might be worried about being unprofessional or not in control of his or her feelings. Also, by disclosing my status as a special educator and the interactions I have had with educating children with unique needs, this limitation was reduced.

### **Definition of Terms**

For the sake of providing clarity with the choice of words as used in the study, the following key terms are contextually operationalised:

**Burnout:** This is used to refer to emotional exhaustion among teachers resulting mainly from chronic burnout situations.

**Emotion:** Emotion is an organised psychobiological response linking physiological, cognitive, and motivational states.

**Emotional Reactions:** These refer to the expression of emotional states by teachers in inclusive schools.

**Exceptional children:** These are children who deviate in mental characteristics, sensory ability, physical characteristics, social or emotional

actions, communication skills and various handicaps from the average or typical children to such a degree that these children need a change in school practices to improve their potential.

**Coping mechanisms:** They are the behaviours/efforts that are put forth to combat the burnout.

**Inclusion:** The focus of this study was on the education system, so the word “inclusion” was limited to the education system. Therefore, the term “inclusion” or “inclusive education” apply to the same thing in this study. A wider perspective was taken on inclusive education in this work. It refers to the process by which all kinds of children are accommodated by the education system, irrespective of their physical, intellectual, social, mental, linguistic or other conditions, and the curriculum of the school. In general, the style and atmosphere of teaching must respond to the range of diversity found among children in regular schools (UNESCO, 1994).

**Regular Teacher:** It refers to all teachers who did not attend any special needs education training courses.

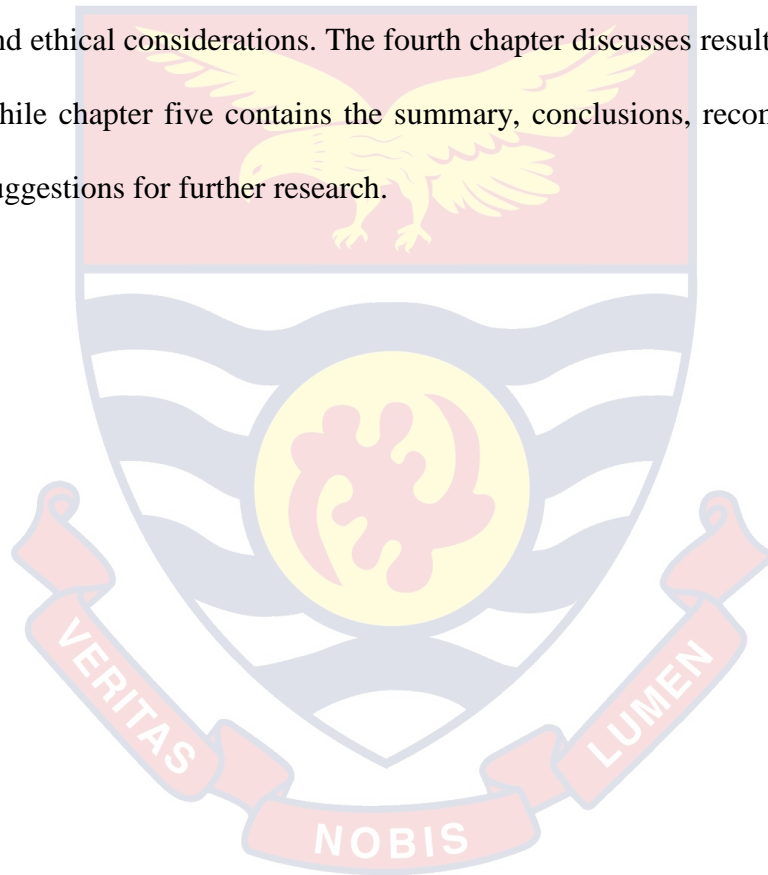
**Regular School:** It connotes schools intended for learners who do not identify themselves as in need of special education, but welcome all kinds of students.

**Self-efficacy:** It is the confidence level that an individual has about his or her capability to succeed in a specific task.

### **Organisation of the Study**

The first chapter looks at the introduction to the entire thesis; it sets the context for the study. It covers the background to the study explains teachers’ emotional reactions on burnout moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana, statement of the

problem, purpose of the study, research questions, hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitations, limitations, definition of terms, purpose of the study and organisation of the study. The second chapter deals with literature review, it examines and reviews existing literature related to conceptual issues that are outlined in the thesis as well as the theoretical framework. The third chapter deals with the research design, population, sample and the sampling procedure, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and ethical considerations. The fourth chapter discusses results and discussion, while chapter five contains the summary, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews literature related to the study. The review is done under three sub-headings. These are the theoretical framework, conceptual framework and the empirical review.

#### **Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical implication of the current study was placed among three main theories, the theory of social construction (Berger & Luckmann, 1966), the theory of mindfulness (Kabat-Zinn, 1979), (Shea, 2018) and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977). The use of these theories was driven by their relevance to this study in explaining how and why teachers experience emotional reactions and burnout the moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanism in educating pupils with exceptional need in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana and also to lay emphasis on the situation. Buckworth and Dishman (2018) is of the view that, to develop a framework in an individual behaviour, it starts with the comprehension of the theory and model that helps to describe, explain and predict behaviour.

#### **Social Constructivism**

Constructivism is the theory that highlights the unique experience of humans as they make or create knowledge as a result of active participation and engagement with the environment or the world. Every person's procedure to make this meaning is different and appreciated as every person's way to represent his/her experience (Clottey, 2011). Berger and Luckmann (1966)

contends in Social Construction of Reality that all ideas are constructed socially, involving human's idea of what actually 'reality' is. Explanations of 'reality' are conveyed socially from generation to generation, they are additionally strengthened by societal authorisations; this is because an individual is born in community with established customs and pre-determined pattern of actions.

These prevailing collections of explanation are learnt and adopted via the processes of socialisation. The ideas progressively become part of an individual's personal philosophy, perception of the globe and ideology. Humans hardly ask questions about their worldview; unless they are confronted, they take their form of realism for granted and reason that it is similar for everybody (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Robbins, Chatterjee & Canda, 2019).

Ideas of disability are similarly socially constructed within the context of ablest power relations. Body and mind differences and perceived challenges are framed by the medical model of disability as flaws that need to be fixed at the individual level. The social model of disability focuses on the debilitating dimensions of life for people with impairments (physical, sensory or mental differences), where people with impairments are debilitated by society (Shakespeare, 2016). "Disability", then, refers to a form of oppression where individuals understood as having impairments are imagined to be inferior to those without impairments, and impairments are devalued and unwanted. This view point manifests itself in institutional and social structures that restrict access for those with impairments.

Social construction of disability is the knowledge that the society and its organisations have the power to construct disability around social expectations. According to this thinking, one cannot view reality apart from one's explanations of it, while objectivists hold the notion that an individual gains knowledge about real world via hypothesis building and investigating them, constructionism opines that a persons' interest and ideals cannot be separated from the observation he/she make and that the viewer is not neutral (Dean, 2017).

Furthermore, connotations are not intrinsic in an object, somewhat connotations or meanings are usually made out of what individuals experience via association with other individuals (Burr, 2015). In the present study, the researcher uses constructivism to acknowledge that all teachers have different viewpoints and experiences, their own distinct interpretations of teaching and research procedures. Teachers remain aware of their own biases about including children with exceptional needs. Teachers as members of the community are born into cultures with prevailing norms and predefined patterns of conducts.

These patterns are socially passed from one generation to the other and furthermore strengthened by societal sanctions (Wertsch, 1991). These prevailing group definitions are learned and internalized by individual teachers through socialisation processes. These definitions eventually become part of their worldview and philosophies and this eventually is witnessed in their practice. This ideology and worldview predispose the teachers to a lot of feelings in interacting with children with exceptional needs. These feelings can either be negative or positive which depends on the community the



individual is coming from and the ideas the community has constructed about children with exceptional needs. If the community the teacher is from has as its construct, that the child with exceptional needs is a blessing, in interacting with them a teacher may experience a positive emotional reaction and vice versa. This means that constructivism offers teachers a context to work with the various explanations of disability constructed by the society in inclusive settings.

Burr (2015) suggests, further usage of social constructivism by way of a theoretical viewpoint highlights the significance of individual's socio-cultural context as to how the constructions of their ideas affect their involvement with their social settings. Social constructivism improves on Lev Vygotsky's (1978) work, and currently enhanced by Rogoff (1990) and Wertsch (1991). The fundamental central point of "social constructivism" is that thought and knowledge is jointly connected with social context (Mallory & New, 2014; Wertsch, 1991).

The main assumption of the social constructivism theory is that, knowledge is determined by other people in society. For an individual teacher who works in multifaceted settings such as inclusive schools, the idea or knowledge of construction as being influenced by context is important. In agreement with the above, social constructivism, in the current study, has been utilised as a base of the theory that recognises that the teacher's knowledge and experience do not develop exclusively within; it is rather created via associations and involvement with the broader societal contexts.

It is acknowledged that there is a connection among persons and their social environment therefore contextual information is given in this study in

order to frame the teachers' experiences and emotions. Since the purpose of the present research is to understand the teachers' emotional reactions on burnout and moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms in inclusive settings, how they conceptualize children in the classroom and the impact this has on the teaching experiences is essential. Social constructivism permits the significance of the teacher and the individuals in the social context as the prime attention, taking the attention away from the subject matter to be taught and to include the wider contextual matters as well (Adams, 2017). Per this understanding, the context such as teachers' emotional reactions become relevant and needs to be considered in the study. The relevance of this, in the present research is that adoption of a social constructivist theoretical framework is an understanding of each teacher as unique and that their experiences will differ according to their own contextual circumstances.

Perhaps, the most important use of this theoretical framework is in understanding the experiences of teachers. Ways that teachers interrelate with the children in their classroom and with the wider social contexts have influence on their own experiences and the experiences of the children in the classroom. These kinds of relations setup the dynamics of school experiences for all involved, being it negative or positive. In order to understand the complexities of teachers' emotional reactions and burnout, moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanism in this research work, it was necessary to go into the teacher's contexts of the school to understand the teacher's emotional reactions and burnout, moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms.

## Criticism of Social Constructionism

Social construction has its opponents. Some sociologists maintain that constructionists focus on claims, making them ignore a far more important subject, the harmful social conditions that are the real social problems (Rogoff, 1990; Mallory & New, 2014). Constructionists believe that social situations are harmful only when someone has made compelling arguments to that effect (Stam, 2019). Objective sociologists point out that theoretical constructionist theories are inconsistent (Wertsch, 1991; Dean, 2017). Scientists who are motivated by positivist traditions prefer research methods that are compatible with human beings' construction as passive species (Sarbin & Kitsuse, 2014).

In theory, human behaviour is predictable from experience, from the person and from the situation. Some sociologists attack constructionism for their use of subjectivity in defence of their conviction that objectivism is the sole scientific paradigm, or these sociologists claim that objectivism and constructionism can be reconciled. Best (2015), for example, suggests that the nature of constructionism is misunderstood by these people, which goes beyond only admitting that meanings of social issues are subjective. Constructionists set a novel agenda for those who research social issues by describing social problems in terms of argument making.

Some sociologists argue that constructionism is internally inconsistent (Woolgar & Pawluch, 2019a). Noting that while constructionists accept their emphasis as subjective assessments, some awareness of the objective condition is typically assumed by their study. Woolgar and Pawluch (2019b) believe that constructionist theory researchers must be devoid of social and

cultural presumptions and have no interpretative structure for documenting their findings. Otherwise in mid-air (that is 'ontological gerrymandering'), they are ontologically floating. Constructionism has been argued to include the selective application of scepticism, enabling or rejecting the presence of phenomena according to the attitude of the observer towards them (Woolgar & Pawluch, 2018).

The idea of ontological gerrymandering forced Constructionists to divide ranks into two camps: strict and contextual constructionism. Berger and Luckmann (1966) were simply studying the reciprocal relationship between individuals and society. As said by Ore (2017), human beings create the realities of society through their imaginative practice. If they are formed, social realities in that society become the external, objective truth of people in that society.

The individual internalises this truth so as to become part of their awareness. People create society, but society, in turn, creates people (Ore, 2017, p.62). Social constructionists and experimentalists theorists essentially agree with the premise that people are very interested in constructing a symbolic view of the universe. The key difference between the two points of view is that the postmodern thought that portrays reality as subjective and relative has been embraced by social constructionists; while experimentalists' claim of social construction processes are based on the cognitive method of the individual and on the current social background (Jost & Kruglanski, 2012).

The school of social constructionism defines social construction or 'social construct' as a concept that may seem normal and obvious to those who embrace it but in truth, it is an invention or artifact of a specific culture or

society (Gergen, 1985). The suggestion is that human decisions, rather than rules of God or nature, are social constructs. Shotter (2013a, 2013b) reflects on the complex interpersonal construction processes that he refers to as “joint action”.

Linguistic inventions and practices (first order constructs) are provided by members of a group, that can in turn be subjected to theoretical scrutiny (second order constructs). A “construct” is an abstract assertion regarding experiences with intangible procedure that correspond to underlying psychological realities (Tzeng, 2020). Each construction may call for a particular kind of behaviour from human beings; therefore, some of the world's constructions can help preserve some social action patterns and exclude others (Burr, 2015; Gergen, 1985).

Culture and community are two constructions that are important in this theoretical context. “Culture” refers to the beliefs, values, norms, attitudes and behaviours exchanged and learned by people within a community (Jost & Kruglanski, 2020; Burr, 2015). “Society” is made up of individuals tied together by social and cultural commonalities. A society often involves individuals who communicate with one another within a geographical location directed by their culture (Loustaunau & Sobo, 2020). Our modes of classification, interpretation and representation are derived from relationships and all relationship understandings are an exchange of history and the current social conditions of culture (Gergen, 1985). Analysis turns out to be a mutually negotiated mechanism guided by the researcher's world views or value systems (Lincoln & Guba, 2014).

Social constructionism asserts, as stated by Burr (2015), that because people are products of social processes and because these social processes and circumstances are continuously evolving across history, people are often compelled to change constantly. We have to try to understand where our existing ways of thought come from, because there is no ultimate reality. In a current literature review on attitudes and social judgment, it was concluded that researchers are gradually moving towards the conceptualization of attitudes as transient constructions (Schwarz, 2015). How does one become aware of one's environment? That question is answered by the next theory.

### **Mindfulness Theory**

Kabat-Zinn (2003 p. 125) describes mindfulness as paying attention in a particular way: on purpose, in the present moment, and non-judgmental to the unfolding of experience moment by moment. The theory of Mindfulness discusses awareness of context in current moment. It emanates from comparing knowledge that extend the understanding of a situation by holding the mind open to alternative viewpoints and categories (Carson & Langer, 2016). For example, mindlessness, routinised or automatic actions, and working from a specific viewpoint may make it difficult to see the whole situation and thus affect performance and associations (Burgoon, Berger, & Waldron, 2020). Mindfulness, however, permits individuals to be environmentally aware, encouraging clearer thoughts and actions (Demick, 2011), as well as enhancing efficiency, decision-making, and reducing burnout (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2016; Sternberg, 2017).

In addition, there is a greater relation to how knowledge, awareness, and meaning can impact decision-making (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2019). The theory of Mindfulness (at a highly developed level) suggests concurrently:

- i. Knowing our own assumptions, thoughts and feelings; and the selective perception, attribution, and categorization adopted by us and others.
- ii. Observing what is clear about the other person and responding to their assumptions, words and actions.
- iii. Using all the senses in the interpretation of circumstances rather than only focusing, for instance, on hearing the words spoken by the other people.
- iv. Observing the conditions from numerous viewpoints, with an open mind.
- v. Attending to the context to assist in interpreting what happens.
- vi. Producing new mental maps of the personality and cultural context of other people to help react appropriately to them.
- vii. Creating new groups, and categorizing other ones into a more complex category.
- viii. Looking out for fresh evidence to either confirm or disconfirm the mental maps.
- ix. Using empathy (the willingness to put oneself emotionally in the shoes of the other person) as a way of understanding the situation and their feelings toward it, from the viewpoint of their cultural background rather than ours. (Gardner, 2015; Langer, 2011).

Putting this in context, many attempts to fight the preconception, have been intended at minimizing our propensity to categorise other individuals (Burgoon, Berger, & Waldron, 2020; Sternberg, 2017). These initiatives are focused on the view that everyone should be considered equal in an ideal world, falling under the same human being category. Yet categorising is a basic and normal human action. It is the way people come to understand the universe. By trying to remove the perception of disparities, any effort to eliminate prejudice will be doomed to fail. This is because individuals would not give up their groups easily. An interpretation of the essence of mindfulness indicates a new approach to fighting discrimination, one in which people learn to differentiate between individuals more rather than less (Demick,2011; Kabat-Zinn,2003). If people bear in mind the importance of context and the presence of various viewpoints, they can see that depending on the situation and the opinion of the observer, the understanding of abilities and handicaps constantly shifts.

A mindful outlook recognises that with respect to some of our characteristics, we are all deviant from the majority, and also that each attribute or ability lies on a spectrum (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2016). Such understanding contributes to more categorisation and thus less global stereotypes, or, as we said earlier, increasing discrimination can reduce prejudice (Carson & Langer, 2016). Since it is unavoidable that all persons label their own unique groups and other groups, learning to differentiate between mindless stereotyping and mindful stereotyping is the key to coping with the problem. The features of mindless stereotyping are as follows, as stated by Langer (2018).



- (1) Keeping rigidly our pre-conceived, negative stereotypes and working in the practice of those negative stereotypes on an automatic pilot.
- (2) Assuming that the stereotypes of the out-group are true and ignoring all new incoming data and proof.
- (3) Directing our typecasting method using emotionally laden evaluative categories.
- (4) Using a cognitive, polarised mode to indulge in group favouritism and out- group partiality.
- (5) Indulging in mental distortion in order to force the behaviour of associates into predetermined groups.
- (6) Supposing that the actions of one associate represents the behaviours and norms of all members in the group and
- (7) Maximising the difference between categories with inflated, opposing classifications without effective outcomes.

On the other hand, Langer (2018), recognises the features of mindful stereotyping as follows:

- (1) Consciously or mindfully keeping the stereotypes-that is, being meta-cognitively conscious that we are stereotyping followers of a total group.
- (2) Thinking that the stereotype we use is just the best assumptions instead of the final answer (Epel, Blackburn, Lin, Dhabhar, Alder, Morrow, & Cawthon, 2017).
- (3) Instead of evaluative categories, use loose, interpretive categories;
- (4) Use qualifying, appropriate and contextual statements to frame our expectations and clarifications;

(5) Being opened to new data and facts and re-defining the social groups predetermined accordingly.

(6) Getting to recognise the membership of the group and personal identities of people within the group into detail and sampling a number of sources within the group and

(7) Recognising valid and significant discrepancy and similarity between oneself and others, as well as between one category and another.

While mindful stereotyping evokes an open-minded attitude in dealing with others, mindless stereotyping reflects a closed-ended mindset. Mindless stereotyping refers to our closely held opinions about a group of people. On the other hand, mindful stereotyping refers to our consciously held assumptions about a group of people, with a willingness to modify our loosely held images based on varied experiences of first-hand contact. In watching, listening and attending to the latest signs and signals sent by strangers from other classes, mindful stereotyping relies heavily on a responsive communication process (Ting-Toomey, 2019; Duguid, & Thomas-Hunt, 2015).

Mindfulness is used in this context to create awareness that teachers have to deconstruct their perceptions about children with exceptional needs. It is a theory that recognises everybody as equal and leads to acceptance. This can be achieved if teachers reconstruct their perception and acknowledge the fact that children with exceptional needs are humans just like anybody. Teachers need to create new mental maps of children with disabilities. If teachers do this, it will lead to acceptance of the children with disability. The acceptance will also help in the reduction of the emotional reactions and

burnout that are experienced by teachers' as a result of their preconceived ideas acquired through social construction. Teachers will develop high efficacy of themselves and stay healthy and remain within the profession. Being mindful alone is not enough. Teachers' self-efficacy needs to be managed and improved. The self-efficacy theory discusses this in the following sub headings.

Despite the numerous advantages associated with the mindfulness theory, a major criticism of this theory relates to its sole focus on the individual while being silent on other major factors like availability of required tools and materials to enhance the imparting of knowledge to children with exceptional needs.

Another criticism is the turning of a blind eye to the fact that individuals react differently to this technique. This theory assumes that all individuals behave the same way forgetting that in some parts of the world for in instance in Africa many people have strong superstitious believes associated with some form of children with exceptional needs and not all individuals would be able to deconstruct those superstitious believes in order to reconstruct new ideas.

Another concerned raised is how theory is being utilized by individuals with little formal training in mental health. In Ghana for instance teachers do not have any training in mental health which would inhibit the application of this theory.

### **The Self-Efficacy Theory**

The self-efficacy theory originated from the social cognitive theory developed by Bandura in the 1960s. The basic assumption of the theory is that

the dynamic interaction between people (personal factors), their behaviour and their environment is demonstrated by reciprocal determinism. Conceptually, self-efficacy relates to a sense of control over individual's environs and behaviour. Therefore, the teacher's self-efficacy in this framework involves the teachers' belief in their capability and skills to effectively teach in inclusion classrooms. Johnson (2018) argues that this assumption affects the course of actions that teachers choose to pursue, the amount of energy they put forth in given endeavours and how long they can persist in the face of challenges and failures. An individual must possess the requisite knowledge and skills as well as the motivation and perception needed to successfully demonstrate the required actions in difficult circumstances, posited by Artino (2016). The attitude of a person towards children with special needs, however, depends on a person's verdict of her/his capability to recognize the disability (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

The core tenet of the theory is that teacher's self-belief can influence their thinking (Bandura, 2019) and the particular emotions they exhibit towards children with exceptional needs. In this case, teachers' attitudes towards children with exceptional needs are not only caused by environmental influence, nevertheless it critically mediates via their understanding, knowledge, perception, emotion and interpretation of special needs. The theory emphasises that, a teacher with a strong locus-of-control is more likely to maintain higher wisdom of self-efficacy towards exceptional children. That is to say that a teacher is more likely to put forth much energy so as to develop positive attitude towards children with exceptional needs.

Behavioural factors in the theory are conceptualised through teacher experience in working with children with exceptional needs. Park, Crocker, and Mickelson (2019) indicate that, a teacher that has prior experiences working with exceptional children has a more positive attitude than those without experience. Internal-personal factors are teachers' demographic variables including gender and age. This theory suggests that when teachers have high levels of self-efficacy it can enhance their accomplishment and feelings of personal wellbeing with respect to teaching children with exceptional needs. If teachers develop self-efficacy it can help them to remain calm when approaching challenging task like teaching children with exceptional needs. It can also increase the teacher's confidence in mastering new ideas and they will be willing to experiment ways of teaching children with exceptional needs. It will increase their persistence and focus on teaching children with exceptional needs.

In spite of the wide usage of the theory in the study of disability, its validity and theoretical growth seems to be questioned. Brian (2016) stated that, the procedure in which efficiency prospect arises from numerous bases of data, and the interactions of self-efficacy with various stages of skills and enthusiasm are very significant. However, currently there has been no method to describe how the procedures occurred, thereby compromising the practical usefulness of the theory. In addition, high self-efficacy beliefs do not always guarantee positive outcome expectations (Artino, 2016). This is because basing one's self efficacy for a new task on results of previous task maybe misleading (Bandura, 2019). Again, personal factors and distorted memories of previous performance can distort one's self-efficacy. Furthermore, self-

efficacy beliefs vary greatly between individuals which makes them very difficult for researchers to assess. People with high self-efficacy and high skills may lack the resources and equipment to perform according to Bandura (2019, p. 396),” When performances are impeded by disincentives, inadequate resources or external constraints self-judged efficacy will exceed the actual performance.” All these are weaknesses to the use of self-efficacy theory and they compromise on the practical usefulness of the theory.

Despite these weaknesses, the theory has gained common reception from educators in handling a diverse range of emotions. The application of the self-efficacy theory in this research is essential in addressing the emotional reactions and burnout of teachers in teaching exceptional children. Generally, the application of the theory is to help design interventions to improve teachers’ efficacy in managing emotions on burnout they experience in dealing with children with exceptional needs.

From the above understanding of the theories, it could be concluded that emotional difficulties and burnout that teachers experience in inclusive settings are partly caused by themselves, by the prescription of the society due to staying in a community that is designed by and for non-disabled children as well as the competence of teachers and objects or events that cause the emotions.

### **Conceptual framework**

The study’s conceptual framework is based on the key variables in the study. The framework is the researcher’s own construct.

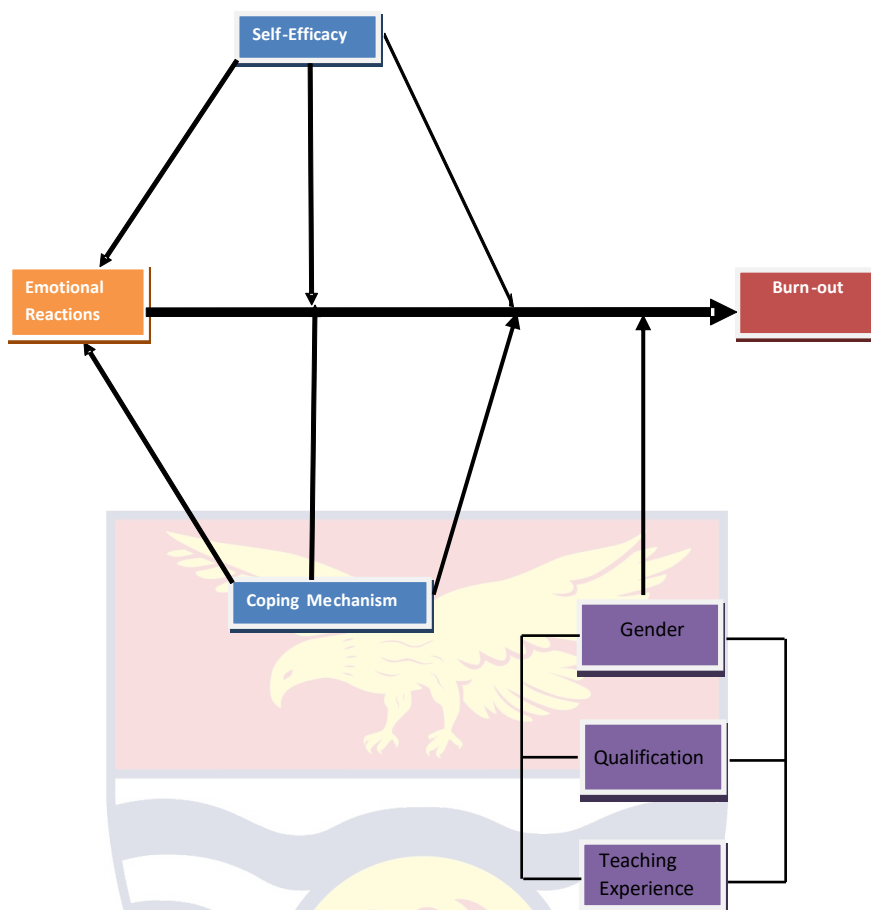


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework (Researcher's Own Construct)

The variables in the current study and how they are related are presented in Figure 1. The independent variable is emotional reactions thus how teachers feel towards children with exceptional needs, while the dependent variable is burnout. Self-efficacy and coping mechanisms are moderating variables. The correlation between the independent variable and the dependent variable is moderated by self-efficacy and coping mechanisms. Gender, qualification and teaching experience may influence the independent variable and the dependent variable. It is anticipated that when teachers teach in inclusive schools, they are likely to have emotional reactions leading to burnout and that is why the current study aimed at investigating to report on emotional reactions and burnout as well as moderating roles of self-efficacy

and coping mechanisms with respect to educating pupils with exceptional need in ‘inclusive’ schools in Southern Ghana.

### **Concept of Emotions**

Human beings are emotional in nature, as individuals experience love, hate, excitement, remorse, depression, guilt and vengeance as well as many other feelings. Feelings as well as individual emotions may be influential mechanisms that connect individuals and cultures and divide them. Individuals utilize sentiments to build societal bond (Collins, 2014), and to make and maintain obligations to social structure. Turner (2017) is of the view that, in humans, emotions are stimulated when various steps are being engaged to fulfil individual’s biological and transactional need. Frequently, feelings influence cultures, ethics, thoughts, symbols, media, belief, and social standards and customs. Even though, the study of emotions has a long history, it appears no investigation is conducted to find out a role that emotion plays in teaching, in what way teachers’ emotive experience and skills influence teachers’ training practice, and also in what way the socio-cultural background of instruction interrelates with teachers’ emotions (Schutz & Zembylas, 2019).

To have a broad understanding of emotion, it is imperative to consider how the ‘biological’ and ‘psychological’ components of emotion interact with the social domain (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012). Zembylas (2014) describes emotions as evaluative, relational and political within a school and wider society, and shaped by the relationships of politics and power.

Burkitt (1997) defines ‘emotion’ as both rationality and complexity. Emotions are multi-faceted and can never be minimised to only biology and relationships but also all other areas as being established in continuing



interactive practice. In view of this, the objective of research in the sociology of emotions can never be comprehended as items but as complexities which comprise diverse areas of embodiment and reliant individual survival.

Though the interests of research on emotions grow in current era, comprehension of the term is unclear still (Turner, 2019). It was notoriously difficult to describe emotions and there was little consensus between disciplines (Boler, 2012) about how to conceptualize and map this enigmatic definition. In ways that reflect their various theoretical perspectives, researchers use the word “emotion”, as well as physiological, philosophical, historical, sociological, feminist, organizational, anthropological and psychological viewpoints (Oatley, 2015).

According to Thoits (2012), individuals usually relate emotions with their state of disposition and feeling that is being affected by the individual’s epistemological perceptions. Vygotskian Theory (1978) provides an integrated view of emotions, claiming that emotions were part of a social-cognitive process of development, closely linked to ideas and behaviour and influenced by the institutional, cultural and historical contexts in which we live (Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev & Miller, 2013).

With most studies taking a psychological viewpoint, this approach did not impact the focus for early emotional study (Zembylas, 2015a). Izard, Woodburn, and Finlon (2017) argue that it is still difficult to describe emotion, even though there seems to be some consensus on the structure and function of emotions. Emotion is now agreed to be multi-componential; that is, any emotion consists of a number of more or less unordered component

collections, triggered jointly by how an event is evaluated and by component propensities (Scherer, 2018).

Many scientists refer to distinct terminology using similar or equivalent component depending on their theoretical viewpoint. Education psychologists Sutton and Wheatley (2016), for example, refer to components of emotion as evaluation, subjective experience, physiological transition, expressions of emotion and patterns of behaviour. Izard, Woodburn, and Finlon (2017) used the terms: neural structures, reaction systems, feelings or a feeling condition, expressive actions, antecedent cognitive appraisal and cognitive interpretation, while referring to similar components. Sutton and Wheatley (2018) highlight the idea that the components affect each other but are partially independent, and Izard, Woodburn, and Finlon (2017) opine that the components are seen as socially constructed rather than simply psychological and individual.

In addition, conscious of the truth that there has been no definition of the term emotion which is agreeable with academics in the fields, diverse theorists as already indicated gave various and different definitions of the term ‘emotion’. Though scholars may disagree on a given definition of emotion, the universal sense that has been used in all definitions is that emotional responses in humans involve three (3) interconnected sets of processes:

- i. Neurophysiologic and biochemical process, such as rate of heart beat, skin response, and hormonal levels.
- ii. Motor and behavioural - expressive processes, for instance, facial expressions, changes in posture, and tone of voice.

iii. Cognitive-experiential system, for example, subjective awareness and labelling emotions (Brenner & Salovey, 2017; Parker, Taylor, & Bagby, 2015).

In the words of Turner (2017), emotions from the cognitive viewpoint are defined as conscious feelings about self and objects in the environment and as words and labels that humans give to particular physiological states of arousal from a cultural perspective. To have a broad-based understanding of emotion, it is important to examine how the 'biological' and 'psychological' components of emotion interact with the social domain (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012). This research employed a sociological viewpoint of emotion which utilizes four (4) rudiments of emotions identified by Thoits (2012) to ensure a comprehension of the terminology.

The four (4) rudiments of feelings coined by Thoits were: Situational cues (variables that alert stimulation of diverse changing strengths of feelings), emotional labels; denotes various wordings employed in describing emotions like joy and sorrow that differ across various cultures (Smith & Schneider, 2019), expressive signals; these include facial, expressions body gestures, and physiological changes (that is when an individual experiences emotions, physiological responses such as an increased heart beat are evident). The aforementioned four (4) rudiments of emotions are connected and jointly have impact on one another (Turner, 2017). For example, any particular emotion (like a teacher getting angry) is influenced by a situation (like a student's misbehaviour) and may be accompanied by expressive gestures (such as scowl on teachers face with fist thumping table) and physiological changes (for example, reddening of face of teacher).

Explanation of Thoits' four (4) rudiments of feelings offers a lens through which individuals may understand emotions. Further to the four general elements (rudiments) that Thoits (2014) outlined, in this study emotions are grouped in four (4) basic levels. These are satisfaction-happiness, aversion-fear, assertion- anger and disappointment-sadness (Turner, 2017). Satisfaction happiness is categorised as positive emotion while the remaining three (3) are regarded as undesirable or negative emotions. According to Baumeister, Bratslausky, Finkenauer, and Vohs, (2018), the stimulation of emotion is valence; happiness is valence positive and the remaining three (3) primary emotions valences negative.

Turner (2017), details differences of primary emotions in a system of first- order explanations of the primary emotions. Example, mixing two primary emotions like aversion-fear and satisfaction-happiness and aversion-fear brings about freedom and gratefulness. Second-order explanations of primary emotions are equally conceivable (for instance, a mixture of three (3) primary emotions such as anger, fear and sadness produce guilt, shame and alienation). Humans' primary emotions may be stimulated in changing stages of intensities such as low, medium and high states. Emotional intensity is defined as how intense an emotion is experienced by a person. For instance, the emotion of contentment can be regarded as a variant of happiness of low intensity, while joy is a variant of happiness of high intensity (Turner, 2017). This means that what reveals the intensity is the degree to which emotion is perceived and conveyed. Emotional reactions in this context can therefore be referred to as the expression of emotional states by teachers in inclusive schools which could be positive or negative.

## Teaching as an Emotional Practice

Emotional awareness is involved in teaching and learning. Teaching is a form of emotional work, and the emotions of teachers are inseparable from their moral goals and their ability to achieve those goals (Hargreaves, 2011, 2015, 2018). Teaching, in short, includes emotion. However, many teachers are unaware of their emotional awareness and the impact of emotional exchanges on daily practice and student learning, given the academic emphasis of the profession (Zembylas, 2014). Although research indicates that teaching is an emotional activity, teachers are not encouraged or trained to cope with emotional experiences in the workplace (Nias, 2012, p. 14). Teachers do not have specific instructions on how to cope with emotional exchanges and reactions in education, unlike other service areas (for example, nursing, hospitality, or sales) (Nias, 2012).

A study has revealed that (a) teaching involves affective domain and (b) teachers bring their feelings into school or college with them and have to learn to take this into account in their dealings with others” (pg.10) (Nias, 2012,). There is however, little evidence on how teachers can deal with emotional interactions on the job, specifically regarding the expected rules of emotional display that contribute to the achievement of organizational objectives. Qualitative research has attempted to define relational rules that aid teachers during emotional encounters with emotions that are an important part of the teaching profession (Zembylas, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2018).

Some of the emotional dynamics of teaching have been identified by case studies, such as the individualized ways in which teachers communicate during a crisis with students. For example, if a school had a fire outbreak, by

guiding students kindly to the nearest exit door, one teacher might display calmness. On the other hand, another teacher might show rage by shouting at students to quickly leave the building. These scenarios demonstrate the variability of the teacher's emotional display rules without specific guidelines on how to manage feelings at work. As an outcome, scholars have recognised that "emotional rules or emotional characteristics of teaching are more important for what they do rather than what they mean" (Zembylas, 2014, p. 199), arguing that the rules of emotions may help teachers to monitor how they respond to emotionally charged circumstances in schools.

The attention to this point has been mainly on how teaching involves emotional work and how emotional work affects the job performance of teachers; however, studies have recognized that emotions often strongly influence the professional identities of teachers. Some have claimed that feelings are at the epicentre of the work of teachers, arguing that the act of teaching requires teachers to fully understand and empathize with the emotions of students (O'Connor, 2018). O'Conner (2018) has chastised schools in particular for overlooking the intimate and individual essence of the teaching craft that contributes so strongly to the professional identities of teachers.

In addition, supporting the connection between teachers' emotions and professional identities, researchers have stated that, "emotional health is crucial to effective teaching over a career" (Day & Leitch, 2011, p. 403). The personal histories, social and political backgrounds and emotional interactions shape a teacher's professional identity (Day & Leitch, 2011). Therefore, in many aspects of the lives of teachers, including their everyday experiences,

professional identities and job performance, the emotional practices of teaching seem to play a role.

The link between emotion and teaching is complex and worthy of continued research. Building on the earlier work of Denzin (2019), teaching is an emotional activity. “As an emotional practice, teaching activates, colours, and expresses teachers’ own feelings and the actions in which those feelings are embedded (that is, teachers’ inner streams of experience)” (Hargreaves, 2011, p. 838). Therefore, some researchers argue that teaching, as an emotional activity, involves more than knowing one's emotions and acknowledging the feelings of others (that is, emotive work). In order to support the school's academic performance, teaching means modifying and controlling one's emotions. This suggests that emotional work is involved in teaching. Although the literature is scarce, the next section presents what causes the emotions of teachers to emerge.

### **The Expression of Teacher Emotions**

Hargreaves (2013) indicates, teachers’ emotions are inseparably connected with teachers’ work, progress, and identity and ways the emotions influence the life of teachers (Goldstein, Liston & Garrison, (2014).; Zembylas, 2015). In the words of Kelchtemans (2018), when teachers are questioned to know what they found satisfactory about teaching, they spoke about enthusiasm derived from relationship and interactions with students, establishment of emotional bonds with the students and the inquisitiveness to understand each child and their background.

In contrast, numerous teachers are not comfortable dealing with burnout facets of educating persons with special needs (Nichols & Tippins,

2014; Winograd, 2013). For instance, teachers could experience negative emotions like guilt, frustration, anxiety, anger, fear, embarrassment, and feelings of loneliness and powerlessness as an outcome of absence knowledge to deal with individuals with special needs (Zembylas & Barker, 2012); absence of emotionally favourable working environment and conditions (VanBalkom & Sherman, 2019) and classroom management problems (Winograd, 2013).

### **Concept of Burnout**

Burnout has been observed, consequential from inability to manage job-related burnout and linked with deteriorated social relations, long-term exhaustions and reduced interest in the profession (Maslach 1982; Ratliff 1998; Sacco 2011). Chang (2012) describes burnout as a sign of emotive destruction and disappearance of motivation and commitments. For example, if individuals claim they are experiencing burnout, they often refer to the experience of emotional exhaustion (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2012). Research conducted by Evers, Tomic, and Brouwers (2014) also refers to emotional exhaustion as feelings of being emotionally over-stretched and which depletes a person's emotional resources, whereas Schwarzer, Schmitz, and Tang (2019) define weakness, tiredness, weariness, and energy loss as characteristics of exhaustion.

Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, and Schwab (1981) consider the term “burnout” as comprising three components:

- Emotional exhaustion: This describes an instance by which a person's healthy psychological condition is overridden by intensive emotions.



- Reduced personal accomplishment: This explains a person's feeling of incompetence and inability to execute a particular task; and
- Depersonalisation: It is a process by which a person begins to hold strong negative views toward the occupation or profession.

It is shown in the literature that burnout has been extensively felt among professionals who provide social and human services, including teachers across all content areas (Jennett et al, 2013; Skaalvik & Skaalvik 2016). Emotional exhaustion is characterised by low energy and persistent fatigue, and is considered the main component of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 1996; Pines & Aronson, 1988). Burnout is also conceptualized as resulting from long term occupational burnout (Jennett et al., 2014). This is why it has been viewed as the extended reaction to continued experience to incessant burnout in a person that works with people (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

Burnout has been correlated with work dissatisfaction, substance misuse and neuroticism, and has been shown to predict poor leadership and a deep wish to leave the career (Guglielmi & Tatrow, 2017; Lazarus, 2006; Mirvis, Graney, Ingram, Tang, Kilpatrick, 2016).

### **Concept of Self-Efficacy**

Teachers' self-efficacy is built on the social cognitive theory in contemporary education (Bandura, 1977, 2006, 2010). Self-efficacy is a belief, as defined by Zimmerman and Cleary (2016), about what a person can do and how well he or she can do it. With this viewpoint, self-efficacy has been viewed as a multidimensional construct and as the most significant mechanism of human agency, the capacity to consciously affect one's functioning and life

circumstances (Bandura, 2006). Self-efficacy influences the understanding of environmental opportunities and impediments and thus affects the goals, values and overall behaviour of people (Schunk & Meece, 2019).

The self-confidence of teachers is not only an indicator of their ability and commitment to the work, but also linked to resilience and inspiration (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2012; Labone, 2014; Wheatley, 2015). Teachers have the endurance and enthusiasm to teach efficiently when their self-efficacy is high. This is very important for teachers in inclusive schools. Mojavezi and Tamiz (2012) also indicate that teachers' self-efficacy makes a positivity impact on children's enthusiasm and accomplishment. In this sense, teachers that have high-level of self-efficacy can assist exceptional children to be motivated enough to achieve excellence academically. Self-efficacy of teachers is therefore a significant variable in this study (Akbari & Allvar, 2014; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2016).

### **Sources of Teachers' Self-Efficacy**

The term "Self-efficacy" denotes confidence in a person's capabilities to accomplish desired results; it powerfully affects human behaviour, inspiration and eventually successes or failures of individuals (Bandura, 1997). Without self-efficacy, people do not expend effort in endeavours because they perceive their efforts will be futile. Guskey and Passaro (2014) defines the term "Teacher self-efficacy" as the teacher's perceived capability to impart knowledge and to influence student behaviour, even that of unmotivated and challenging students. Several empirical evidences support Bandura's (1977) theory that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are associated with the energy/effort they have invested in educating children, the goals they set,

their determination to achieve the goals even if things don't go smoothly and their resilience to achieve in the presence of impediments. Teachers' self-efficacy is connected to their conduct in the classroom and the implementation of instructional change (Ashton & Webb, 2011; Guskey, 2012; Haney, Wang, Keil, & Zoffel, 2017; Timperley & Phillips, 2013).

Self-efficacy belief influence thought patterns and emotions that permit goal-directed activities in circumstances where individuals believe that they could have some control. Self-efficacy is a future-oriented belief about the level of competence a person expects to display in a given situation. Given the central role of self-efficacy beliefs in understanding a person's behaviour, it is imperative to comprehend the formation of these opinions or beliefs. Bandura (1997) says, a teacher makes verdicts of his or her self-efficacy grounded on verbal encouragement of other people like colleagues, supervisors, and administrators (verbal persuasion) and the successes or failures of other colleague teachers that serve as models (vicarious experiences), the perceptions of previous experience of teaching (mastery experience) and the level of emotional and physiological stimulation experienced as a teacher anticipates and practices teaching.

These views are precise to a given teaching situation; hence, teachers form perceptions about their personal capability in light of the requirements of a specific teaching task (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk, Hoy and Hoy 2019). Self-efficacy affects the efforts and determination of teachers, which then influences their work and becomes a novel basis for efficacy information. Recurrent nature of behaviour influences self-efficacy, and therefore novel

behaviour forms a self-reinforced sequence of failure or success which becomes quite steady except a shaking experience provokes re-examination.

### **Verbal Persuasion**

Verbal persuasion includes oral contribution from other people like colleagues, administrators, supervisors and parents who help to reinforce a person's trust that he or she possesses the ability to accomplish a desired level of performance. It was suggested by Bandura (1997) that "it is easier to sustain a sense of efficacy, especially in times of difficulty, if significant others express faith in one's capabilities than if they convey doubts" (p.101). Spoken persuasion might be restricted in its authority to generate continuing increases in self-efficacy, however, it could reinforce self-changes when the positive assessments promote more effort in the growth of skills that afterward lead to strong sense of efficacy. In school, the teacher often receives verbal persuasion from the parents of the children they teach in inclusive settings. Teachers may also receive oral persuasions in the form of a particular response from supervisors or colleagues intended to persuade teachers that they could successfully adopt novel teaching strategies to help exceptional children to optimize their potentials.

Verbal persuasion only cannot be an influential foundation of "self-efficacy" when assisting other people to develop a great sense of self-efficacy. This is because as suggested by Bandura (1977), verbal persuasion is easier to achieve but not as enduring or effective as providing opportunities with gradual increases of challenge and risk. Unsuitable, unnecessary, or insincere admiration may be useless or harmful to the teacher's intrinsic motivation and performance progress (Dweck, 2019). Commendation or praise could become

meaningful and supportive if it is balanced, specific, genuine, and actually follows a performance that is truly praiseworthy (Pitts, Davidson, & McPherson, 2018). Nevertheless, in partnership with other sources of efficacy, it might offer teachers the needed inspiration to expend effort towards realistic goal aimed at reinforcing their teaching skills.

### **Vicarious Experience**

A second source of self-efficacy is the observations of other individuals effectively execute actions that a person is contemplating. Because teaching lacks complete measure of adequacy, teachers have to evaluate their abilities in relation to other people's performances (Bandura, 1997). The observer has the opportunity to evaluate and judge his or her abilities. This is because the model offers a standard and can assist the observer set their own goals for teaching. The higher the presumed similarity among the observer and the model, the more convincing would be the belief that an individual possesses the competences to master similar activities. When an observer observes a positive teaching exchange, she/he is more likely to view the teaching job as manageable. Similarly, if the teaching models flop in spite of much energy invested, the observer might evaluate the teaching job to be out of reach. Teachers that educate exceptional children vigorously search for capable models that show the capabilities to which they desire. Competent models transmit knowledge and educate observers on effective skills and approaches to manage tasks demanded through their behaviour and to reveal their thinking about the task at hand.

## Mastery Experiences

The dominant source of efficacy information is personal mastery of skills since it offers utmost reliable indications of whether an individual could master whatsoever it takes to thrive in a specific endeavour or field (Bandura, 1997). The most dependable sources of efficacy information are classically achievements that people experience themselves, for which they have “tangible” evidence of success (Bandura, 1997; Schunk & Usher, 2012). In the words of Bandura (1997), every accomplishment builds confidence, and, not surprisingly, every disappointment or failure weakens this self-assurance. Accomplishments build a robust belief in a person’s efficacy, particularly when accomplishment is attained at initial stage in learning with limited impediments. Self-efficacy opinions or beliefs might be reduced when achievement is attained via widespread external support, after a substantial effort of a duty which is perceived as insignificant or easy.

Disappointments which could not be ascribed to lack of effort or to external events are possible to have a harmful consequence on self-efficacy beliefs. This has significant consequences for professional development of teachers. Teacher self-efficacy is a dynamic concept which has been recurring in nature (Schunk & Usher, 2012). The expertise of performances generates a novel mastery experiences which serve as a novel source of self-efficacy that either confirms or disrupts prevailing self-efficacy beliefs. Over time, the procedure settles and a comparatively continuing set of efficacy beliefs are established that tend to be resistant to change (Bandura, 1997). Since efficacy beliefs progress as habits, teachers who teach exceptional children could be assisted to develop mastery over-time through supporting the children to

prepare and perform progressively thought-provoking duties in the inclusive classrooms. This may involve guiding the children towards self-initiated and self-regulative activities which develop individuality, academic self-confidence and assist teachers feel a sense of authority over teaching (Zimmerman & Bandura, 2014).

In Csikszentmihalyi's (2012) Flow Theory, a person needs increasing levels of challenges so as to retain an optimal flow state; people sense gratification and get to the highest performance when their level of skill matches the level of challenge at hand. When the challenge is more than the skill level, the person experiences anxiety. Whereas when the level of skill is more than the level of challenge or trial, the person experiences boredom. An idea regularly ignored in the flow theory, however, has been the potential difference between perceptions of ability and actual ability. The teacher may have the required experience and skill to encounter the challenges, but when the skill is underrated, anxiety emerges as an outcome. This idea demonstrates the significance of teacher consciousness of their own self-efficacy in order to inspire themselves in realizing their full mastery potentials.

### **Physiological and Affective States**

According to Bandura (1997), persons depend partially on information transmitted by physiological and emotive condition when judging their own competences. An individual's level of stimulation either perceived positively as anticipation or negatively as anxiety, could impact her/his self-efficacy beliefs. Perceptions of ability are prejudiced by our consciousness of the body's physical and emotional reactions to certain situations (Bandura, 1997). The experiences of strength versus strain, relaxation versus burnout, energy

versus fatigue, or elation versus depression can leave a teacher with a high or low perception respectively, of the ability to persist in a task (Schunk & Usher, 2012). Self-efficacy viewpoint may be improved by the development of physical strength, reduction of burnout, growth of positive thought pattern, and improved mental interpretation of bodily states (Cioffi, 2014).

Bandura (1997) is of the view that, physiological conditions are particularly powerful in tasks that require physical strength and endurance or stamina. This may be specifically significant to reflect in teaching conditions in which teachers are mandated to teach for extended periods. Teaching in inclusive classrooms has been found to be a burnout activity because of the combination of exceptional and non-exceptional children in the same classroom (Cioffi, 2014). The anxiety to do well in an inclusive classroom can be challenging. Unease or anxiety gives birth to a lower sense of self-efficacy; yet, self-efficacy can equally be developed so as to decrease fear and anxiety about certain circumstances (Bandura, 1977). Whereas it may be easy to delineate the four (4) bases of “self-efficacy” into separate groups for a hypothetical discussion such as this, it is imperative to note that in practical sense, the bases or sources are mutually affected by one another and by other contextual and demographic variables as well.

### **Coping Mechanisms**

The term “coping” is described as a cognitive and problem-solving behaviour that individuals use to tolerate, minimise, or eliminate burnout (Lazarus & Folkman, 2014). It is a multifaceted interaction of opinions and behaviours. Coping permits people to control and reduce the undesirable consequences of a burnout situation. Coping resources could be derived from



both the person and the environment. They refer to those reserves an individual has, that he/she draws upon to cope with stress and negative events. When coping with resources no matter the type is adequately matched to the burnout, outcomes are successfully controlled (Darling-Hammond, Ross & Milliken, 2017). If, however, stressors exceed available resources, the aforementioned manifestations of burnouts can be observed. Coping strategies, on the other hand, refer to the behaviours/efforts that are put forth to combat the burnout (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 2011; Lazarus & Folkman, 2014).

Religion/spirituality for example, is one of the commonest managing resources. However, the actual managing strategy utilised would be prayer or meditation trusting that a greater power is in control. Although study concerning the identification of main burnouts for hospice nurses is in abundance, very few studies have examined the primary methods of coping for teachers teaching in inclusive schools.

Managing/coping is a vital aspect in understanding workplace burnout (Lazarus, 2016) and the consequential effects it can have on employees. Utilising suitable coping strategies can have an impact on the result of a perceived burnout event. These results can have important consequences for the development of effective organisational intervention intended to fight teaching related burnout.

The perceived amount of authority that one has over the incident itself as well as the possible resource to cope with the event/incident is assessed. It is up to the teacher now to adopt which of the resources to fall upon as well as the coping strategy to manage the burnout incident. Researchers agree that coping mechanisms can largely be put into two broad groups; problem-

focused coping and emotional-focused coping (Gold & Thornton, 2011; Payne, 2011; Yancik, 2014). Problem-focused coping seeks to change the burnout event, whereas emotional-focused coping is directed at changing the way one perceives the burnout situation.

Another significant difference predominant in the coping literature is active versus avoidant coping (Carver et al., 2013). Active coping includes exercising efforts of some kind to remove or minimise burnout incidents. In active coping, individuals recognise the stressor and take calculable steps to solve the matter prevailing. On the contrary, avoidant coping depends on disengagement or denial. This type of coping results in dismissal or an attempt to suppress the challenge. Studies suggest that problem-focused coping and active coping are regularly connected with positive results (Carver et al., 2011; Cohen, 2014; Holahan & Moos, 2012; Pina, Villalta, Ortiz, Gottschall, Costa & Weems, 2018). These universal coping styles (problem and emotion-focused vs. active and avoidant) have definite approaches that overlap each other. Eventually, the preferred coping mechanism relies on the individual, his/her resources and the kind of stressor. It is also not uncommon to combine these strategies/mechanisms to be used for any given stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 2014).

The current study would look at what coping mechanisms teachers adopt when they experience burnout in teaching exceptional children in inclusive schools. I expect teachers to adopt active coping and problem-focused coping mechanisms in dealing with their burnout since active coping and problem-focused coping are associated with positive outcomes.

## **Inclusive Education**

All children succeed in classroom environs which permit them to develop their abilities and skills (Soodak, 2015). Inclusive classrooms are impartial classrooms where children are accepted for who they are and their individual needs are met (Jordan, Schwartz & McGhie-Richmond, 2019). Children are not treated equally rather, the need and interest of every individual child is met, giving the children the required tools, conditions and support to attain successes and reach their potentials (Schwartz & Pollishuke, 2013).

Soodak (2015) shows, inclusion is not just about children placement, but rather it is focused more on creating an environment that supports and includes all learners. It is concerned with how the child is accepted in the classroom, the child's participation, and the educational and social success of children (Brown, Fortain, & Von der Embse, 2011). An inclusive school community must, however be supported by policy and practice at the classroom level as well as the school level (Jordan, Schwartz & McGhie, 2019).

According to Göransson and Nilholm (2014), there are four (4) distinct ways of understanding the term "inclusion:" They are:

- a. Placement definitions that describe inclusion as the placement of pupils with disabilities or pupils in need of special support in regular classrooms.
- b. Specified individualised definitions that explain inclusion as meeting the social and academic needs of pupils with disabilities or those of pupils in need of special support.

- c. General individualised definitions that view inclusion as meeting the academic and social needs of all pupils.
- d. Community-based definitions that describe inclusion as the creation of communities with specific characteristics.

Katz and Galbraith (2016) indicates, inclusive classrooms are beneficial for children in that it provides opportunities for developing children without exceptionalities and those with exceptionalities in developing desirable societal relations with one another. Odom, Buysse, and Soukakou (2011) also note that exceptional children take part in social interactions more with their peers and show more advanced form of performance if they mix with typically-developing children in the same classrooms compared to separated classrooms. Furthermore, it is again thought that “inclusive classrooms” provide children with a “sense of belonging to a community of learners where their ability to achieve their full potential is not limited by societal barrier that might stifle growth” (Schwartz & Pollishuke, 2013, p.27).

In spite of the obvious benefits associated with inclusive education, there have been some recognisable criticisms against this phenomenon. For instance, parents of children have contradictory experiences with inclusive education and have no positive experience about inclusive education (Rogers, 2017). Rogers adds saying, the older the exceptional children, the less likely placing them in a general education classroom would be beneficial to the child. Teachers may be required to do more to ensure that there is success. Therefore, though the idea behind inclusive education might receive some kind of support and encouragement, the solitary way its success can be

determined is to make sure that teachers are equipped to teach children with varied range of abilities in regular classrooms.

### **Empirical Review**

In this section, empirical studies related to the study are reviewed. The review is done according to the main objectives of the study.

### **Emotional Reactions of Teachers in Inclusive Schools**

Emotional reactions of a teacher in an inclusive school, even though not commonly studied, have been researched in some societies. Ringer (2017) evaluated correlation among perceived burnout factors, time management, work-related stressors, professional burnout, discipline and motivation, professional investment, emotional manifestations, fatigue manifestations, and perceived teacher self-efficacy with special and general education teachers. This was investigated with students in teacher education programmes at a local university in the South-Western United States. Two surveys were combined to prepare the questionnaire used in the study. These were Generalized Self-Efficacy, Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1999) and the Teacher Burnout Inventory (Fimian, 1984). The findings indicated the relationship among perceived teacher burnout and perceived teachers self-efficacy, and how they affect a teacher. Negative emotions were related to burnout and self-efficacy of teachers. The results from Ringer's investigation provide the starting point for further studies to find out why attrition of teachers occurs.

Berry (2011) sought to investigate a diversity of teachers' belief variable and job characteristics for the understanding of the phenomenon of emotional reaction that special educators experience. The findings revealed

that 43% of the variability in the level of burnout that special educators report could be ascribed to differences in the levels of outcome efficacy, the amount of experience in teaching special education, levels of self-efficacy, and the level of perceived agreement with families about their job responsibilities. These results showed that rates of burnout and attrition among special education teachers may be reduced by clarifying job expectations to increase teacher perception of agreement with others and their efficacy beliefs.

Chang (2012), also analysed teacher emotions in the sense of teacher evaluations and the ways in which they manage and deal with their emotion. . This was done by exploring novice teachers' appraisals of classroom disruptive behaviour situations and by investigating the adaptive coping and emotion regulation strategies that ease teacher burnout. The appraisal theory was the fundamental framework of this research. This was an on-line study that gathered data from 555 inexperienced teachers in Ohio. The survey contains two elements so as to analyse the past history of teachers' emotions and the teachers' coping mechanisms. These were general and context-specific measures. General measures were designed to capture teachers' sense of efficacy, emotion regulation patterns and teacher burnout. In the context-specific measure, the participants self-identified and described a recent classroom incident in which they felt emotionally challenged. After describing the incident, participants responded to the survey items to identify the intensity of the discrete emotions, their emotional appraisal and coping strategies to the incident.

The data were analysed by employing structural equation modelling (SEM, a method to build a model in explaining and exploring relations

between variables). A strong correlation between the assessment teachers made about the incident and the intensity of discrete emotions was found in the study. Moreover, the more extreme the discrete emotions (for example, rage, annoyance, disappointment, and challenge), the more likely teachers would ultimately feel burnt out. Emotion regulation by suppression was found to contribute to teacher burnout. Finally, teacher efficacy and problem-focused coping mechanisms were shown to be effective in alleviating burnout.

Hastings and Bham (2013) examined correlation between teacher burnout and student misbehaviour. The researchers tried to authenticate the Pupil Behaviour Patterns Scale (PBPS) instrument as well as the relationships among student behaviour, the domains of teacher burnout, and demographic and work variables. The sample used for the research was 100 primary-school general education teachers that were employed from 33 schools. Their average age was 35.9 years, with an average of 110 months of work experience. Extra demographic information revealed that teachers also executed other tasks in their school such as school management, sports coaching, and coordination of special education needs. There was no information of other facts such as class size or demographic composition of the student body (for example, socio-economic status) was involved. The data were gathered using three (3) research instruments; Pupil Behaviour Patterns Scale (PBPS), Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), and a demographic questionnaire.

Using the MBI, three components of burnout were measured: mental fatigue, depersonalisation, and personal achievement. In order to learn if the research sample had relatively high or low burnout levels, Hastings and Brown (2012) compared the level of burnout of their sample with the MBI norming

population and a sample of special education teachers from an earlier study (Hastings & Brown, 2012) to learn whether the study sample had relatively high or low levels of burnout. Four demographic and work variables were measured: gender, age, experience, and additional responsibilities of teachers. Hastings and Bahm (2013) pointed to evidence that supported the previous work on validating the PBSPP in this multi-step phase (Friedman, 2015).

The researchers proposed that teachers frequently used emotion-forced techniques rather than evidence-based strategies to cope with students. The researchers argued that teacher efficacy be enhanced during training rather than in the workplace. Again, enhancing social support by school administrators has been proposed to help reduce burnout for teachers coping with extreme behaviour.

In yet another study, Hargreaves (2011) interviewed thirty-two (32) Junior High School teachers concerning their views on the curriculum and assessment reforms of Canadian school system. The interviews revealed all facets of training which includes relating with students, how to handle pedagogy and curriculum, planning of lessons and execution of lessons involved emotional experiences.

Teaching likewise involves feelings of dissatisfaction, burnout, guilt, and also fear and anger. Nevertheless, little attention has been paid to the negative emotional stimulation of teachers in the study conducted by Kelchtermans (2018). Kelchtermans contended that defencelessness in the teaching profession has an impact on job satisfaction of teachers likewise the worth and quality of their professional performance. Research into the professional biographies of primary school teachers has indicated that the



feeling of helplessness could be caused by a variability of sources, like; the teachers' struggle to impact one students' learning in the classroom; dealing with school administrators, colleagues, parents and policies of education.

Day and Leitch (2011), provided many narrative accounts of the negative experiences of teachers. They pointed out saying; behaviour of teachers in their classes is affected by the emotional self of teachers. Moreover, the wish of teachers for their role and empathy for children affected their emotional arousal in response to interactions and events that unfolded in school. For example, in Day and Leitch's investigation, a teacher recounted an event whereby a child reported, saying her father had beaten her. The teacher was emotionally drained by this news and the teacher collaborated with the relevant organization to assist the student. School reforms have been revealed to induce unpleasant emotions from teachers (Day & Leitch, 2011; Zembylas & Barker, 2017).

Several other studies reported that it is the social and emotional ability of teachers that make educators accessible and have positive regard for students including warmth and respect (Jennings & Greenberg, 2019; Wilson, Pianta, & Stuhlman, 2017). When taught by such enthusiastic teachers, students are more probable to gain better studying experiences. For example, during mathematics lessons, study questionnaires given to 71 teachers and over 1000 students across Germany to explore the relationship between teacher enjoyment and student enjoyment revealed that there was a positive correlation between teacher enjoyment and student enjoyment (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton, 2019). This relationship was mediated by displays of teachers' passion and interest in the course of teaching.

Moreover, teachers who experience much optimistic feelings like interest, happiness, pride and love improves the thinking capability of students (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2015), that is, “more thoughts and actions come to mind” (Fredrickson, 2011, p. 338). For instance, Fredrickson (2011) found out that more ideas were generated by teachers who watched brief movies provoked positive emotions compared to teachers who watched brief movies that aroused negative emotions. This means teachers who experience much optimistic emotions may develop improved techniques for teaching; they may also develop “broad-minded coping” abilities that can help them manage difficulties (p. 223). These processes can improve the competency level of teachers in their classroom experiences (Sutton & Wheatley, 2016).

An emotionally conscious teacher who knows his or her own feelings and the feelings of the students can minimize undesirable emotional outcomes. Emotionally capable teachers should be able to analyse the emotional challenges that normally causes disruptive and challenging behaviour of the students (Jennings & Greenberg, 2019). In the three-year ethnographic analysis of Zembylas (2018), the teacher participants explained in what way Catherine (a pseudonym) had to prevail over negative emotional experiences encountered by the students through emotional displays and modelling enthusiasm about science activities by establishing a supportive classroom environment.

The Department of Education and Skills (DfES) in the United Kingdom conducted a study about students’ and teachers’ emotional and social competence and well-being. The study found that practitioners cannot spread emotional and social competence and well-being effectively if their

own emotional and social needs are not met (Weare & Gray, 2013). The research again evidenced that “only a small number of teachers appear to be in favour of work to promote emotional wellbeing and that the majority are reluctant to get involved, in part because they are not trained in how to do it” (p. 74). The study also recommended that DfES explore the possibility of developing work on teachers’ emotional and social competence and comfort, both for schools and for teacher education institutes. The research indicated the need for teacher education programmes and schools needed to discuss emotions in more clear ways in education.

Winograd (2015), a senior university lecturer, conducted a self-study of his homecoming to the classroom during his year-long sabbatical leave, in comparison to research using interviews and questionnaires. He kept a journal to capture a subjective account of his emotive experiences as the lesson unfolded in the classroom. In this report, he sometimes expressed his remorse and anger for not doing justice to his teaching. He equated himself with an inexperienced instructor and in his position as a teacher, reported feeling inadequate. Winograd would have different expectations than novice teachers on his return to teaching. (Winograd, 2015). Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, & Oort, (2011) examined more specifically the effects of the emotional aspects of the teacher - student relationship. Student engagement and learning outcomes were found to be associated with emotional aspects of the interpersonal relationship whereby engagement showed a moderating effect. When there is a positive emotional relationship between the teacher and his or her students, this is reflected in higher student engagement, task persistence and better use

of study strategies, which together increase the possibility of better achievement.

Roorda et al (2011) found evidence that not only in early childhood but also later, emotional relationships in the classroom are correlated with school achievement all the way to late adolescence. Strong correlations for at-risk students (students with learning problems, low socio-economic status or ethnic minority students) were also seen in the meta-analysis, for whom the emotional quality of the teacher-student relationship was more influential than for other students.

Taken together, a positive emotional environment is affected greatly by the level of learning and achievement. Of course, it is not the only impact as it operates in combination with other factors on the teacher's side (quality of teaching material, support for student autonomy, support system, etc.), as well as the student (intelligence, learning strategies, self-image, and many others) and the larger learning and teaching context.

Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, and Sutton (2019), in an extensive German longitudinal study, explored the relationship between the enjoyment of mathematics classes by teachers and students, collecting data from 1,763 students from 71 classrooms and 71 teachers. The data was collected through self-report questionnaires designed to assess the enjoyment of teachers and students and the enjoyment of teachers as perceived by their students. Multivariate data analysis (multilevel structural equation modelling) showed that the enjoyment of teachers in a mathematics class is positively associated with the enjoyment of students even when controlled for the last year's student level of enjoyment. The findings indicate that teachers' enjoyment of class

influenced the perceived enjoyment of teachers by students, which in turn increased the enjoyment of mathematics class by the students themselves. The authors suggested an indirect relationship between teacher and student enjoyment, mediated by perceived teacher enjoyment; thus, the enjoyment of the students will be influenced when teachers enjoy a class. The purpose of teaching is not to make students happy, however, optimal conditions are created for overcoming difficulties and achieving learning goals in classes where there is a positive emotional climate.

This is in line with the hypothesis of the theory of positive emotions “broaden-and-build” (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2015), which explores the optimal role of a positive emotional experience in achieving life goals. Similar results on the emotional transfer between students and teachers were shown by Becker et al. (2014), who explored the correlation between the students’ perceptions of teachers’ emotional experience and their teaching behaviour, and the emotions of students themselves. An experience sampling method (as mentioned in the first chapter) was used to collect the data.

The authors found statistically important correlations between perceived teachers’ emotions and students’ own emotions of joy, anger and anxiety. Even when the mediating influence of the educational actions of teachers (for example, thorough teaching, and importance of subject matter) was controlled, the correlations were statistically significant. This means that the emotional transfer is both indirect through the teaching methods direct as a kind of emotional contagion.

Anaglooso (2018) found in Benin City, Nigeria, that teachers in public schools exhibited poor emotional reactions towards the disruptive behaviours

of their students. He observed that most teachers used insults and other forms of punishment which as investigated were rated as abusive towards the students. He indicated that in one school, a teacher was found to have slapped a pupil for refusing to answer his question in class.

Similarly, Onwegbu and Enwuezor (2017) in a study to investigate teachers' responsiveness towards inclusive education in Jos, Nigeria, realised that 71% out of the 270 teachers in inclusive schools had negative emotional reactions towards their students. Onwegbu and Enwuezor conjectured that some of the students had cases of exceptionalities which require tact to handle.

In yet another study, Williams (2017) found in Gold Coast, Australia, that there is positive correlation between pre-service teachers' emotional reactions and burnout they go through in their classrooms. Their study indicated that although pre-service teachers' have been taught how to depict positive emotional reactions in their classroom, 91% out of the 250 studies exhibited negative emotional reactions. This was also found to have correlated positively with their burnout levels.

Berger (2018) also found in his study in Aachen, Germany, a strong inverse correlation between teachers' emotional reactions and their burnout. He explains that as teachers react in an emotionally negative manner towards their students then the teachers' burnout level decreases.

Van de Berg (2017) found that the emotional reactions of teachers affected how they dealt with students with disabilities and their associates. In an exploratory mixed method approach to investigate teacher competencies in inclusive education, some of the teachers said that their emotional reactions

have affected their dealings with students with disabilities and in most cases their parents.

In a similar study by Osmonova (2015) in Tokmok, Kyrgyzstan, teachers were found to have their challenges correlate inversely with their emotional reactions. Some of the respondents expressed that they easily got angry when some of their students took too much time to complete a lesson with other learners in lessons the teachers teach in class. Some of the teachers said they refuse to laugh or smile to their students when they were supposed to.

In contrast to the aforementioned investigations, Smith (2016) revealed in his study that educators in Plymouth, England, showed positive emotional reaction in inclusive schools. He stated that teachers indicated that they were better placed to handle students' challenges and that was among some of the reasons they showed positive emotions. Out of the 110 teachers studied, 92% showed positive emotional reactions in inclusive classrooms.

These studies of teacher emotional reactions highlight the important role that emotion plays in the classroom and in teacher-student relations. However, most of these studies were not conducted in Ghana even though schools in Ghana are inclusive. Overall, it was realised that the emotional dispositions and reactions of teachers in inclusive schools in Ghana have been inadequately researched even though Ghana began inclusive programme in 2003. Ghana is old enough in the program but no study has yet been focused on emotional reactions of teachers in the inclusive schools. The present study addresses the emotional reactions of teachers in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana.

## **Burnout of Teachers in Inclusive Schools**

The level of burnout experienced by teachers who teach exceptional children has been researched by several authors. Boomgard (2013) examined how special and general education teachers' perceived self-efficacy and burnout as a result of facilitated discussion and self-reflection embedded in an online learning environment. This mixed-method study design explored the perceptions of self-efficacy and burnout of teachers as a result of online course participation to discuss the competences of the California Added Autism Authorisation Certificate.

To address the quantitative portions of the study at the beginning and the end of the course, the teachers' perceived self-efficacy was assessed using the Teacher Self-Efficacy whereas burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey. Data from transcripts of the responses of 25 participants in facilitated online dialogue and self-reflection exercises served as the basis to investigate qualitative results. Further support for perceived disparities in self-efficacy as well as burnout outcomes, was provided by a follow-up focus group of seven teacher volunteers.

The findings showed statistically significant changes in the perceived self-efficacy of teachers from the start to the end of a 16-week course. Based on the review of findings from survey data from the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey, variations in teacher perceptions of burnout were not found to be statistically significant. Four themes were revealed through qualitative analysis. These were preparedness, confidence to implement strategies, community of support and burnout in addition to core ideas from the focus-group discussion.



Buonomo, Fiorilli and Benevene (2019) sought to identify the profiles of different teachers based on their levels of burnout and attitudes towards work (that is, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, attitudes toward professional growth, collective efficacy, positive and negative emotions, and hedonic balance). The participants were 266 school teachers (F=69.1%) ranging from 26 to 65 years old (M=48.95; SD=8.31), with teaching experience ranging from 1 to 41 years (M=21.72; SD=10.36). Three self-report questionnaires were used to gather the data. These were the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory, Attitudes towards Job Questionnaires and School Collective Efficacy. Two separate teacher profiles named “at-risk” and “non-risk” teachers were shown in the cluster analysis approach. The main differences were due to levels of burnout, employment attitudes, and extra-mansions at work. There were no differences found relating to the socio-demographic characteristics of teachers and their years of experience.

Sarıçam and Sakız (2014) also examined connection between teachers’ self-efficacy and burnout amongst special school educators in Turkey. Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale and the Maslach Burnout Inventory were completed by one hundred and eighteen teachers. These teachers belonged to the psychological counselling and guidance programme, primary education, special education programmes, programme in education of students with mental impairment, programme in education of students with hearing impairment, programme in education of students with visual impairment, music education and art education.

The findings indicated a significant correlation between teacher’s self-efficacy and burnout. In relation to teachers' self-efficacy and burnout, the

investigation also indicated a significant difference between gender and branches. Results from the structural-equation model showed that exhaustion/burnout is strongly predicted by the self-efficacy of the individual. These findings highlight the importance of self-efficacy beliefs in special education staff's level of emotional involvement, sense of accomplishment and engagement.

Furthermore, Evers, Brouwers and Tomic (2014) focused on the inception of burnout among teachers in The Netherlands that currently adopted instructional practices. Hypotheses were tested on the degree to which teachers had a negative attitude towards the new instructional practices related positively to their level of burnout and that their self-efficacy beliefs related negatively to their level of burnout in terms of enforcing the practices and dealing with burnout involved in this. This study involved a random sample of 490 teachers working in the Study-home system. To gather data, three questionnaires were used. In order to determine the burnout level of the teachers, the Dutch version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory for teachers (Schaufeli & Van Horn, 2015) was used. A specially designed questionnaire on self-efficacy in the fields of: (1) guiding groups of students using the principles of differentiation (2) involving pupils with task and (3) use of innovative educational practices was used. Finally, a questionnaire on the attitudes of teachers about the usefulness and effectiveness of the Study-utility home as an educational innovation was established.

In the Evers, Brouwers, and Tomic (2012) study, Regression analysis showed that the beliefs of self-efficacy for each of the three domains were significantly and negatively related to the dimensions of depersonalisation and

emotional fatigue of burnout and significantly positively related to the dimension of personal achievement. In addition, the more pessimistic the attitudes of the teachers towards the study-home seemed to be, the more depersonalization and emotional fatigue they seemed to experience and the lower they scored on the personal achievement dimension of burnout. The findings of the study showed that the views of teachers about self-efficacy are related to their level of burnout. Teachers with deep beliefs in self-efficacy tend to be more prepared to experiment with new educational practices and even to adopt them later.

Further, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2016) examined how seven potentially burnout school background variables (potential stressors) predicted the experiences of teacher self-efficacy, emotional burnout, emotional fatigue, engagement in teaching and motivation to leave the teaching profession for senior high school teachers. The research included a total of 523 Norwegian teachers in senior high school. Four of the possible burnouts were significant, but related differently to self-efficacy and emotional burnout and indirectly to emotional exhaustion, engagement and motivation to leave the profession. The study shows that different potential burnouts predict emotional exhaustion, engagement and motivation through various psychological mechanisms. SEM-analysis revealed two key routes to the motivation of teachers to leave the profession: 1) one path from time pressure through emotional burnout and exhaustion to motivation to quit and 2) another path from lack of supervisory support and trust, low motivation of students and conflicts of value through lower self-efficacy and lower commitment to motivation to quit.

Again, the correlation between two main factors of parental burnout of mothers of children with disabilities was studied in a population of 69 women by Kwiatkowski (2017). Exhaustion and helplessness - the new instrument's two subscales: Parental Burnout Measure-12 - showed a declining association between coherence and personal resilience. Multiple regression analysis showed coherence as being more predicative of exhaustion, whereas helplessness was predicted by personal resilience. No association between socio-demographic factors or the type of impairment (Autism Spectrum Disorder versus Cerebral Palsy) and the degree of parental burnout was established in the study. The findings can be seen as important in the design of actions that would support the activities of mothers in the rehabilitation of their children.

Meyer (2017) carried out a study in Lugano, Switzerland, and revealed that self-efficacy correlated negatively with the burnout of final year students of the Franklin University. She explained that as self-efficacy of students' increases, their burnout decreases.

Kowalski (2018) also found an inverse relationship between the burnout and the teachers' self-efficacy. This had been made known in a study he conducted on 300 teachers in Gdynia, Poland. His study revealed a strong inverse relationship among the two constructs ( $r = -0.736$ ;  $n = 300$ ;  $p > 0.01$ ).

It must be stated that in South Africa, Chen and Ma (2017), found a direct relationship between negative emotional reactions of teachers and their classroom burnout. They indicated that as teachers reacted negatively to problem behaviours of students, then the teachers' burnout were found to

increase in level. They made this known in an ex-post-facto study to ascertain the impact of “Planned ignoring” and “Premack’s principle” in managing.

These studies of teacher emotional reactions highlight the significant role that emotions play in the classroom and in student-teacher interactions. Also, most of the studies looked at burnout and self-efficacy. Thirdly, it appears that the respondents of the studies in the literature constituted special educators, senior high teachers and mothers. Nevertheless, the current study adds to the scanty work on burnout of special educators in inclusion schools in Ghana. The research again looked at how emotional reactions affect burnout of teachers in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana. Further, the research elicited responses from teachers in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana. This is important as the success of the curriculum in inclusive schools depends on teachers (Okello & Kagoire, 2012). Therefore, the role of teachers in inclusive education is extremely crucial.

### **Teachers’ Self-Efficacy in Inclusive Schools**

The self-efficacy of teachers in inclusive schools has been the subject of research in many contexts. Boujut, Popa-Roch Palomares, Dean, and Cappe (2017) aimed to examine the mediating effect on the perception of burnout and the coping strategies on the relationship between perceived self-efficacy and burnout. Four self-report questionnaires assessing perceived self-efficacy, perceived burnout, coping strategies and burnout were answered by a sample size of 203 teachers of students with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). Using the boot strap process, a multiple mediation analysis was employed. The indirect effects through transactional procedures were important after the direct impact of perceived self-efficacy on burnout was

managed. The lower the teacher's feelings of self-efficacy, the more they implemented emotion-focused coping strategies, which predict higher burnout in all three of its dimensions. Moreover, the lower the teacher's feeling of self-efficacy, the more they regarded the burnout situation in question as a danger or loss, perceptions that create more emotional exhaustion. Conclusion: These results enable us to formulate some ideas to enhance both the wellbeing of teachers working with students with ASD and the management of such students, and thus their learning abilities and welfare in school.

Klassen and Chiu (2014) conducted a study on relationships between teachers' years of experience, teacher characteristics (gender and teaching level), three self-efficacy areas (instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement), two forms of job burnout (workload and classroom burnout) and that of job satisfaction. Using factor analysis, item-response modelling, systems of equation and a structural equation model, they used a sample of 1,430 practicing teachers. Teachers with higher workload burnout had higher self-efficacy in classroom management, while teachers with higher burnout in the classroom had lower self-efficacy and lower job satisfaction. There were higher levels of self-efficacy for classroom management and student engagement among the respondents teaching young children (in elementary grades and kindergarten). Lastly, teachers with greater self-efficacy in classroom management or greater self-efficacy in instructional methods had greater job satisfaction.

A literature review of the predictors and consequences of teacher self-efficacy in the setting of inclusive education was conducted by Kristiana (2018). The research included searching for literature using online databases,

including ERIC, ProQuest and Science Direct. The keywords used in the quest were (“SEN” OR “inclusion”) AND (“antecedent OR consequence”) AND self-efficacy of the teacher. Through a series of screening steps based on existing inclusion and exclusion criteria, a total of 33 papers (N = 3472) were reviewed. The results showed that the self-efficacy predictors of teachers came from internal (for example, expertise, personality profiles, disability interaction experience, teaching experience, training experience) or external or situational predictors (for example. school climate). Self-efficacy of teachers has an effect on inclusion attitudes and behaviours, work attitude (e.g burnout, job satisfaction), mutual self-efficacy and student-related decision-making (referral bias). Contradictory research findings and limited research on the effect of teacher self-efficacy on the growth or achievement of students with special needs have been found to be findings that are also suggested for further research, especially in Indonesia.

Özokcu (2017), examined the correlation between the principles of self-efficacy of teachers and the efficacy for inclusion education. A total of 1204 teachers from preschool, classroom, subject matter and special education departments from schools in four separate geographical regions of Turkey were included in the study participants. The Teacher Sense of Efficacy (TSE) Scale and the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusion Activities (TEI) Scale were used to gather data. The findings showed a substantial relationship between the beliefs of self-efficacy of the teachers and efficacy for inclusion.

Guidetti, Viotti, Bruno, and Converso (2018), examined what mechanism job capability was connected with individual and collective efficacies, sampling primary and middle school teachers. Utilizing a data-set

comprising 415 middle and primary school Italian teachers, the analysis tested for the mediating role of self-efficacy between collective efficacy and job capability. Mediational analysis highlighted that self-efficacy of teachers completely mediated the correlation between collective efficacy and perceived work ability. The implication is that teachers' self-efficacy influenced the degree to which teachers are effective in teaching.

A quantitative correlation study was conducted by Carswell (2018), which attempted to establish the correlation between self-efficacy of teachers and job satisfaction. In the research, teachers from a Title one school in the largest school districts in a southern state had been measured through hard copy. The Tschannen-Moran tool, Teachers' Sense of Effectiveness Scale (2013), was employed to define three (3) sub-scales: student engagement, instructional strategies and management of the classroom. By analysing nine subscales, the Job Satisfaction Survey gathered the general satisfaction of participants in one specific satisfaction score. Carswell revealed that it would be helpful for resource managers and principals to find a positive relationship between job satisfaction and self-efficacy as they seek to minimize teacher turnover and improve resilience in the field.

Lopez (2018) also explored how teachers' intent to quit was linked to teacher job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and mutual efficacy. The theoretical foundations for this research were established by Locke's concept of work satisfaction and Bandura's theory of self-efficacy and mutual effectiveness. Research questions addressed the extent of the relationship between three (3) independent variables: teacher job satisfaction, self-efficacy and collective efficacy with a single dependent variable, teacher intent-to-leave. The Job



Satisfaction Survey, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, Collective Efficacy Scale and Intent-to-Leave Questionnaire were used to collect quantitative data in this correlational predictive study. The participants included 45 elementary teachers in grades K-5, plus specialty teachers, who were financially rewarded during this project analysis using the pay-for-performance model. Inferential and descriptive statistics from the questionnaire data were developed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences. The results of this study showed that there was a significant correlation among the three (3) independent variables and the dependent variable with multiple regression analysis, showing that all three (3) independent variables teacher job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and collective efficacy were predictors of the dependent variable, teacher- intent to leave. Self-efficacy is also implied to be linked to the job satisfaction of teachers.

Dickerson (2018), tried to evaluate whether student teachers in special education and general education varied substantially during and after the student teaching semester in burnout and self-efficacy. Special education and general education student teachers in the top ten teacher producing universities in Texas were the institutional population and the sample was taken from the four institutions that agreed to participate. A link to the survey site was sent to student teachers at these institutions by email. The pre-test resulted in a response rate of 16.5%, with 59 analysable responses from participants. The post-test resulted in a response rate of 10%, with 36 analysable responses from participants. The burnout pre-test and post-test survey was conducted with data from 23 student teachers and 22 student teachers completed the pre-test and post-test self-efficacy survey. Friedman's ANOVA and Wilcoxon Signed

Ranks Test were used to analyse the data. The survey contained two instruments, the Teacher Burnout Inventory and the Self-Efficacy Scale for Teachers; and a demographic information sheet produced by the researcher. In order to draw conclusions, data processing was performed using descriptive and nonparametric inferential statistics.

Dickerson (2018), found that:

1. Special education student teachers were significantly more burned out and demonstrated higher levels of self-efficacy from pre-test to post-test than general education student teachers.
2. Burnout was most often caused by poorly motivated students and by students not trying to exhibit the best of their abilities.
3. Self-efficacy was highest for the Disciplinary Self-Efficacy Subscale.
4. Special education student teachers did not differ significantly in either burnout or self-efficacy from pre-test to post-test.
5. General education student teachers differed significantly in both burnout and self-efficacy from pre-test to post-test.

In Ghana, Siaw-Marfo (2011) sought to determine the self-efficacy perceptions of teachers of Social Studies in relation to the teaching of Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. Descriptive survey was employed for the research. Multi-stage sampling technique was employed to select 153 Senior High School Social Studies teachers. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed for the analysis of the data collected. Furthermore, independent t-test was employed to test four hypotheses formulated. The results indicated self-efficacy perspectives of the Social Studies teachers.

Nevertheless, the independent t-test indicated significant differences in the perceptions of teachers' self-efficacy grounded on their professional qualifications, specialisation and teaching experiences but gender did not affect teachers' efficacy beliefs significantly in teaching social studies. The study concluded that teachers had high self-efficacy level. This level of teacher efficacy is affected by teacher professional qualification, specialization and teaching experience. It was therefore recommended to educational policy-makers to consider introducing the efficacy belief instrument in schools to find out the efficacy belief levels of teachers before assigning them to teach particular subjects.

Opoku (2016), also examined the influence of Senior High School (SHS) teaching experience of Mathematics teachers and gender on self-efficacy in teaching mathematics in Ashanti Region of Ghana. A 27-item questionnaire was given to a random sample of 154 Senior High School mathematics teachers in 20 senior high schools to respond. The outcome of the study showed that the self-efficacy of the teachers was high.

Again, findings of the independent sample t-test indicate that the male mathematics teachers had a high self-efficacy belief than the female counterparts. Once more, one-way ANOVA Test results with respect to teacher teaching experience showed there was no statistically significant difference between the means of the five categories of teacher teaching experience on Mathematics teacher efficacy. There had been also a fairly strong and positive correlation between the perceived usefulness of mathematics by teachers and the efficacy of teachers in mathematics education.

In addition, the self-efficacy of general and resource teachers in the education of children with disabilities in India was compared by Lamture and Gathoo (2017). For the survey-based descriptive analysis, Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES, n. d.) was used. Opinions were obtained from 60 general and 60 resource teachers from the Mumbai mainstream schools. The schools were under a flagship programme of the Government of India under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), meaning 'Education for all.' The findings showed a substantially greater self-efficacy of resource teachers in educating children with disabilities relative to general teachers in educating children with disability. This was specifically discovered in the tasks of influencing decision-making, using school resources and enlisting parental and community engagement in the education of children with disability. Thus, this implied that the self-efficacy of teachers teaching children with special needs was low by.

Ahmad (2018), also found in Kuching, Malaysia, that teachers who teach in inclusive schools exhibited low self-efficacy as compared to their counterparts who teach in special schools. He indicated that 73% of 200 teachers in inclusive schools showed low self-efficacy while 49% of another set of 200 teachers who teach in special schools exhibited low self-efficacy.

Similarly, Baltes, Zhdanova, and Clark (2016) in a study they conducted in Clementi, Singapore, revealed that teachers who teach in inclusive settings have higher self-disbelief which tends to have a negative influence on their human relations. Baltes, Zhdanova, and Clark espoused that people still stigmatise children of special educational needs and the people associated with them. This, they believe, affect the beliefs of the students as

well as their teachers which goes to affect their relationship with other people negatively.

Besides, Lungu (2017) also found in Edinet, Moldova, that the base or source of self-efficacy for students is vicarious experience. The students revealed in this study that they get motivated anytime they see their teachers perform a task. This, they say, indulge in them a sense of belief that they can also do it. Out of the 315 students studied, 298(94.6%) held this perception.

Additionally, Hernandez (2018) revealed in a study conducted in Cartagena, Columbia, that teachers who are well grounded in their “subject matter” showed higher level of self-efficacy than their colleagues who were not well grounded in their subject matter. He added that teachers who are ground exude higher level confidence, they belief in themselves as well as their students.

More so, Ingabire (2018) stated that words are powerful; they can create and also destroy. Words can give a sense of belief in an individual. Ingabire made this known in a study conducted in Gatuna, Rwanda, to investigate teachers’ sources of motivation in implementing a new national curriculum.

The condition in which you find yourself will influence how you justify your self-efficacy. While anger and anxiety can breed low self-efficacy, laughter (joy) and compassion bring about high self-efficacy (Ivanov, 2017). Galatas (2016) found in out Pireas, Greece, that self-efficacy moderate the emotional reactions and burnout of line managers of health facilities. He stated that managers with low self-efficacy exhibit negative emotional reactions which further put them through burnout conditions.

Joshi (2016), maintained that self-belief becomes a moderator to the effect of the challenges a person faces and the emotional reactions he shows in a study conducted in Lalitpur, Nepal, the study the moderation effect of self-efficacy on challenges and emotional reactions of parents on their wards.

From the review, it seems that some of the researches on self-efficacy addressed self-efficacy and work ability as well as self-efficacy and job satisfaction. Also, the self-efficacy research carried out in Ghana focused on the self-efficacy of social studies teachers in senior high schools in Ghana. Again, in Ahmad's (2018) study he compared teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive schools to their counterparts who teach in special schools. The study of Galatsa (2016) also focused on the self-efficacy and emotional reactions of managers of health facilities. Lungu's (2017) study was on the source of self-efficacy of students. However, it appears that no research has been carried out concerning source of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana, how a teacher's self-efficacy affects his or her teaching in inclusive setting, whether self-efficacy moderates emotional reactions and burnout of teachers in inclusive schools, these are the gaps this study intends to fill.

### **Coping Mechanisms**

Higgins (2017) found in Mandeville, Jamaica, that teachers who teach in inclusive schools use coping strategies that are inappropriate in managing their burnouts. He indicated that 83% out of 195 respondents revealed they have ever used unprintable words on students who misbehaved in their inclusive classrooms. Out of the 83% who admitted to have ever used unprintable words, 96% of them indicated they had used unprintable words at least more than three times on their students.

Besides, Mulenga (2017) in Mongu, Zambia, found that her respondents indicated they use shouting and yelling at students as ways of dealing with their burnout in inclusive classrooms. In the transcribed interview, she revealed that some of the teachers showed remorse in using such a coping mechanism in managing her burnout. This respondent explained that she goes to school already angry with herself as she sees some of her colleagues in other places of work doing well for themselves. Upon this, the slightest thing in the classroom angers her and hence she resorts to the use of shouting and yelling.

Bianchi (2018) in Bologna, Italy, found that teachers use appropriate coping techniques in addressing their classroom burnout. Their number one coping strategy was sublimation. Sublimation is the process of channelling a morally or socially unacceptable impulse towards something else, especially some form of creativity that is considered more appropriate. Some of the teachers revealed that they try to find something positive in the disruptive behaviours of students and rather burnout than to focus on the disruptive behaviour and react emotionally negatively.

Again, in Bukoba, Tanzania, Saidi (2017) found that the effects of burnout of teachers are moderated by self-efficacy. He explained the effects of burnout a person goes through and the burnout that is experienced is moderated by the coping mechanism that is used in overcoming the burnouts.

Demchack (2018), held a different opinion in a study he conducted in Eger, Hungary. He found that the effect of emotional reactions on pre-service teachers' burnout is not moderated by the coping mechanisms they adopt in managing their burnouts and emotional reactions. He conveys that emotional

reactions and burnout are different concepts and independent, hence, the coping mechanism one adopts will not necessarily influence the effect of emotional reactions on burnout.

Crovetto (2017) found in Menton, Monaco, that as teachers adopt appropriate coping mechanisms, their burnout decreases. Torres (2017) in Buena Vista, Gibraltar, found a strong inverse relationship between teacher respondents' choice of coping mechanism and their classroom burnout. The coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) was 0.76. Some studies on coping mechanism in inclusive schools have been done in some developing countries like Jamaica and Zambia. The studies conducted in Zambia were a qualitative study. These studies did not look at the moderating role of coping mechanism. Demchack's (2018) study focused on whether the effect of emotional reactions of pre-service teachers moderates the coping mechanisms they adopt in managing their burnouts and emotional reactions. It must be noted that Demback's study did not focus on teachers in inclusive schools. There is therefore the need to investigate the moderating role of coping mechanism of teachers in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana and also identify coping mechanisms adopted by teachers to manage their burnout in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana. This study employed a quantitative survey so as to identify how many of the teachers are able to adopt coping mechanisms to deal with their burnout.

### **Influence of Demographic Variables on Emotions, Burnout Self-Efficacy and Coping Mechanism**

Some key demographic variables have been researched into as to their ability to influence emotions, burnout, self-efficacy and coping mechanisms of teachers in inclusive education. These include factors like gender, age and



experiences in teaching. A fairly significant body of study indicates that females are the most emotionally expressive group (Kring & Gordon, 2015; Parkins, 2012; Simon & Narth, 2014). In addition to this there are certain emotions that have been stereotypically linked to gender. It is assumed that emotions of happiness, sorrow and fear are more typical of women, while men are thought to be more naturally angry (Kelly, Hutson, & Comeaux 2019).

Research by Fabes and Martin (2011) shows that women are viewed to convey emotions more than men, but there has been little difference in the understanding of the emotional experience of men and women. “Therefore, it appears that the consistent gender differences in the emotion stereotype literature are based on beliefs about the expression of emotion more than they are on beliefs about the emotional experience.” (Kelly & Huston-Comeaux, 2002, p.13).

The emotions of happiness, sorrow and fear have also been found to be more typical of women, while men are thought to be more characteristically angry. In expressing emotions, these assumptions have provided a framework for society to consider what is and what is not socially appropriate for men and women. Conventional wisdom, Parkins (2012), makes us assume that women are more emotional than men, or at least more emotionally expressive than men (Kring & Gordon, 2016). The findings of several academic research papers have confirmed this conventional wisdom, demonstrating that women are still the most emotionally expressive of genders (Brody & Hall, 2015).

Klassen and Chiu (2012) investigated the relations between years of teacher experience, teacher characteristics (gender and teaching level), three (3) domains of self-efficacy (instructional strategies, classroom management,

and student engagement), two types of job burnout (workload and classroom burnout) and job satisfaction. In the selection of sample size 1,430 practicing teachers by employing factor analysis, item response modelling, systems of equations and a structural equations model, the authors indicated that years of teachers' experience revealed non-linear correlations with all three (3) self-efficacy factors, growing from early-career to mid-career and then dropping afterwards. Female teachers had greater workload burnout, greater classroom burnout from student behaviours and lower classroom management self-efficacy.

In addition, Galaterou and Antoniou (2017) examined the attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education in relation to demographics (gender and age) and their levels of occupational burnout. 208 primary and secondary school teachers working in urban and suburban areas in five prefectures of Greece, were involved in the research. For data collection, two scales were used: a) Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities (ORI), which examines teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in mainstream schools and b) a questionnaire on Teachers Occupational Burnout, which identifies specific sources of workplace burnout. The sex, age and occupational burnout of teachers served as independent variables. Teachers showed marginally positive towards inclusion, which were correlated with their age. Younger teachers expressed more positive attitudes than their older colleagues, in particular. However, no differences between men and women were detected. In addition, relatively high burnout levels were observed, whereas the specific burnouts were identified. Finally, the attitudes of teachers were partially correlated with occupational burnout, as

higher levels of burnout were associated with less positive attitudes towards inclusive education.

Johnson (2018) also examined the differences and relationships between the self-efficacy scores of pre-service and in-service special education teachers. These teachers taught on Alternative permits, Provisional Intern Permit (PIP), Short-Term Staff Permit (STSP), Intern Credential, Valid Preliminary and Clear credentials in California, along with type of certification (Mild/Moderate, Moderate/Severe, and Early Childhood Special Education). Differences and relationships across several demographic variables were examined (gender, age, previous experience in special education and number of years teaching special education). The study participants were employed in one of two large school districts as special teachers on a PIP/STSP, Intern, Preliminary or Clear Credential in the Central Valley of California. This research used a non-experimental quantitative correlational survey design. The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2011), was the preferred instrument to assess the self-efficacy ratings of special education teachers. To assess the difference (if any) between groups, independent t-tests and one-way ANOVAs were performed. Significant differences were observed in the self-efficacy of special education teachers by credential classifications, including teachers with preliminary and clear credential teachers and those with sub-standard permits (PIP/STSP).

Significant differences in the self-efficacy scores of special education teachers and age between the age ranges of 20-29 years and 50-59 years were observed. Significant variations were also noted in the self-efficacy scores of

special education teachers and the years taught in multiple categories assessed. However, no statistically significant differences were identified between the self-efficacy ratings of special education teachers and the type of credential, gender and previous experience as a substitute or Para-special educator in special education. This means that teachers in special education that have persisted longer in the profession are valuable assets and more efficacious. The findings of this research added to the limited study on the self-efficacy ratings and certification status of special education teachers, credential type, gender, age, previous experience in special education and years of teaching.

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) was used by Sarfo, Amankwah, Sam, and Konin (2015) to find out whether there is a correlation among gender, self-efficacy, instructional methods, student engagement and management of the classroom. The teachers ( $n = 437$ ) scored the highest on student engagement ( $= 35.05$ ;  $SD 5.71$ ), followed by classroom management ( $x = 33.82$ ;  $SD = 6.38$ ); they scored lowest in instructional strategies ( $x = 30.51$ ;  $SD = 5.71$ ). Overall, a relatively high self-efficacy was reported ( $x = 33.13$ ;  $SD = 6.11$ ). For gender, the study found no significant differences in teachers' self-efficacy by gender ( $t(433) = -1.459$ ;  $p = .145$ ). The study's descriptive scores showed, female teachers had higher self-efficacy scores than male teachers ( $x = 33.48$ ;  $SD = 6.16$ ). In the three subscales of the TSES, significant differences between female and male teachers were found in instructional strategies ( $t(433) = -2.374$ ,  $p = .018$ ). For descriptive statistics, on the average, female teachers had a better self-efficacy in instructional strategies ( $x = 31.32$ ;  $SD = 5.61$ ) compared to male teachers ( $x = 29.70$ ;  $SD = 5.86$ ). No difference was found in the subscales of classroom management and student

engagement (Sarfo et al, 2015). By implication, it can be said that the teachers' self-efficacy was affected by the teachers' gender. Özokcu (2017) also showed that for female teachers, experienced teachers, teachers who had taken previous courses on special courses or the inclusion of teachers, the levels of self-efficacy and efficacy were higher.

Shehu (2018) in Vlore in Albania, revealed that there was no statistically significant difference among the qualification of the teachers and their burnout [ $F(43, 315) = 1.473, p = .126$ ]. Even though he found differences among teachers who held diploma, bachelors and masters in terms of their burnout such differences were not significant. Novak (2016) found in Osijek, Croatia, that there was insignificant difference among the ranks of teachers and the burnout they go through. He found that those at managerial positions were more burned out than those with low ranks.

It is instructive to know that professional promotions are based on the academic qualification of teachers. Garcia (2016) found in San Miguel, in El Salvador that there were no age differences in the burnout teachers' face. He found differences in their mean scores but those differences were not significant. Boakye (2014) found that, there was no significant difference among the years of teaching experience of Polytechnic lecturers in terms of their burnout. Lai (2018) maintains there was significant difference among the years of teaching of basic school teachers with regards to burnout. He found difference between those who have taught for below (five) 5 years and those who have taught for between fifteen to twenty years. There was also a difference between those who have taught for between ten and fifteen years and those who have taught for twenty to twenty-five years, and the teachers

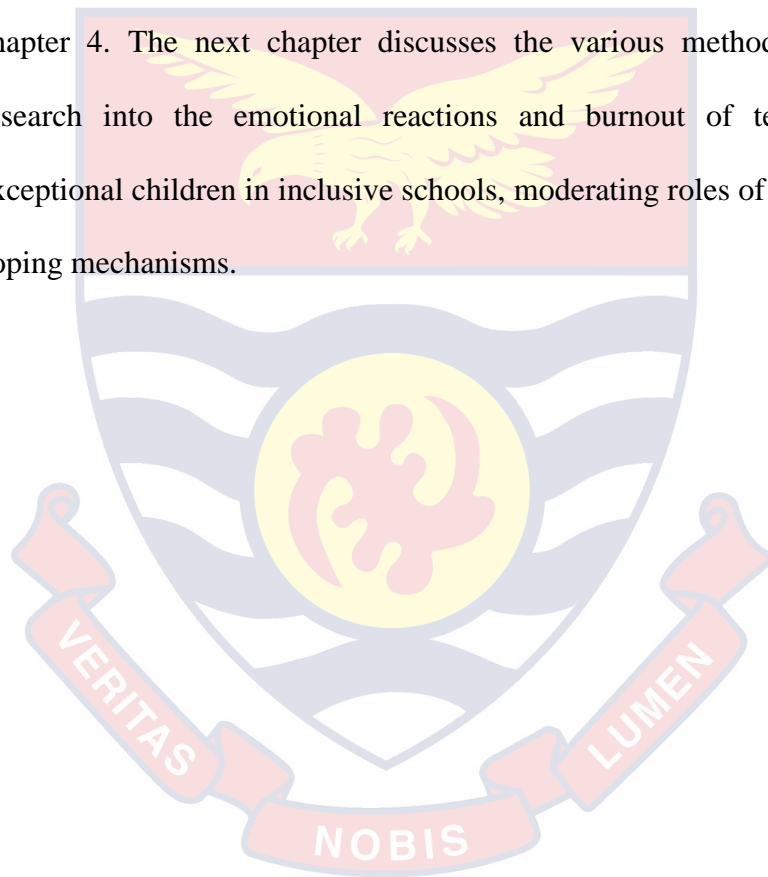
who have hitherto interrelated with a person with special needs. Moreover, the efficiency level of novice teachers concerning inclusion was found to be higher than that of more experienced teachers.

Evidently, women are perceived to express emotions more than men and men are believed to be more characteristically angry from the literature. There is therefore a need to confirm or refute this. Once again, the literature seems to concentrate mainly on the impact of demographic variables on self-efficacy and emotional reactions. However, this study focuses on the influence of the demographic variables on the emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy and coping mechanisms of teachers in inclusive schools. The findings from the studies are inconsistent, there seems to be limited work on the influence of the demographic factors/variables on emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy and coping mechanism in inclusive settings in Ghana. Due to the limited literature on the influence of the demographic variations on emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy and coping mechanisms of teachers in inclusive schools in Ghana, therefore, there is a need for the current study to examine the situation in Southern Ghana.

### **Summary of Review**

The literature review indicates that teaching involves emotions and that many teachers are unaware of their emotions. Also, the literature showed that burnout is experienced among the various professionals that deliver social and individual services which include teachers across all content areas (Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov 2003; Skaalivik & Skaalvik, 2010). Again, the literature has revealed that when the self-efficacy of teachers is high, they have the resilience and motivation to teach and this is very important for teachers in

inclusive schools. The literature, again, identified four sources of self-efficacy, these are: vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, mastery experience and physiological and affective states. It further indicated that coping is the reserve that a person has that he draws upon to manage burnout. It was also revealed that inclusion is not just about children's placement, but rather it focuses more on creating an environment that supports and includes all learners (Soodak, 2003). The findings from the literature will be used for the discussions in chapter 4. The next chapter discusses the various methodologies used to research into the emotional reactions and burnout of teachers teaching exceptional children in inclusive schools, moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms.



## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter focuses on the research methods that were used in the study. It describes the research design, study area, population, sample size and sampling procedures and procedures for data collection and analysis of data.

#### **Research Design**

Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011), describe research designs as the procedures for collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting data that are useful in helping to make the choices that best fit the research questions, purpose and the problem of the study. This study was situated in the pragmatic paradigm. In a mixed methods approach, the researcher built the knowledge on pragmatic grounds (Creswell, 2016; Maxcy, 2016) asserting that truth is “what works” (Howe, 2011). I choose approaches, as well as variables and units of analysis, which are most appropriate for finding an answer to the research question (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2015). A major tenet of pragmatism is that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible. Thus, both numerical and text data, collected sequentially or concurrently, can help better understand the research problem. This study used a mixed method approach, which is a procedure for collecting, analysing and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study, to understand a research problem more completely (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2015; Creswell, 2012). Specifically, the study employed the convergent mixed methods procedure (Creswell & Clark-Plano, 2017).



Convergent mixed methods procedures are those in which the researcher converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem (Creswell & Clark-Plano, 2017). In this design, the investigator collects both forms of data at the same time and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results. Also, in this design, the researcher may embed one smaller form of data within another larger data collection in order to analyse different types of questions (the qualitative addresses the process while the quantitative, the outcomes). I used convergent mixed methods so that I can make an in-depth assessment to the emotional reactions and burnout of teachers teaching exceptional children in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana while ascertaining the moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms.

The study combined quantitative and qualitative methods (QUAN+QUAL) in order to capitalise on the strengths of each approach. Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (2015) and Creswell (2012) state that a mixed-method approach provides a more comprehensive answer to the research questions of the study. They also argue that a research design that integrates different methods is more likely to produce better results in terms of quality and scope. According to Gay and Airasian (2013), the mixed-methods approach goes beyond the limitations of a single approach because it integrates both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

The rationale for mixing is that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are sufficient by themselves to capture the trends nor details of the situation, such as the complex issue of teachers' emotional reactions, burnouts and self-efficacy in inclusive schools. When used in combination, quantitative

and qualitative methods complement each other and allow for more complete analysis (Green, Caracelli, & Graham, 2015, Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2017). The approach to this study allowed for the use of the information uncovered in prior stages to impact on subsequent stage development, as well as provide the ability to go back and re-analyse previously collected data for alternative or divergent viewpoints.

In this regard, Frechtling, Sharp, and Westat (2016) state that it is beneficial for the researcher to use a mixed-method approach combining the two approaches in order to sharpen the understanding of the research findings. Hanson, Creswell, Plano-Clark, Petska, and Creswell (2015) indicate that the use of “both forms of data allows researchers to simultaneously generalise results from a sample to a population and to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of interest” (p. 224). This means that researchers are able to generalise from the sample to a population, which is one of the aspects of the quantitative research process, which is done by a quantitative researcher.

In a mixed methods approach, the researchers build the knowledge on pragmatic grounds (Creswell, 2016; Maxcy, 2016) asserting truth is what works (Howe, 2011, p. 17). They choose approaches, as well as variables and units of analysis, which are most appropriate for finding an answer to their research question (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2012). A major tenet of pragmatism is that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible. Thus, both numerical and text data, collected sequentially or concurrently, can help better understand the research problem.

Also, combining quantitative and qualitative techniques within a single study allows the researcher to offset the weaknesses inherent in each approach

if utilised independently. Where quantitative research, in general, is designed to answer confirmatory questions, and qualitative research is designed to answer explanatory questions, mixed methods studies allow the researcher to explain and confirm questions within the same study (Johnson & Turner, 2013; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2017). Different data sets captured using embedded qualitative strategies enhances transferability and generalisability of findings which would otherwise not be possible in quantitative designs alone.

While designing a mixed methods study, three issues need consideration: priority, implementation, and integration (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutman, & Hanson, 2015). “Priority” refers to which method, either quantitative or qualitative, is given more emphasis in the study. “Implementation” refers to whether the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis come in sequence or in chronological stages, one following another, or in a parallel or concurrently. “Integration” refers to the phase in the research process where the mixing or connecting of quantitative and qualitative data occurs.

Greene (2017) indicates, the primary purpose of conducting a mixed methods study is to “better understand the complexity of social phenomena” (p. 20). This study seeks to better understand the emotional reactions and burnout of teachers teaching children with special needs and disabilities as well as their self-efficacies and coping mechanisms. By understanding teachers’ emotional reactions and burnout, their self-efficacies and coping mechanisms, through the gathering of both quantitative and quantitative data a deeper understanding of the variables would be established. This study employed the mixed method approach because the self-efficacy variable was

explored both qualitatively and quantitatively while the rest of the variables that is emotional reactions, burnout, and coping mechanics were explored quantitatively. The mixed method approach is a better approach for this current study because it offered deeper information from the respondents' experience on self-efficacy while the quantitative approach offered a much robust data for analysis. In this regard the current study can be described as mixed methods. The above arguments give an understanding of a strong and firm basis for the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in the study hence relying on one method may lead to incomplete or loss of information.

The point of convergence in a mixed-method synthesis, quantitative and qualitative evidence can potentially contribute to understanding how complex interventions work and for whom, and how the complex systems into which they are implemented respond and adapt. The different purposes and designs for combining quantitative and qualitative evidence in a mixed-method synthesis for a guideline process are described. The convergence point in this study is at the data collection point. The qualitative approach is complimentary to the quantitative approach.

On the other hand, there have been criticisms of using mixed methods, Huges (2019) and Blaikie (2018) argue against combining two methods in a study, in that research methods carry epistemological commitment which needs to be respected. Again, they believe both methods are difficult to combine because of different epistemology and ontology underpinning the two research strategies. The criticism notwithstanding, the mixed methods strategy of social investigation is fast becoming popular among researchers (Grix,

2011; Bryman, 2017). Finally, it must be acknowledged that, above all, fusing the two in a single study of social phenomena is intended to provide a detailed description of the issue and also has valuable benefits as stated in my reasons for using a combined methodological method.

### **Study Area**

The study was conducted in three regions of Ghana, the Central region, Eastern region and the Greater Accra region. Below is a brief description of the three regions selected for the study.

#### **Central Region**

The Central Region is one of the sixteen administrative regions of Ghana. It is bordered by Ashanti and Eastern regions to the north, Western region to the west, Greater Accra region to the east, and to the south by the Gulf of Guinea. The Central region is renowned for its many elite higher education institutions and an economy based on an abundance of industrial minerals and tourism. The Central region attains many tourist attractions such as castles, forts and beaches stretched along the Central region's coastline.

The Central Region is a hub of education, with some of the best schools in the country. The region's economy is dominated by services followed by mining and fishing. Cape Coast Castle and Elmina Castle are prominent UNESCO World Heritage Sites and serve as a reminder of the slave trade. The Central Region is a major centre for tourism within the peninsula of Ashantiland and it has some of the most beautiful beaches and national parks (Kakum National Park). U.S. President Barack Obama made his first international trip to the city of Cape Coast in 2009.

The political administration of the region is through the local government system. Under this administration system, the region is divided into 22 MMDA's (made up of 1 Metropolitan, 7 Municipal and 14 Ordinary Assemblies). Each District, Municipal or Metropolitan Assembly, is administered by a Chief Executive, representing the central government but deriving authority from an Assembly headed by a presiding member elected from among the members themselves.

### **Eastern Region**

The Eastern Region is located in south Ghana and is one of the sixteen administrative regions of Ghana. Eastern region is bordered to the east by the Lake Volta, to the north by Bono East Region and Ashanti region, to the west by Ashanti region, to the south by Central region and Greater Accra Region. Akans are the dominant inhabitants and natives of Eastern region and Akan, Ewe, Krobo, Hausa and English are the main spoken languages. The capital town of Eastern Region is Koforidua. The Eastern region is the location of the Akosombo dam and the economy of the Eastern region is dominated by its high-capacity electricity generation. Eastern region covers an area of 19,323 square kilometres, which is about 8.1% of Ghana's total landform.

High-capacity electricity generation Akosombo Hydroelectric Project contains three main tributaries: the Black Volta; the White Volta and the Red Volta and the Akosombo Hydroelectric Project flows into the Gulf of Guinea on the Atlantic Ocean.

The political administration of the region is through the local government system. Under this administration system, the region is divided into 33 MMDA's (made up of 0 Metropolitan, 13 Municipal and 20 Ordinary

Assemblies). Each District, Municipal or Metropolitan Assembly, is administered by a Chief Executive, representing the central government but deriving authority from an Assembly headed by a presiding member elected from among the members themselves.

### **Greater Accra Region**

The Greater Accra Region has the smallest area of Ghana's 16 administrative regions, occupying a total land surface of 3,245 square kilometres. This is 1.4 per cent of the total land area of Ghana. It is the second most populated region, after the Ashanti Region, with a population of 4,010,054 in 2010, accounting for 16.3 per cent of Ghana's total population.

The Greater Accra region is the most urbanized region in the country with 87.4% of its total population living in urban centres. The capital city of Greater Accra Region is Accra which is at the same time the capital city of Ghana. The Greater Accra region is the seat of the Ministry of Education.

In 1960, Greater Accra, then referred to as Accra Capital District, was geographically part of the Eastern Region. It was, however, administered separately by the Minister responsible for local government. With effect from 23 July 1982, Greater Accra was created by the Greater Accra Region Law (PNDCL 26) as a legally separate region.

### **Population**

The “population” of a study may include people, objects, and institutions which are the objects of the study. Creswell (2015), states that a population refers to a group of humans selected for a research. The target population for the study comprised all-inclusive basic school teachers in Southern Ghana. The accessible population for this study was teachers who

teach in inclusive basic schools in Greater Accra, Central and Eastern regions of Ghana.

In all, 3090 teachers from 182 inclusive basic schools within 19 districts in the three selected regions as per the Special Education Division's profile data (Researcher's data, 2018) was used in this study. The distributions of the population of the teachers from the various schools in the selected regions are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 - *Distribution of the population of the teachers from the three regions*

Region	Districts	No. of Schools Schools	No. of Teachers
Greater Accra	1. Accra West	8	133
	2. Ga West	12	206
	3. Ga East	6	96
	4. Ga South	10	163
	5. Ledzokuku-Krowo	3	72
	6. Adenta	5	117
	7. Dangbe East	6	139
	Total	50	926
Central	1. Efutu	D (5) S	D (120)
	2. Agona West	D (2) S	D (46)
	3. Agona East	7	109
	4. Kasoa	D (4) S (10)	D (91) S(157)
	5. Awutu Senya	2	28
	6. Upper Denkyira	1	15
	7. Cape Coast	7	108
	Total	71	1180
Eastern	1. Yilo Krobo	11	183
	2. New Juaben	30	475
	3. Upper Menya	3	51
	4. Birim Central	10	157
	5. Birim South	7	118
	Total	61	984
Overall Total		182	3090

Source: Special Education Division, 2018



## Sampling Procedure

Osuala (2018), defines a sample as a group of people drawn from the larger population. With the total population of 3090 (926+1180+984) teachers from the inclusive schools in the three regions in the various districts, the recommended sample size was 379 per Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination table for descriptive research. The sample size was increased to 390 to cater for attrition rate. This is 2.9% of the proposed sample size by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Marshal (2018), admonishes researchers to add 1% to 5% of the determined sample size to cater for attrition rate. He states that it is a reality in research, as some of the participants along the path of the investigation may not be interested in the study hence, their refusal to provide answers to data collection instruments.

With respect to the sampling procedure for the study, a multi-level sampling technique was used. First, the purposive sampling technique was used to select only inclusive schools from the three selected regions. A proportionate stratified sample technique was used to get the number of schools selected from each district as presented in Table 2. This is because proportionate stratified sampling technique ensures greater representation of the sample relative to the population and the minority constituents of the population are represented in the sample (Nworgu, 2013). The simple random sampling technique was also used to select the respondents from each school. The simple random sampling (lottery type) technique was employed to select the actual respondents from each school in the district. This approach helped to reduce biasness and provide an objective basis for selection (Curtis, 2016).

The distribution of the sample with respect to the teachers in the various districts from the three regions is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 - *Distribution of the Sample of the teachers from the three regions*

Region	Districts	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers
Greater Accra	1. Accra West	4	17
	2. Ga West	7	26
	3. Ga East	3	12
	4. Ga South	5	21
	5. Ledzokuku-	2	9
	6. Adenta	3	15
	7. Dangbe East	2	17
	Total	26	117
Central	1. Efutu	3(D)	D(15) S(47)
	2. Agona West	1(D) 4(S)	D (6) S (17)
	3. Agona East	4	14
	4. Kasoa	2(D) 5(S)	D (10) S (20)
	5. Awutu Senya	1	4
	6. Upper Denkyira	1	2
	7. Cape Coast	4	14
	Total	39	149
Eastern	1. Yilo Krobo	6	23
	2. New Juaben	16	60
	1. Upper Menya	2	6
	4. Birim Central	5	20
	5. Birim South	4	15
	Total	33	124
Overall Total		98	390

Source: Researcher's data, 2018

Table 3 - Distribution of the Sample of the teachers from each school in the three regions

Region	District	School	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	Total
Greater Accra	Accra West		2	5	4	6													17
	Ga West		3	7	2	4	6	4	2										26
	Ga East		4	2	6														12
	Ga South		3	6	4	5	3												21
	Ledzokuku-Krowo		4	5															9
	Adenta		5	5	5														15
	Dangbe East		6	11															17
Central	Efutu		4(D) 3(S)	6(D) 4(S)	5(D) 4(S)	5	2	3	1	5	2	3	3	4	5	3			15(D) 47(S)
	Agona West		6(D) 4(S)	3(S)	6(S)	4(S)													6(D) 17(S)
	Agona East		3	5	4	2													14
	Kasoa		4(D) 4(S)	6(D) 5(S)	5(S)	3(S)	3(S)												10(D) 20(S)
	Awutu Senya		4																4
	Upper Denkyira		2																2
	Cape Coast		3	4	5	2													14
Eastern	Yilo Krobo		4	2	5	4	6	2											23
	New Juaben		4	5	3	6	4	4	5	4	3	2	1	5	3	6	2	3	60
	Upper Menya		3	3															6
	Birim Central		4	6	3	3	4												20
	Birim South		1	4	4	6													15

There were 19 teachers selected from the total sample of 390 for the qualitative study to be interviewed. The individual teachers who I believed could provide further and better information about the subject at hand were purposively selected from each district for the study. Participation was entirely voluntary and opened to only teachers who expressed interest in the study.

### **Data Collection Instruments**

The main instruments for this study's information were questionnaire and interview guide.

#### **Questionnaire**

A questionnaire is defined by Johnson and Christensen (2014) as a self-report data collection device that each research participant fills out as part of a research study. Ogah (2013) describes questionnaire as very strong in eliciting information because of the relative ease in responding to them and dealing with the data which are often collected from relatively large samples. Questionnaire was appropriate for the sample as it included teachers from three selected regions who could read and write. In addition, a questionnaire is generally used to obtain information, often numeral data. Moreover, it can be completed without the presence of the researcher, which helps save time and makes it suitable for collecting information from a large number of samples.

Questionnaires have a number of weaknesses which include its laxity to elicit in-depth information from respondents. Others include respondents' inability to convey emotions and feelings. Some respondents may also give dishonest answers to the questionnaire. These, notwithstanding, I chose the questionnaire because its advantages outweighed its disadvantages. In the case of respondents providing dishonest answers for example, I appealed to their

conscience that correct responses were necessary to change the narrative and that it was an opportunity for them to also affect humanity positively by providing honest responses. Also, to get in-depth information from the respondents, the number of items was increased so as to get more information from them. The challenges of feelings and emotions were addressed by supporting the questionnaire with interview.

The questionnaire was in five sections and it was made up of 73 close-ended items. The questionnaire elicited teachers' responses on emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy and coping mechanisms (See Appendix A). Sections B to E were instruments adapted from various authors. For example, section B which was on emotional reactions was adapted from Fetzer Institute (2003). Section C which was on burnout was adapted from Maslach and Jackson (1981). Section D was on self-efficacy and was adapted from Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1979). Section E was on coping mechanisms to manage burnout and was adapted from Carver (1997). Although these instruments had their Cronbach Alpha statistic above 0.7, it was important to adapt because some of the diction used were not known in our culture. Again, some of the items were not relevant for the current study hence the need to alter than to align to the purpose of the study. The sections are discussed as follows:

**Section A:** Requested demographic information from the respondents that is gender, academic qualification, and teaching experience. This section comprised three (3) close-ended questions.

**Section B:** This section elicited information on emotional reactions of teachers. The items were measured on a 4-point Likert scale which ranged

from 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (agree), 4 (strongly agree). This section of the questionnaire was adapted from Fetzner Institute Emotional Regulation Questionnaire with a Cronbach Alpha of 0.91. This section had 22 items.

**Section C:** This section gathered information on effects of teachers' emotional reactions (burnout) in the inclusive classroom. The items on this variable were measured on a 6-point Likert scale which ranged from 0 (never), 1 (everyday), 2 (once a week), 3 (sometimes in a month), 4 (once a month), 5 (once in a year or less). This section of the questionnaire was adapted from the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) with a Cronbach Alpha of 0.86. This section also had 13 items.

**Section D:** This section of the questionnaire focused on the self-efficacy of teachers in the inclusive classroom. The items on this variable were measured on a 4-point Likert scale which ranged from 0 (not at all), 1 (hardly true), 2 (somehow true) to 3 (very true). This section of the questionnaire was adapted from the Schwarzer-General Self-Efficacy (SSE) with a Cronbach Alpha of 0.94. It consisted of 11 items.

**Section E:** This section of the questionnaire focused on coping mechanisms for managing teachers' burnout. The items on this variable were measured on a 4-point Likert scale which ranged from 0 (never), 1 (sometimes), and 2 (often) to 3 (always). This section of the questionnaire was adapted from the Brief COPE questionnaire with a Cronbach Alpha of 0.90. It consisted of 23 items.

## Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Hair, Causby, and Miller (2015) opine that validity refers to how well a concept is defined by its measure. Johnson and Christensen (2014), explain further that it is paramount to ensure validity in research instrument so that the test measures what it is intended to measure, for the specific group of people and for the specific content and also the interpretations that are made are justified based on the correct test scores. Similarly, to establish the content validity of the instruments, I gave them to my supervisors and four other professionals in the field of psychology and special education for their review since content validity can be determined by expert judgment (Gay, Geoffrey & Peter, 2018).

A pilot-testing was done for information on the validity and reliability of the instrument being used, using 10 basic schools. A pilot-test was done to validate the instruments, that is, to find out how valid and reliable the instruments for the main data collection were. Reliability means the consistency or stability of the test scores (Gay et al, 2018, Hair et al, 2015, Johnson & Christensen, 2014). This was to ensure that the assessment tools produced the same or almost the same scores anytime they were administered to the same individual.

The pilot-testing was done using 150 teachers from basic schools in Subin Sub-Metro in the Ashanti Region since all schools in the country had implemented the inclusive education policy and therefore the teachers may have similar characteristics as those in the three selected regions). A figure of 150 was arrived at based on Leavy's (2018) recommendation that, a sample of 120 or more is required to conduct an exploratory factor analysis to ascertain

construct validation of an instrument. Also, Ashanti Region was selected because, according to the 2010 population census, the region shares similar characteristics with Greater Accra, Eastern and parts of the Central regions. Moreover, the prevailing conditions in inclusive schools in Ghana are uniform in nature (Abasa, 2017). The responses from the 150 respondents were analysed using the Cronbach’s Alpha formula to calculate a reliability index for the instruments. Since majority of items were multiple scored especially on the Likert scale, the Cronbach’s co-efficient alpha was deemed appropriate to use (Dabone, 2018). Cronbach’s alpha was computed for the instrument after construct validation was computed (see Table 3), which indicates the instrument is consistently reliable. Opinions differ about the ideal alpha value. Some experts recommend the alpha should be at least 0.90 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 2014). Others suggest an alpha of 0.70 is acceptable for a new instrument (DeVellis 2011; DeVon, Block, Moyle-Wright, Ernst, Hayden, Lazzara, & Kostas-Polston, 2017).

Table 4- *Classical Psychometric Properties of the Data Collection Instrument*

Item	No. of Items	Mean	Std	$\alpha$
Demographics	3	2.2219	.44499	.45
Emotional reaction of teachers	23	2.6302	.55052	.83
Effects of teachers’ emotional reactions	13	1.4678	.85810	.88
Self-Efficacy of teachers	11	1.5688	.70641	.87
Coping mechanisms for managing burnouts	23	1.2916	.56532	.82

Source: Ntoaduro (2019)



## Results from the Factor Analysis

The 73 items of the questionnaire were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using SPSS version 25. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) value was .735, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 by Kaiser (2013). In addition, Kline (2011), Cerit (2014) and Pohlmann (2011), indicate that KMO values between 0.5-1.0 are considered to be high and therefore, KMO value for this study is assumed to be high. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was  $\chi^2 = 4671.169$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . These results indicate that the factor analysis is suitable for the group.

Two fit statistics were computed: the chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio ( $\chi^2/df$ ) and the goodness-of-fit index (GFI). A  $\chi^2/df$  ratio of less than 3 is considered to be indicative of a good fit between the observed and reproduced correlation matrices (Kline, 2011). Constraining the 73 items to fall onto four latent factors generated a  $\chi^2/df$  ratio of 2.65. A GFI of  $\chi^2 = 4671.62$ ,  $p = .00$  are values that indicate that the model "fits" the input data well. The four latent factors model appears to be the best fitting representation of the input data. The results from the confirmatory analysis are presented in Appendix E.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of 18 components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 16.3 %, 8.9 %, 5.3 %, 4.4 %, 4.2 %, 3.9 %, 3.5 %, 3.2 %, 3.0 %, 2.8 %, 2.6 %, 2.4 %, 2.3 %, 2.2 %, 2.0 %, 1.9 %, 1.8% and 1.7 % of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the 4th component. Using Cattell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain 4 components for further investigation. This

was not supported by the results of Parallel Analysis (refer to Appendix E), which showed seven components with eight values exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (73 variables  $\times$  150 respondents).

To help in the interpretation of these four components, Oblimin rotation was performed. The rotated solution revealed the presence of simple structure (Thurstone, 2012) with the four (4) components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one (1) component. The 4-component solution explained a total of 36.3 percent, with component 1 contributing to 16.3 percent, component 2 contributing to 8.9 percent, component 3 contributing to 5.3 percent and component 4 contributing to 8.6 percent respectively.

There was a weak positive relationship between: factors one and two ( $r = .141$ ) and factors three and four ( $r = .13$ ). Nevertheless, there was a weak inverse relationship between: factors one and three ( $r = -.037$ ), factors one and four ( $r = -.281$ ), and, two and three ( $r = -.126$ ) and factors two and four ( $r = -.291$ ). The results of this analysis support the use of emotional reactions and burnout of teachers teaching children with exceptional needs in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana while ascertaining the moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms items as separate scales, as suggested by the scale authors (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 2012).

### **Interview**

A semi-structured interview guide was used to collect the qualitative data. In semi-structured interviews, researchers must develop, adapt and

generate questions and follow-up probes appropriate to the central purpose of the study (Rubin & Rubin, 2015). O’Leary (2015) argues that:

*Semi-structured interviews are neither fully fixed nor fully free and are perhaps best seen as flexible. Interviews generally start with some defined questioning plan but pursue a more conversational style of interview that may see questions answered in an order natural to the flow of the conversation. They may also start with a few defined questions but be ready to pursue any interesting tangents that may develop (p. 164).*

The use of the semi-structured interview had some positive influence on the participants, as I gave them a voice which sought to impress upon them that their views are greatly important to the study and that I was interested in their ideas and experiences. For every respondent that I spoke to, I sought permission to record his/her voice on tape. From the tape recording, I subsequently did all my transcription into a readable version. Reflection notes were taken immediately after interviews to document descriptive notes on the behaviour, verbal and nonverbal reactions of my participants (Merriam, 2011).

A semi-structured interview was a useful instrument for the study because it gave me the opportunity to seek clarification from the tutors. However, the openness of some of the questions in the interview schedule led to the gathering of massive volumes of qualitative data, but which was time-consuming during data analyses. There were two sections on the interview guide. The first dealt with demographic questions which consisted of two (2) items. The second section had two main themes; how teachers feel when asked to teach exceptional children and the sources of self-efficacy (see Appendix B). Probes were also used to get the interviewees say more

information about the questions and also indicated that I was actually listening to the interviewees. Examples of such probes that were used can be found at Appendix D.

### **Trustworthiness of the Qualitative Data**

The criteria for examining the rigour in both qualitative and quantitative studies are tradition validity and reliability (Kusi, 2012; Punch, 2014). Guba (2012) was able to use ‘trustworthiness criteria’ to judge the quality of a study by using credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability.

The first element I used to ensure trustworthiness was transferability of findings, in qualitative research, which is equivalent to external validity or generalisability of findings in the quantitative study (Merriam & Associate, 2012). While the study is a mixed method, the generalisation of quantitative findings is not a problem, but for the qualitative finding it was difficult (Verma & Mallick, 2012). For example, the problem under study might be similar to that of other countries. The aim of conducting this study was not to generalise the findings, but to show readers about the current status of basic school teachers’ psychological needs. However, if readers find similarities between their contexts and the context of the study, then they can transfer the findings to their individual contexts.

The credibility of the qualitative phase relates to the internal validity of the quantitative phase. The effort and ability to determine credibility depend on the researcher because the quality of the research is related to the trustworthiness and integrity of the study. Validation also depends on the quality of the researcher’s work during the investigation. Denzin and Lincoln

(2015) say, fairness is an important factor, and is described as the deliberate attempt to prevent marginalisation and act affirmatively with respect to inclusion so that all the voices of participants are heard and their stories treated with fairness and balance. By way of ensuring the credibility of the study, I followed the following procedures:

1. The interview was conducted using the language that could be understood by both myself and interviewees to avoid misunderstanding.
2. I ensured that no distortion took place while the interview was being conducted to allow the free flow of information.
3. My supervisors' regular inspections helped me to check for flaws and problems in the study.
4. Three (3) independent ratters with key knowledge in administration and analysis of data were given the instruments for a thorough check for flaws and problems in the study.

Dependability or consistency of qualitative findings corresponds to the reliability of findings in quantitative phase (Merriam & Associates, 2012). The first step I used to check reliability was to ask the respondents to either confirm or deny their statement after each semi-structured interview schedule. Secondly, I gave the work to three independent raters were not connected to the present study. They were contacted to analyse the interview transcript. After comparing notes from independent raters if they agree on 85% of the questions, themes and the findings, then we can presume that the work is consistent. There was 91% agreement among the notes from the three independent raters.

Confirmability of qualitative findings corresponds to the reliability of findings in the quantitative phase. The principle highly depends on evaluation techniques such as: assessing the effects of the researcher during all steps of the research process, reflexivity, providing background information on the researcher's background and education. By way of ensuring that my personal values and knowledge do not influence the results, in obtaining information from the field, I remained unbiased and ensured that my constructions were not seen to have emerged directly from the data, thereby confirming the research findings and grounding them in the evidence or raw data.

### **Data Collection Procedures**

#### ***Quantitative***

An ethical clearance from the University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (see Appendix G) was collected and sent to the District Directors of Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.) to obtain permission to conduct the study in the schools. After that, an introduction letter from the Department of Education and Psychology (see Appendix H), introducing me to the authorities of the schools selected was sent to all the headmasters prior to the data collection. During the visits, the purpose of the study was explained to the heads and permission was sought from them for the collection of data in the schools. This helped me to discuss with the school authorities the suitability of my data collection schedule.

The questionnaires were administered to the teachers at the various schools and collected the same day. I spent two months and three days gathering the data. On each day, the respondents were briefed on the purpose of the study and why they would be completing the instruments. Respondents

were therefore encouraged to answer the questions on the questionnaire as honestly as possible. The respondents were also informed to read each statement and make sure they understood it before responding to them. Respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality of their participation in the study. According to Trochim (2012), this briefing is required to erase respondents' biases and prejudices. This helped ensure good rapport with the teachers and probably made them more sincere with their responses.

The questionnaires were administered personally to the selected teachers in the basic schools within the dates agreed upon with the school authorities. Completed questionnaires were collected on the very day of administration. This helped to ensure a 100% return rate from the respondents.

### *Qualitative*

The qualitative data in the form of interview were conducted concurrently on the 19 teachers selected from the respondents. After all ethical issues were discussed with the participants, I employed the use of a semi-structured interview guide for the data collection. I personally conducted the interviews to gain first-hand information. I obtained permission from the respondents to record the interview.

Moreover, brief notes were taken in the event of tape recorder malfunctions. On completing each interview, I expressed my appreciation to the interviewees for their cooperation and participation. An average time of 25 minutes was spent on each respondent during the interview session. The duration of the field work lasted for 10 weeks.

## Ethical Consideration

In conducting a research, Creswell (2018) instructs researchers to seek permission from the authorities in charge of the site of the study because it involves a prolonged and extensive data collection. The important decision is on how to obtain permission to the access site for the study.

After securing the permission from the authorities in charge of the setting, it was important to gain the informed consent of the target participants of the study. Informed consent is an ethical requirement which demands that respondents be allowed to choose to participate or not to participate in the research after receiving full information about the possible risks or benefits of participating (Makore-Rukuni, 2011). The participant is free to decline to participate or withdraw from the study at any time (Tuckman, 2014). In this study, I informed selected participants about the purpose of the study. The participants were given the freedom to choose to participate or not participate in the study.

The next ethical issue discussed was confidentiality. Confidentiality indicates the researcher's ethical obligation to keep the respondent's identity and responses private (Babbie, 2011). In the view of Cohen, Manion and Morrision (2017, p. 65) confidentiality:

*Means that although researchers know who has provided the information or are able to identify participants from the information given, they will in no way make the connection know publicly, the boundaries surrounding the shared secret will be protected.*



In the study, I ensured that the information provided was not shared with any other user. The information was used for the purpose of the research only.

The next ethical issue that was discussed was anonymity. Anonymity is used to protect respondents' 'right of privacy'. A respondent is therefore considered anonymous when the researcher or another person cannot identify the respondents from the information provided (Cohen et al., 2017). In this study, anonymity was achieved by not asking participants to write their names on the questionnaires or mention their school during the interview session. Furthermore, respondents in this study were identified by serial numbers rather than by names. Anonymity is guaranteed through grouping data rather than presenting individual responses.

#### **Data Management Issues**

In order to ensure good data management practices, I solely handled the filled questionnaire to ensure that information given out by respondents did not end up in wrong hands due to the sensitive nature of the data. After the quantitative data were collected, they were securely stored in a locked cabinet to prevent other people from having access to them. After the data were entered into the computer, they were protected with a password and also stored on my pen drive as a backup. I also saved it in my e-mail account. Respondents were not required to write their names on the instrument so as to provide anonymity to help ensure protection of respondents. Code numbers that were assigned were used to identify respondents. Also, interactions held during the interviews were treated as strictly confidential.

## Data Processing and Analysis

The statistical software that was used for analysing the data from this study was the Statistical Product for Service Solutions version 25. This study adopted the convergent mixed method approach. Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) were used to analyse the demographic characteristics of the respondents. According to Martinez (2017), demographics describe the characteristics of the respondents and as such descriptive statistics specifically, frequencies and percentages give the distribution of each characteristic.

The research question 1 was answered using frequencies and percentages. Ary and Jacobs (2016), note that researchers use descriptive statistics to organise, summarise, interpret and communicate information obtained. The respondents were asked to choose from a set of alternatives strongly agree and agree and strongly disagree and disagree. For the analysis strongly agree and agree were considered as disagree. The use of simple frequency presented a more accurate number of respondents for each item on the scale since the response was set on a likert (ordinal scale) (Ofori & Dampson, 2011).

The research questions that are research questions 1, 4 and 5 were answered with means and standard deviations. Ary and Jacobs (2016), note that researchers use descriptive statistics to organise, summarise, interpret and communicate information obtained. According to Ntorso (2017) means and standard deviations are able to give composite values of a number of responses on a particular item on an instrument. He added that Means and Standard deviations are preferred to frequencies and percentages because apart from

they given you a base value of description which the frequencies and percentages also do, they offer you a second level appreciation with the composite value description. The mean and standard deviation values of each of the items were determined and ranked in descending order of magnitude. Depending on the scale format, the mid-value was determined and used as the cut-off point. Based on the cut-off point, statements were put into two groups. Statements with mean values above 2.5 were put into one group and those with mean values below the 2.5 were also put into another group. Within each group, a search was made to determine which of the statements fell under the high or low levels of the items.

The data on the third research question was analysed qualitatively using thematic analysis. Daly, Kellehear and Gliksman (2017) show, this method emphasises organisation and rich description of the data set. Thematic analysis goes beyond simply counting phrases or words in a text and moves on to identifying implicit and explicit ideas within the data. Guest, Greg, MacQueen and Namey (2012), indicate that coding is the primary process for developing themes within the raw data by recognising important moments in the data and encoding it prior to interpretation. Therefore, the major themes on the interview guide were coded and the data were used to explain further the quantitative analysis done.

Research question two was answered using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation ( $r$ ). The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test if there was a statistically significant relationship between the emotional reactions of the teacher respondents and their burnout in their inclusive classrooms. The directions and degrees of relationship were also

indicated. Both variables were continuous and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted were not violated. The interpretation of the correlation coefficient was based on the guidelines of Ofori and Dampson (2011). Thus  $r = 1$  (perfect correlation),  $r = 0.1 - 0.4$  (weak),  $r = 0.05 - 0.6$  (moderate) and  $r = 0.7 - 0.9$  (strong). The coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) which tells the proportion of variation in values of one variable that is explained by the other variable were computed and interpreted. This statistical procedure was used because the drive of the research question was to establish whether there is a relationship between the two stated variables with respect to teachers in inclusive schools. Secondly, the data obtained for the two variables were measured on interval scale. Moreover, the data also met all the other assumptions underlying a parametric test such as normally distributed data. This enabled me to describe the linear relationships that exist within the two variables.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested using hierarchical multiple regression test for moderation. Moderation analysis was computed for the data. In testing this hypothesis, a moderation analysis was computed for the data. In doing this, a hierarchical multiple regression was used. Therefore, dummy coding was done for the self-efficacy and coping mechanisms scales. After this the moderation analysis was computed for how self-efficacy and coping mechanisms moderate the impact of emotional reactions on the burnout of teachers.

Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, and 6 were tested using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation ( $r$ ) was run to determine the relationship between the self-efficacy of teachers and

their burnout, teachers coping mechanisms and their burnout, self-efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout, self-efficacy and their emotional reactions. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson  $r$ ) at 0.05 was used in analysing this research hypothesis. The interpretation of the correlation coefficient was based on the guidelines of Ofori and Dampson (2011). Thus,  $r = 1$  (perfect correlation),  $r = 0.1 - 0.4$  (weak),  $r = 0.05 - 0.6$  (moderate) and  $r = 0.7 - 0.9$  (strong). The coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) which tells the proportion of variation in values of one variable that is explained by the other variable was also computed and interpreted. This statistical procedure was used because the focus of the research hypothesis was to establish whether there is a relationship between the two stated variables with respect to teachers in inclusive schools. Secondly, the data obtained for the two variables were measured on interval scale. Moreover, the data also met all the other assumptions underlying a parametric test such as normally distributed data.

Hypothesis 7 was tested with independent samples t-test. The t-test statistic was used in testing this hypothesis at (0.05) level of significance. An independent sample t-test is used when a researcher wants to compare the mean scores for two different groups (Agyenim-Boateng, Ayebi-Arthur, Buabeng & Ntow, 2012). Independent sample t-test is used on two different groups of participants to determine the mean values or scores (Pallent, 2014). The strength of this tool is that it goes one step beyond merely observing variables and looking for relationships. This statistical procedure was used because the purpose of this hypothesis was to test whether there are differences between the two independent groups (male and female teachers) in

inclusive schools. Secondly, the data obtained for the two variables were measured on interval scale. Moreover, the data also met all the other assumptions underlying a parametric test such as normally distributed data.

Hypotheses 8 and 9 were tested using ANOVA. With respect to the hypotheses, data were tested with a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). It is used to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the mean of three or more independent (unrelated) groups. Also, the dependent variable was measured on interval scale and the distribution was normally distributed.

### **Qualitative Analysis**

In a qualitative approach, the researcher requires knowledge and strategies used in analysing qualitative data. This may involve the interpretation and functions that may be assigned to the data. In this study, the qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis. This kind of analytical process requires working with data, organising them, breaking them into manageable units, coding them, synthesising them and searching for a pattern (Merriam & Associates, 2012). In this study, I followed five steps of qualitative thematic data analysis as suggested by Terreblanche & Durrheim, (2014). Each tape-recorded interview was transcribed verbatim. A qualitative thematic analysis was carried out on the data to gain an understanding of the participants' world.

### **Familiarisation and Immersion**

The qualitative phase began with me getting acquainted with the data. With this, I read the data a number of times to become thoroughly familiar with the data. The transcription provided me with a detailed understanding of

the data that were collected. Once the transcription process was complete, I read over each document. I then read over the transcripts for a second time, but this time making notes of ideas and anything that piqued my interest.

### **Inducing Themes**

1. First, I tried to use the language of the interviewees rather than abstract theoretical language to label the categories.
2. Second, I attempted to move beyond merely summarising content to think in terms of processes, functions and contradictions.

### **Coding**

In coding, I developed themes and codes at the same time. This was done by marking different sections of the data relevant to one or more of emergent themes. I coded phrases, lines, sentences, and paragraphs, identifying these textual bits by virtue of the content material that pertains to the themes under consideration (see Appendix C). In coding, I broke down a body of data into labels, meaningful pieces, with the view of later clustering the “bits” of coded material together under the code heading and further analysing both as a cluster and in relation to other clusters.

### **Elaboration**

At this phase, I attempted to find all sorts of ways in which extracts could be grouped together under a single theme or all kinds of sub-issues and themes that come to light. Elaboration was done to help me to explore themes more closely. This gave me an opportunity to revise the coding system (see Appendix C).

## Interpretation and Checking

I tried to address weak points; to see if examples contradicted some or other points in the interpretation and checked if there were parts of the interpretation that were just summarised and nothing more. I needed to ascertain if there were no instances of over-interpretation. This was a good opportunity to reflect on my own role in collecting data and creating the interpretation. At the end, four themes were settled on. These were mastery of experience, vicarious experience, verbal or social persuasion and emotional and physiological factors. Analyses and write-ups were performed on each theme that was identified and how it fits into the research questions being asked in the study.

## Summary

In this chapter, the methodologies used for this study have been described. My approach was introduced through a discussion of why I chose the concurrent mixed method approach. I also outlined the research approach and data collection methods used in the data generation stage of the study. Finally, I described my approach to data analysis and the issues of validity and reliability.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

The study investigated the emotional reactions and burnout of teachers in teaching children with exceptional needs in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana: moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms. The data were gathered from three hundred and ninety (390) respondents.

This chapter presents the responses of the respondents to the research questions and hypotheses and how they are analysed using frequency, percentages, means, standard deviations, t-test, and ANOVA. The data are organised in tables and cross tabulations. The t-test and ANOVA were tested at statistically significant level of 0.05.

The chapter is divided into three (3) sections. Section one deals with demographic information of participants. Section 2 concentrates on the analysis of the research questions and finally, section 3 focuses on analysis of the research hypotheses.

#### Section 1: Demographic Information of Participants

This section deals with the results of the demographic data of participants. The results are presented in tables 5, 6 and 7.

#### Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Item 1 of the questionnaire requested respondents to indicate their gender. Table 5 shows the distribution of respondents by gender.

Table 5 - *Distribution of the Respondents by Gender*

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Male	167	42.8
Female	223	57.2
Total	390	100.0

Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

The statistics in Table 5 show the distribution of gender of the respondents used in the study. Three hundred and ninety respondents answered the data collection instrument. Out of this, 223 (57.2%) were females and 167 (42.8%) were males.

Table 6 presents the results of the areas of specialisation of the teacher respondents.

Table 6 - *Distribution of the Academic Qualification of the Respondents*

<b>Academics</b>	<b>Freq.</b>	<b>%</b>
Cert A	14	3.6
Diploma	124	31.8
Degree	222	56.9
Masters	30	7.7
Total	390	100.0

Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

Table 6 shows that the majority of the respondents 222 (56.9%) were degree holders, 124(31.8%) had Diplomas, 30(7.7%) had their Masters and 14(3.6%) were holders of Cert A. It can therefore be concluded that the respondents were literate.

Table 7 presents the results of the teaching experience of the teacher respondents.

Table 7 - *Distribution of the Teaching Experience of the Respondents*

Teaching Experience	Freq.	%
below 5 years	122	31.3
5 years to 10 years	129	33.1
more than 10 years	139	35.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>390</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

Table 6 shows that 139(35.6%) of the respondents had gained over 10 years of teaching experience. There were 129(33.1%) who had had between 5 to 10 years of teaching experience, while 122(31.3%) had had below 5 years of experience.

## Section 2: Analysis of the Research Questions

### Research Question 1: What are the emotional reactions of teachers who teach in inclusive schools?

This research question was to ascertain the emotional reactions of teachers who teach in inclusive schools. Items 1 to 22 on the questionnaire were used in eliciting quantitative data to answer this research question by the use of frequencies and percentages.

The respondents were asked to choose from a set of alternatives on a 4-point Likert type scale weighted as: Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2 and strongly disagree =1. For the analysis, strongly agree and agree were considered as agree while strongly disagree and disagree were also considered as disagree.

Table 8 shows the frequencies and percentages of the emotional reactions of teachers who teach in inclusive schools.

Table 8 – *Frequencies and percentages on the Measure of Emotional Reactions of Teachers who Teach in Inclusive Schools*

Items	Agree		Disagree	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
I feel helpless when teaching children with exceptional needs.	197	50.51	193	49.49
I get irritated when teaching children with exceptional needs.	203	52.05	187	47.95
I feel embarrassed when teaching children with exceptional needs.	207	53.08	183	46.92
I often feel sick working with children with exceptional needs.	209	53.59	181	46.41
I get nervous when it is time to teach children with exceptional needs.	216	55.38	174	44.62
I feel anxious when teaching children with exceptional needs.	219	56.15	171	43.85
I get excited when teaching children with exceptional needs.	233	59.74	157	40.26
I experience remorse when teaching children with exceptional needs.	238	61.03	152	38.97
I often think I can't take it anymore teaching children with exceptional needs.	243	62.31	147	37.69
I feel proud of myself after teaching children with exceptional needs.	247	63.33	143	36.67
I feel hopeless when teaching children with exceptional needs.	252	64.62	138	35.38
I feel satisfied when teaching children with exceptional needs.	254	65.13	136	34.87
I get impulsive teaching children with exceptional needs.	258	66.15	132	33.85
I feel pity for myself in interacting with children with exceptional needs.	261	66.92	129	33.08
I find it frustrating to work with children with exceptional needs.	285	73.08	105	26.92
I feel good teaching children with exceptional needs.	287	73.59	103	26.41
I suppress my bad mood or negative reactions when teaching children with exceptional needs.	299	76.67	91	23.33
I feel non-appreciative when teaching children with exceptional needs.	319	81.79	71	18.21
I often feel tired teaching children with exceptional needs.	331	84.87	59	15.13
I find it to be hard work teaching children with exceptional needs.	346	88.72	44	11.28
I get worried to be teaching in an inclusive setting.	351	90.00	39	10.00
I feel that I give more than I get back when I teach children with exceptional needs.	386	98.97	4	1.03

Source: *Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)*

*N=390*

The results from Table 8 show that the respondents experienced negative/poor emotional reactions in their inclusive classrooms. This is due to the fact that a greater number of them responded in the affirmative on almost all the items put forward to assess the emotional reactions of teachers. Specifically, the respondents agreed (98.97%) that they felt they gave more than they got back when they taught exceptional children. A good number of the respondents agreed (90.00%) that they got worried in teaching exceptional children in an inclusive setting. The respondents agreed (88.72%) that they found it to be hard work teaching exceptional children. Furthermore, the respondents agreed (84.87%) that they often felt tired teaching exceptional children. Also, the respondents agreed (81.79%) that they felt non-appreciative when teaching exceptional children. The item that the least number of respondents agreeing was “I feel helpless when teaching children with exceptional needs” which even had more than half of the respondents agreeing. Specifically, 50.51% of the respondents agreed to that statement.

**Research Question 2: How do the emotional reactions of teachers in inclusive schools affect their burnout?**

To answer the research question, the Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test if there was a statistically significant relationship between the emotional reactions of the teacher respondents and their burnout in their inclusive classrooms. The directions and degrees of relationship were also indicated. Both variables were continuous and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted were not violated.

Table 9 - *How the emotional reactions of teachers in inclusive schools affect their burnout*

		<b>Emotional Reactions of Teachers</b>	<b>Burnout of Teachers</b>
Emotional Reactions of Teachers	Pearson Correlation	1	.222**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	390	390
Burnout of Teachers	Pearson Correlation	.222**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	390	390

\*\*  $p < 0.01$  (2-tailed).  $R^2 = .05$  (5%). Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

As shown in Table 9, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation ( $r$ ) was run to determine the relationship between the emotional reactions of teachers and their burnout. The results on the Table show a weak statistically significant positive relationship between teacher respondents' emotional reactions and their classroom burnout ( $r = 0.222$ ;  $n = 390$ ;  $p > 0.00$ ). The positive correlation implies that the increase in teachers' poor emotional reactions on inclusive practices will lead to an increase in their burnout. The coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) of 0.05 means that their emotional reactions in inclusive teaching explain 5.0% of variation in their classroom burnout. Generally, the result shows that emotional reaction of inclusive education teachers weakly relates to the burnout they experience in the class.

### Qualitative Analysis

#### Research Question 3: What are the sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana?

This research question was intended to elicit views from practicing teachers on the sources of their self-efficacy in inclusive settings. From the

respondents, it came to light that teachers' self-efficacy is the judgment that they make about their own ability and skills in teaching, even in unfavourable conditions. Their responses are discussed under four themes of sources of information: mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal or social persuasion, emotional and physiological factors.

### **Mastery Experience**

Having a success, for example, in mastering a task or controlling an environment, will build self-belief in that area whereas a failure will undermine that efficacy belief. To have a resilient sense of self-efficacy requires experience in overcoming obstacles through effort and perseverance. The teachers indicated that their self-efficacy increased if they were able to grasp the concepts and content they were to impart to their learners. One of them put it this way:

*...I have some very good pupils in class ...my sister, they can change your whole day if you go to class unprepared...that is when the slightest thing then you are angry....but when I revise very well...I get a strong belief in myself and I am able to deliver to my own admiration and that of my pupils..*

(TIIS 1)

Another respondent succinctly indicated his view in this manner:

*...my sister, when you are well- baked and you take time to prepare the information enters your blood stream...once you enter class you begin to beam with uttermost confidence...I will say that for me a mastery of the subject matter is non-negotiable...I believe in myself and my source is a mastery of search image or subject matter knowledge. (TIIS 7)*

### **Vicarious Experience**

The respondents stated that their self-efficacy was drawn from vicarious experience. This form of experience refers to seeing another person performing the behaviour. An example is when a learner sees someone, he/she admires perform an activity especially when the other person is of similar stature to the learner. The learner gets excited and develops a sense of belief in himself or herself. Its influence on self-efficacy for that behaviour will be strongest when the other person is seen as being similar in terms of salient features.

One of the teachers shared her view like this:

*...I once paid a visit to another inclusive school and since then my confidence is up there...I visited a mate in that school...when we were in school, I was far better than her...upon seeing her have such great lesson, my whole orientation on inclusive education changed. I was so much encouraged that I could also do it. My self-belief was so high...I must say that it has indeed helped me a lot. (TIIS 10)*

### **Verbal or Social Persuasion**

The verbal persuasion describes the positive impact that our words can have on someone's self-efficacy; telling a child that she is capable and can face any challenge ahead of her can encourage and motivate her as well as adding to her growing belief in her own ability to succeed. The teachers alluded to the fact that one of the sources of their self-efficacy was words of encouragement they receive from their colleague teachers and parents.

One of the respondents said:



*...words are powerful...it's not all about money, yes, money is good but there is nothing more exciting than for people to recognize the work that you do. Some of the parents do well...they will call you and say nice words to you...the headmaster is doing his part just that at times he gets so much afraid of the officers from GES. ...so, for me a major source of self-efficacy is the words of encouragement I get from colleagues.... indeed, it gives me a strong belief in myself (TIIS 3).*

Another respondent added that,

*.... the work is a very difficult task ...to teach exceptional children not in specialized schools but in regular schools...people say it's a sacrifice but I tell you, it goes beyond that... At times you wake up and you feel dejected...but the words of wisdom and encouragement you receive from people just give me the belief that I can do it...at times too you go out to buy something and you hear "...oh teacher please come and have yours"...it's so refreshing ...it gives me that sense that through it all, I can do it ....my self-belief becomes very high. (TIIS 12)*

### **Emotional and Physiological Factors**

The state you are in will influence how you judge your self-efficacy. Depression, for example, can dampen confidence in our capabilities. Burnout reactions or tension are interpreted as signs of vulnerability to poor performance whereas positive emotions can boost our confidence in our skills. For example, a teacher suggested that:

*...getting to the end of the month ...I'm in high spirit...my confidence is high...I have a strong belief in myself...the issue is that there is little or no pressure as I receive my salary...my mind is clean and free from burnout....I*

*have realized when I don't think about where to get money it affects me positively and out of that I develop higher self-efficacy. (TIIS 9)*

Another teacher's answer pointed to the fact that emotional and physiological factors are considered as a source of self-efficacy.

*...when my spirit is high I tend to get a better outlook of myself...I'm able to relate better with people...honestly, it even affects the way I teach...the opposite is also true...anytime I leave home angry it affects me...I'm not able to reason well....I get so disappointed in myself...many a time I think that I'm not good when I get angry...so I try as much as possible to be in a happy mood...it increases myself-belief. (TIIS 5)*

**Research Question 4: What is the level of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana?**

This research question was to ascertain teachers' level of self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana. Items 1 to 11 on the Section E of the questionnaire were used in eliciting quantitative data to answer this research question. Again, I used mean and standard deviations to answer this research question. This was done by looking at the aggregated means of the respondents on each of the items.

Similarly, the respondents were to choose from a set of alternatives on a 4-point Likert type scale weighted as: Very True = 3, Somehow True = 2, Hardly True =1 and Not at all True = 0. A midpoint of this was used to determine whether the respondents had high or low self-efficacy. Thus,  $(3+2+1 + 0 = 6; 6 \div 4 = 1.5)$ . If the mean of means falls above the cut-off mean of 1.5, then it is interpreted as high self-efficacy, while 1 below means low self-efficacy.

Table 10 shows the means and standard deviations of the level of teacher’s self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana.

Table 10 - *Means and Standard Deviations on the level of teachers’ self-efficacy in inclusive settings*

<b>Item</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
I know how to handle children with exceptional needs.	1.28	.92
It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals in inclusive setting.	1.38	.93
I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	1.47	.87
I can deal efficiently with children with exceptional needs.	1.49	1.34
I can remain calm when facing difficulties dealing with children with exceptional needs.	1.39	1.80
I am unable to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals in inclusive setting.	1.17	.77
If I try hard enough, I can always manage to solve difficult problems of children with exceptional needs.	1.20	.85
I can find the means and ways to manage difficult children.	1.21	.79
I cannot remain calm when I’m facing challenges dealing with children with exceptional needs.	1.23	.76
I am unable to find solutions to problems of children with exceptional needs.	1.23	.62
I am unable to handle whatever comes my way.	1.25	.80
<b>Mean of Means</b>	<b>1.30</b>	<b>.50</b>

Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020) N=390

The results in the Table 10 revealed that the teachers exhibited low self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana by an overall mean of 1.30 and a standard deviation of 0.50. Using the mean cut-off of 1.5, the teacher respondents’ responses were low on all the 11 items in this section of the questionnaire. For instance, the respondents showed low self-efficacy (M=1.25, SD=.80) that they were unable to handle whatever comes their way. Again, they revealed low self-efficacy (M=1.23, SD=.62) that they were unable to find solutions to problems of exceptional children. The respondents,

again, showed low self-efficacy because they indicated that they were not able to remain calm when facing challenges dealing with exceptional children (M=1.23, SD=.76)

The respondents exhibited low self-efficacy (M=1.21, SD=.79) in teaching in inclusive settings on the item: “I can find the means and ways to manage difficult children”. The respondents again exhibited low self-efficacy (M=1.20, SD=.85) that if they try had enough; they can always manage to solve difficult problems of exceptional children. Also, they showed low self-efficacy (M=1.39, SD=1.80) that they can remain calm when facing difficulties dealing with exceptional children. Considering dealing efficiently with exceptional children regarding their sitting arrangement, the respondents showed low self-efficacy (M=1.49, SD=1.34).

**Research Question 5: What coping mechanisms do teachers adopt to manage their burnout in inclusive schools?**

This research question is to ascertain the coping mechanisms teachers adopt in teaching in their inclusive classrooms. Items 1 to 23 on Section F of the questionnaire were used in eliciting quantitative data to answer this research question. Means and standard deviations were the main descriptive statistics used in answering this research question. This was done by looking at the aggregated means of the respondents on each of the items.

The respondents were to choose from a set of alternatives on a 4-point Likert type scale weighted as: Always = 3, Often = 2, Sometimes = 1 and Never = 0. A midpoint of this was used to determine whether the respondents had high self-efficacy or not. Thus,  $(3+2+1 + 0 = 6; 6 \div 4 = 1.5)$ . If the mean of means falls above the cut-off mean of 1.5 then it is interpreted as

appropriate coping mechanism of teachers teaching in their inclusive classrooms while if the mean of means falls below the cut-off mean of 1.5 then it is inappropriate coping mechanism.

Table 11 shows the means and standard deviations of the coping mechanism of the teacher respondents in their inclusive classrooms.

Table 11 - *Means and Standard Deviations on the Measure of Coping Mechanism of the Teachers in their Inclusive Classrooms*

<b>Items</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
I use alcohol or other drugs to make me feel better	.26	.60
I threaten to harm someone	.28	.63
I slam doors or punch walls (i.e. Throw temper tantrums) when I experience challenging events in teaching children with exceptional needs.	.29	.62
I express my negative feelings such as insulting or swearing at children.	.42	.71
I use or threaten to use a cane against children or someone.	.58	.74
I give up trying to deal with it	.63	.85
I shout or yell at children.	.65	.85
I blame myself for things that happen.	.65	.79
I say to myself, “this isn’t real”	.77	.85
I criticize myself.	.78	.76
I refuse to believe that it has happened.	.84	.90
I say things to let my unpleasant feelings escape.	.88	.93
I get emotional support from others	.98	.87
I make jokes about it.	1.02	.90
I turn to work on other activities.	1.05	.76
I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	1.36	1.00
I accept the reality of the fact that it has happened.	1.43	1.07
I try to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs.	1.50	1.01
I learn to live with it.	1.61	.96
I do something about the situation.	1.65	.89
I look for something good in what is happening.	1.73	.99
I pray or meditate	1.77	.99
I think hard about what steps to take	1.87	1.02
<b>Mean of Means</b>	<b>.97</b>	<b>.36</b>
Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)		N=390

The results in Table 11 show the coping mechanism of the teachers in their inclusive classrooms. The results imply that teacher respondents used in

the study use inappropriate coping mechanisms in dealing with their burnout in inclusive settings. This is because their overall means score ( $M=.97$ ,  $SD=.36$ ) was below the mean cut-off of 1.5. The results in the Table show that the mean scores of their responses to 17 of the 23 items in this section of the questionnaire were inappropriate.

Most of the respondents agreed to most of the items in the questionnaire. For instance, the majority of the respondents agreed ( $M=.26$ ,  $SD=.60$ ) to the fact that they use alcohol or other drugs to make them feel better. When asked if they threatened to harm someone, they answered in the affirmative “I threaten to harm someone” ( $M=.28$ ,  $SD=.63$ ). In addition, the majority of the respondents agreed ( $M=.29$ ,  $SD=.62$ ) to the emphatic statement that they slammed doors or punched walls (i.e. Throw temper tantrums) when they experienced challenging events in teaching children with SEN. The majority of the respondents agreed ( $M=.42$ ,  $SD=.71$ ) that they expressed negative feelings such as insulting or swearing at children.

In addition, the majority of the respondents disagreed ( $M=1.87$ ,  $SD=1.02$ ) that they thought hard about what steps to take. Furthermore, most of the respondents disagreed ( $M=1.77$ ,  $SD=.99$ ) that they prayed or meditated as a way of dealing with their burnout in inclusive classrooms. Also, the respondents disagreed ( $M=1.73$ ,  $SD=.99$ ) that they looked for something good in what was happening.

### **SECTION 3**

#### **Analysis of the Research Hypotheses**

The research hypotheses one to nine are presented in tables 10 and 21 respectively.

Emotional reactions on burnout of teachers teaching children with special needs and disabilities in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana: moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms.

**1. H<sub>0</sub>: Self-efficacy will not moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.**

**H<sub>1</sub>: Self-efficacy will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.**

In testing this hypothesis, a moderation analysis was computed for the data. In doing this, a hierarchical multiple regressions was used. Therefore, dummy coding was done for the self-efficacy scale. After this the moderation analysis was computed for how self-efficacy moderates the impact of emotional reactions on the burnout of teachers.

Table 12- *Model Summary of Moderator Analysis of Self-efficacy on emotional reaction on the burnout of teachers*

M	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					Change in R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.434 <sup>a</sup>	.188	.172	13.846	.188	11.831	2	298	.000
2	.5471 <sup>b</sup>	.222	.199	13.623	.034	4.369	1	297	.039

As indicated in Table 12, teachers' self-efficacy was entered into the first model to examine its role. The argument here is that the potency of the independent variable on the dependent variables can be enhanced by the moderating variable. The result from Table 12 shows that the component of emotional reaction became statistically significant when teachers' self-efficacy

was introduced into the first model. The table shows that a change in R<sup>2</sup> is 3.4% (0.034 x 100= 3.4%), which is a percentage increase in the variation explained by the addition of the interaction term. The table shows that this increase is statistically significant (p< 0.00). Therefore, it can be concluded that self-efficacy will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers. It can be implied that the level of impact that emotional reactions (feeling they give more than they get back when they teach exceptional children and getting worried to be teaching in an inclusive setting) can have impact on burnout of teachers and can be moderated by the level of self-efficacy they have.

**2. H<sub>0</sub>: Coping mechanisms will not moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.**

**H<sub>1</sub>: Coping mechanisms will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.**

In testing this hypothesis, moderation analysis was computed for the data. In doing this, a hierarchical multiple regressions was used. Therefore, a dummy coding was done for the coping mechanism scale. After this the moderation analysis was computed for how coping mechanism moderates the impact of emotional reactions on burnout of teachers.

Table 13 - *Model Summary of Moderator Analysis of Coping Mechanism on emotional reactions on the burnout of teachers*

M	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.459 <sup>a</sup>	.197	.185	13.866	.197	11.852	2	298	.000
2	.493 <sup>b</sup>	.243	.203	13.641	.041	4.391	1	297	.042



As indicated in Table 13, coping mechanism adopted by teachers was entered into the first model to examine its role. The argument here is that the potency of the independent variable on the dependent variables can be enhanced by the moderating variable. The results from Table 13 shows that the component of emotional reaction became statistically significant when coping mechanism adopted by teachers was introduced into the first model. Table 13 shows that a change in R<sup>2</sup> is 4.1% ( $0.041 \times 100 = 4.1\%$ ), which is a percentage increase in the variation explained by the addition of the interaction term. The table shows that this increase is statistically significant ( $p < 0.00$ ). Therefore, it can be concluded that coping mechanism will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers. Therefore, it can be implied that the level of impact that emotional reactions (feeling they give more than they get back when they teach exceptional children and getting worried to be teaching in an inclusive setting) can have impact on burnout of teachers and can be moderated by the coping mechanisms they adopt.

**3. H<sub>0</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their burnout.**

**H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their burnout.**

In an attempt to test the research hypothesis, one stated for this study, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficient was used to test if there is a statistically significant relationship between the self-efficacy of the teacher respondents and their burnout in their inclusive classrooms. The directions and degrees of relationship were also indicated. Both variables were continuous and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted were not violated.

Table 14 - Correlation (Pearson) of the Self-efficacy of Teachers on teaching and their Classroom burnout in their Inclusive Classrooms

		Self-efficacy	Burnout of Teachers
Self-efficacy	Pearson		-.221**
	Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	390	390
Burnout of Teachers	Pearson		1
	Correlation	-.221**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	390	390

\*\*  $p < 0.01$  (2-tailed).  $R^2 = .05$  (5%). Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

As shown in Table 14, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation ( $r$ ) was run to determine the relationship between the self-efficacy of teachers and their burnout. The results in the Table show a weak statistically significant negative relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their classroom burnout ( $r = -0.221$ ;  $n = 390$ ;  $p < 0.00$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, hence there is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their burnout. This is because the  $p$ -value is less than 0.05. The inverse correlation implies that the increase in teachers' self-efficacy on teaching will lead to a decrease in their burnout. The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) is 0.05. This means that their self-efficacy on teaching explains 5% of variation in their classroom burnout. The result shows that self-efficacy of teachers weakly relates to the burnout teachers experience in inclusive classrooms.

**4. H<sub>0</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' coping mechanism and their burnout.**

**H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' coping mechanism and their burnout.**

To test the research hypothesis two stated for this study, the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test if there is a statistically significant relationship between the choice of coping mechanism of the teacher respondents and their burnout in their inclusive classrooms. The directions and degrees of relationship were also indicated. Both variables were continuous and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted were not violated.

Table 15 - *Correlation (Pearson) of the Coping Mechanism of Teachers on teaching and their Classroom burnout in their Inclusive Classrooms*

		Coping Mechanism	Burnout of Teachers
Coping Mechanism	Pearson Correlation	1	-.822**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	390	390
Burnout of Teachers	Pearson Correlation	-.822**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	390	390

\*\* p < 0.01(2-tailed). R<sup>2</sup>=.10 (10%). Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

As shown in Table 15, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation (r) was run to determine the relationship between the choice of coping mechanism of teachers and their burnout. The results in the Table show a strong statistically significant inverse relationship between teacher

respondents' choice of coping mechanism and their classroom burnout ( $r = -0.822$ ;  $n = 390$ ;  $p > 0.00$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected hence there is statistically significant relationship between teachers' coping mechanism and their burnout. The inverse correlation implies that the increase in teachers' choice of coping mechanism on teaching (thus if teachers are able to make appropriate choice of coping mechanisms) will lead to a decrease in their burnout. The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) is 0.10. This means that their choice of coping mechanism on teaching explains 10% of variation in their classroom burnout. Generally, the result shows that choice of coping mechanism of teaching weakly relates to classroom burnout of teachers in inclusive classroom.

**5.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout.**

**$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout.**

To test the research hypothesis three stated for this study, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficient was used to test if there is a statistically significant relationship between the self-efficacy of the teacher respondents and their choice of coping mechanism on burnout in their inclusive classrooms. The directions and degrees of relationship were also indicated. Both variables were continuous and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted were not violated.

Table 16 - Correlation (Pearson) of the Self-efficacy of Teachers on teaching and their Coping Mechanism on burnout in their Inclusive Classrooms

		Self-efficacy	Coping Mechanism
Self-efficacy	Pearson		.702**
	Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	390	390
Coping Mechanism	Pearson	.702**	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	390	390

\*\* p < 0.01(2-tailed). R<sup>2</sup>=.0 (0%). Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

As shown in Table 16, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation (r) was run to determine the relationship between the self-efficacy of teachers and their coping mechanism on burnout. The results in the Table show a strong statistically significant direct relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their choice of coping mechanism on burnout (r = 0.702; n = 390; p > 0.00). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, hence there is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout. The direct correlation implies that the increase in teachers' self-efficacy will lead to an increase in choice of coping mechanism on their burnout. The coefficient of determination (r<sup>2</sup>) is 0.56. This means that their self-efficacy on teaching explains 56% of variation in their choice of coping mechanism on burnout. Generally, the result shows that self-efficacy of teaching strongly relates to the choice of coping mechanism on burnout of teachers in inclusive classroom.

**6. H<sub>0</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their emotional reactions.**

**H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their emotional reactions.**

To test the research hypothesis four stated for this study, the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test if there is a statistically significant relationship between the self-efficacy of the teacher respondents and their emotional reactions in their inclusive classrooms. The directions and degrees of relationship were also indicated. Both variables were continuous and therefore the assumptions of the statistical tool adopted were not violated.

Table 17 - *Correlation (Pearson) of the Self-efficacy of Teachers on teaching and their Emotional Reactions in their Inclusive Classrooms*

		Self-efficacy	Emotional Reaction
Self-efficacy	Pearson		.461**
	Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	390	390
Emotional Reactions	Pearson		1
	Correlation	.461**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	390	390

\*\* p < 0.01(2-tailed). R<sup>2</sup>=.21 (21%). Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

As shown in Table 17, the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r) was run to determine the relationship between the self-efficacy of teachers and their emotional reactions. The results in the Table show a moderate statistically significant direct relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their emotional reactions (r = 0.461; n = 390; p > 0.00). Therefore,

the null hypothesis is rejected; hence there is a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout. The direct correlation implies that the increase in teachers' self-efficacy on teaching will lead to an increase in emotional reactions. The coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) is 0.21. This means that the teachers' self-efficacy on teaching explains 21% of variation in their emotional reactions. Generally, the result shows that self-efficacy of teaching moderately relates to the emotional reactions of teachers in their inclusive classroom.

**7.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of the burnout they experience.**

**$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of the burnout they experience.**

The hypothesis sought to find out whether significant differences existed between male and female teachers with respect to their burnout in inclusive settings. The hypothesis was tested using independent samples t-test at 0.05 alpha level. Details of the results are shown in Table 18.

Table 18 - *Independent sample t-Test of Gender of Teachers and their burnout in their Inclusive Classrooms.*

Gender	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	<u>P</u>
Male	166	1.56	.84	1.391	387	.165
Female	223	1.45	.78			

$p < .05$  significant level                      Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

In Table 18, an independent sample t-test was conducted to test the difference between gender of the teachers and their burnout in their inclusive classrooms. The data was tested for two primary assumptions; Normality and Equality of variances assumptions. First, in checking the normality

assumption, the normal Q-Q plot was inspected. The output of the graph shows that the normality assumption was not violated since the plots were either on or closer to the diagonal line (see Appendix E). Secondly, the data was also checked for “equality of variance” assumption. This was done by inspecting the Levene’s test for equality of variances. This actually tested whether the variation of scores for the two groups (Male and Female) is the same. After a thorough inspection, the significance level of Levene’s test was ( $p=.161$ ). This shows that equality of variances assumption was not violated.

The independent sample t-test for equality of means shows no statistically significant difference,  $t(387) = 1.391$ ,  $p= .165$ . I therefore fail to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ). This implies that there is no significant difference between the male ( $M= 31.92$ ,  $SD= 3.51$ ) and female ( $M= 32.77$ ,  $SD= 4.10$ ) teachers with respect to their burnout in their inclusive classrooms.

**8.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant difference between the academic qualifications of teachers and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.**

**$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant difference between the academic qualifications of teachers and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.**

This hypothesis sought to investigate the difference in the teachers’ academic qualification with respect to their burnout in inclusive settings. The One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to test the hypothesis at 0.05 alpha level. A summary of the results is shown in Table 19.



Table 19 - *One-way ANOVA Test for Academic Qualifications of Teachers and their Classroom burnout*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.198	3	1.066	1.649	.178
Within Groups	249.494	386	.646		
Total	252.693	389			

p < .05 significant level

Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

In Table 19, the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to find out if differences existed among the academic qualifications of the teachers and their classroom burnout. Before the main test (thus, one-way ANOVA) preliminary analyses were conducted to test if the necessary assumptions were not violated. First, the normal Q-Q plot was inspected. The output of the graph shows that the normality assumption is not violated since most of the plots were closer to the diagonal line on the graph (see Appendix E). Next, the data was tested for “Homogeneity of Variances” assumption. In the light of this, Levene’s test was inspected and the significance value of the test was (p=.709). The significance value suggests that variances within the factors are assumed equal, hence, Homogeneity of variances assumption not violated.

The results in Table 19 revealed that there was no statistically significant difference among the academic qualification of the teachers and their classroom burnout [F (3, 386) =1.649, p=.178]. The null hypothesis is failed to be rejected. The result therefore implies that there is no statistically significant mean difference among the academic qualifications of the teachers and their classroom burnout.

**9. H<sub>0</sub>: There is no statistically significant difference between the teachers’ years of teaching and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.**

**H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between teachers’ years of teaching and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.**

This hypothesis sought to investigate the difference in the teachers’ years of teaching with respect to their burnout in inclusive settings. The One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to test the hypothesis at 0.05 alpha level.

A summary of the results is shown in Table 20.

Table 20 - *One-way ANOVA Test for Teachers’ years of teaching and their Classroom burnout*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.088	3	.363	.556	.644
Within Groups	251.605	386	.652		
Total	252.693	389			

p < .05 significant level Source: Field Survey, Ntoaduro (2020)

In Table 20, the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to find out if differences exist among the teachers’ years of teaching and their classroom burnout.

Before the main test (thus, the one-way ANOVA) preliminary analyses were conducted to test if the necessary assumptions were not violated. First, the normal Q-Q plot was inspected. The output of the graph shows that the normality assumption is not violated since most of the plots were closer to the diagonal line on the graph (see Appendix E). Next, the data was tested for “Homogeneity of Variances” assumption. In the light of this, Levene’s test was inspected and the significance value of the test was (p=.189). The

significance value suggests that variances within the factors are assumed equal and hence, Homogeneity of variances assumption not violated.

The result in the Table 20 revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the teachers' years of teaching and their classroom burnout [ $F(3, 386) = .556, p = .644$ ]. The null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The result therefore implies that there is no statistically significant mean difference among years of teaching of the teachers and their classroom burnout.

#### **Section 4: Discussion of the Results**

This section discusses the research findings in relation to the impact of the challenges, emotional reactions on burnout of teachers teaching children with special educational needs in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana: moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms. The discussion specifically addresses:

1. The emotional reactions of teachers who teach in inclusive schools.
3. How the emotional reactions of teachers in inclusive schools affect their burnout.
- 3 Sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana.
4. How a teacher's self-efficacy affects his/her teaching in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana.
5. Coping mechanisms teachers adopt to manage their burnout in inclusive schools.
6. Self-efficacy will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.

7. Coping mechanisms will moderate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.
8. Relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their burnout.
9. Relationship between teachers' coping mechanism and their burnout.
10. Relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their coping mechanism on burnout.
11. Relationship between teachers' self- efficacy and their emotional reactions.
12. Difference between male and female teachers in terms of the burnout they experience.
13. Difference between the academic qualifications of teachers and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.
14. Difference between the teachers' years of teaching and their burnout in inclusive classrooms.

### **Emotional Reactions of Teachers Who Teach in Inclusive Schools**

The findings of the study revealed that teacher respondents experience negative/poor emotional reactions in their inclusive classrooms. This finding corroborated that of Anaglooso (2018) who found in Benin City, Nigeria, that teachers in public schools exhibited poor emotional reactions towards the disruptive behaviours of their schools. He observed that most teachers use insults and other forms of punishment which he (as investigated) rated as abusive towards the students. He indicated that in one school, a teacher was found to have slapped a pupil for refusing to answer his question in class.

Onuwegbu and Enwuezor (2017) in a study to investigate teachers' responsiveness towards inclusive education in Jos, Nigeria, realised that 71%

out of the 270 teachers in inclusive schools had negative emotional reactions towards their students. Onuwegbu and Enwuezor conjectured that some of the students had cases of exceptionalities which require tact to handle. When teachers are made to combine such cases in the regular setting, then inclusiveness sets in. Some of the teachers get frustrated and end up showing negative emotions.

Smith (2016) found that teachers in Plymouth, England, showed positive emotional reaction in inclusive schools. He stated that teachers indicated that they were better placed to handle students' challenges and that was among some of the reasons they showed positive emotions. Out of the 110 teachers studied, 92% showed positive emotional reactions in inclusive classrooms.

Theoretically, social construction theory holds that the society determines what the reality is. According to Ruben (2017), 310 out of the 325 community members of Limbe, Cameroon, expected teachers to be stronger emotionally than other government workers. Their reason was that teachers are knowledgeable and have the power to face every challenge that comes their way. From the perspective of social construction theory, this notion held by the community members is socially constructed and may not necessarily be the case in reality. The finding of the current study indicates that teachers exhibited negative/ poor emotional reactions in their inclusive classrooms.

### **How the Emotional Reactions of Teachers in Inclusive Schools Affect Their Burnout**

The results of the study revealed a weak statistically significant positive relationship between the respondents' emotional reactions and their

classroom burnout. This finding is consistent with a study conducted by Chen and Ma (2017), who found a direct relationship between negative emotional reactions of teachers and their classroom burnout. They indicated that as teachers reacted negatively to problem behaviours of students, then the teachers' burnout were found to increase in level. They made this known in an ex-post-facto study to ascertain the impact of "Planned ignoring" and the "Premack's principle" in managing the disruptive behaviours of students in inclusive classroom in Johannesburg, South Africa.

Mindfulness theory posits that people become sensitive to an environment and support clearer thoughts and behaviours (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2017). What this means is that if teachers keep an open mind to the behaviour dispositions of exceptional children, the teachers will be in a position to accommodate and help the children with exceptional needs in inclusive settings, thus being mindful of the conditions of the children. This will help teachers to react positively towards children with exceptional needs thereby reducing their burnout. On the other hand, when teachers are mindless about the conditions of children with exceptionalities, teachers fail to understand children with exceptionalities and their handling becomes challenging for the teachers thereby increasing teacher burnout.

The finding also corroborated that of Williams (2017) who found in Gold Coast, Australia, that there was a positive relationship between pre-service teachers' emotional reactions and the burnout they go through in their classroom. Their study revealed that although pre-service teachers are taught how to depict positive emotional reactions in their classroom, 91% out of the

250 studied exhibited negative emotional reactions. This was also found to have correlated positively with their burnout levels.

Prolonged stress leads to burnout and this for me was right as in the case of the Williams (2017). Pre-service teachers may be faced with a number of constraints (studying, relationship issues, preparing to teach well among others) that attract their attention and put them in burnout situation. When emotional reactions become unresolved then, they become burnout for the pre-service teachers (Doupla, 2018).

However, Berger (2018) found in Aachen, Germany, that there was a strong inverse relationship between teachers' emotional reactions and their burnout. This current study does not corroborate with his findings. He explains that as teachers react in an emotionally negative manner towards their students then the teachers' burnout level decreases. However, this finding of Berger does not support the trend in literature. The trend in literature indicates that as emotional reactions increases, burnout also increases. I guess his finding will be right if and only if teachers see the expression of negative emotional reactions as a tool in managing their burnout. I find it hard to believe that a professional teacher with all the training he/she has received will see negative emotional reactions as a coping mechanism toward classroom burnout.

### **Sources of Teachers' Self-Efficacy in Inclusive Settings in Southern Ghana**

From the study, the sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana are mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal or social persuasion, emotional and physiological factors. Lungu (2017) found in Edinet, Moldova, that the source of self-efficacy for students was

vicarious experience. In the study, students revealed that they get motivated anytime they see their teachers perform a task. For them, this gives them a sense of belief that they can also do it. Out of the 315 students studied, 298(94.6%) held this perception.

Hernandez (2018), revealed in a study conducted in Cartagena, Columbia, that teachers who are well grounded in the subject matter showed a higher level of self-efficacy than their colleagues who were not well grounded in the subject matter. He added that teachers who are well grounded exude higher level confidence, they believe in themselves as well as their students.

Ingabire (2018) indicates, words are powerful. They can create and also destroy. Words can give a sense of belief in an individual and also a sense of disbelief in that same person. Ingabire made this known in a study conducted in Gatuna, Rwanda, to investigate teachers' sources of motivation in implementing a new national curriculum. I agree with Ingabire largely because what one hears often influences one's thinking and behaviour. If a child is constantly told that he or she is good, he or she develops the self-belief that propels him or her to even do better. On the contrary, if a child is always told that he or she is bad, it affects his or her confidence and self-belief and that translates to even his or her performance in school. I think teachers are not different because all individuals strive for acceptance. When kind words are used on teachers, the kind words give the teachers a sense of acceptance and self-belief.

Emotional and psychological challenges can determine one's self-efficacy. The state individuals are in influences how they judge their self-efficacy (Thompson, 2016). While anger and anxiety can breed low self-



efficacy, laughter (joy) and compassion bring about high self-efficacy (Ivanov, 2017). Ivanov made this revelation in a conference paper he presented in Uzhhorod, Ukraine. I think that when people are happy, they become emotionally stable. They are able to concentrate on a task, believe in themselves and the task done effectively. This buttresses Skinner's (1938) motivation strategy in his programmed instruction. Skinner expresses that teachers must ensure that their lessons are captivating in order to sustain students' self-efficacy and performance.

### **How Teachers' Self-Efficacy Affect their Teaching in Inclusive Settings in Southern Ghana**

The results of the study showed that the teachers exhibited low self-efficacy teaching in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana. It is a known fact that some of the students in inclusive schools have some peculiarities. These peculiarities require that teachers treat them in special ways to meet their challenges. These specialised assistances given may need a good sense of belief by the teacher. If a teacher believes that he/she is capable of handling children with special needs and their mates without exceptionalities in the same class, then inclusive education is on its success path.

Ahmad (2018) found in Kuching, Malaysia, that teachers' who teach in inclusive schools exhibited low self-efficacy as compared to their counterparts who teach in special schools. He indicated that 73% of 200 teachers in inclusive schools showed low self-efficacy, while 49% of another set of 200 teachers who taught in special schools exhibited low self-efficacy.

This finding is also supported by Baltes, Zhdanova, and Clark (2016), in a study they conducted in Clementi, Singapore. Their study revealed that

teachers who teach in inclusive settings have higher self-disbelief which tends to have a negative influence on the teachers. Baltes, Zhdanova, and Clark espoused that people still stigmatize children with special educational needs and the people associated with them. Whenever this happens, it affects the beliefs of the teachers as well as their students.

Wilks, and Spivey (2012), disagree with the finding of Baltes, Zhdanova, and Clark. Wilks and Spivy found that teachers in Maryland, USA exhibited high self-efficacy. Out of the 230 teachers used for the study, they had a mean of means of 3.7 which was above the cut-off mean of 2.5. All schools in Maryland are inclusive schools except those that are special schools. This might be as a result of the high literacy rate which makes inhabitants of Maryland conscious (mindful) of the need to avoid discrimination which is prohibited by enforced laws. This, I believe, may have its roots in social Constructionism which states that all knowledge is socially constructed including our knowledge of what reality is. It appears this has been strongly incorporated in the people's cultural setting and upbringing (social construction).

### **The Point of Convergence between the Qualitative and Quantitative Results**

The results on both the qualitative and quantitative results on self-efficacy indicate that there is a point of convergence between the two. The quantitative sought whether teachers have high or low self-efficacy while the qualitative sought to find out the sources of teachers' emotional reactions. The quantitative results revealed that teachers have low self-efficacy while the qualitative established that the sources of teachers' self-efficacy were mastery

of experience, vicarious experience, verbal or social persuasion and emotional and physiological factors. The results from the qualitative corroborated the quantitative in the sense that identifying whether teachers have low or high self-efficacy alone is not enough to resolve the problem if it is found out that teachers have low self-efficacy. There should rather be practical steps to find solutions to deal with the problem. As indicated in this study the teachers exhibited low self-efficacy and as such there should be practical steps to solve the problem as it has been posited by Bandura (1977) that teacher self-efficacy develops on the basis of information accessed through their sources of efficacy. Again, self-efficacy beliefs have a considerably important role to build our understanding of sources of self-efficacy of teachers. In this regard it was important that this study identified the sources underlying teachers' beliefs. This has important implications for teacher education and professional development hence it is recommended in chapter five that since teachers have low self-efficacy the Ghana education service as well as institutions training teachers must take cognisance of the sources of teachers' self-efficacy in order to design courses that can help build their self-beliefs.

### **Coping Mechanisms Teachers' Adopt to Manage their Burnout in**

#### **Inclusive Schools**

The finding of the study shows that teacher respondents used in the study use inappropriate coping mechanisms in dealing with their burnout in inclusive settings. Higgins (2017) found in Mandeville, Jamaica, that teachers who teach in inclusive schools use coping strategies that are inappropriate in managing their burnouts. He indicated that 83% of 195 respondents revealed they have ever used unprintable words on students who misbehave in their

inclusive classrooms. Out of the 83% who admitted to have ever used unprintable words, 96% of them indicated they had used unprintable words at least more than three times on their students.

The finding of the study is also in line with the finding of Mulenga (2017) in Mongu, Zambia. Mulenga's respondents reported that they used shouting and yelling at students as ways of dealing with their burnout in inclusive classrooms. In the transcribed interviews, she revealed that some of the teachers showed remorse in using such a coping mechanism in managing their burnout. One of the respondents explained that she goes to school already angry with herself as she sees some of her colleagues in other places of work doing well for themselves. Upon this, any slightest thing in the classroom angers her, hence, she resorted to the use of shouting and yelling. My study although did not employ interview for this particular variable, the quantitative method used indicate some teachers resort to yelling, caning and threats as a coping mechanism. These coping mechanisms are not inappropriate coping mechanism as the effect on even the teachers can be devastating.

Bianchi's (2018) finding was at variance with the finding of the current study. In Bologna, Italy, he found among 450 teachers that they used appropriate coping techniques in addressing their classroom burnout. Their number one coping strategy was sublimation. Sublimation is the process of the channelling of a morally or socially unacceptable impulse towards something else, especially some form of creativity that is considered more appropriate. Some of the teachers revealed that they tried to find something positive in the disruptive behaviours of students rather than focusing on the disruptive behaviour and reacting emotionally negative. For example, my study revealed

that some teachers resort to praying and meditating in their times of frustration. It appears this was a good coping mechanism which could improve their health and well-being and maintain a conducive teaching environment.

From a theoretical perspective, people who are mindful use appropriate coping strategies, while those that are mindless use inappropriate strategies. If teachers can be open-minded, they will understand the conditions in which exceptional children find themselves, but if they have a closed mind, they may not be able to comprehend the problem behaviours of exceptional children. It can therefore be concluded that teacher respondents are mindless rather than mindful of exceptional children in inclusive classrooms.

### **Self-Efficacy will Moderate Emotional Reactions and Burnout of Teachers**

The study revealed that self-efficacy moderates emotional reactions and burnout of teachers. It therefore appears that the kind of self-belief one has, will determine the way one reacts emotionally and the burnout he or she goes through. If an individual has low self-efficacy, it affects one psychologically as well as socially. This determines the way he or she reacts emotionally which also determines his or her burnouts.

Galatas (2016) found in Pireas, Greece, that self-efficacy moderate the emotional reactions and burnout of line managers of health facilities. He stated that managers with low self-efficacy exhibit negative emotional reactions which further expose them to burnout conditions. In other words, the level of burnout and emotional reactions of a person can be moderated by the level of self-efficacy of that individual.

The results of a study by Joshi (2016) showed that self-belief becomes a moderator to the effect of the emotional reactions one shows. In a study conducted in Lalitpur, Nepal, it tested the moderation effect of self-efficacy on emotional reactions of parents on their wards.

Emotional state of individuals affects how they judge their self-efficacy. Low self-efficacy can be a result of anger and anxiety while high self-efficacy can result from laughter (joy) and compassion (Ivanov, 2017). This revelation was made in Uzhhorod, Ukraine when Ivanov presented a paper at a conference. Happy people generally appear to be emotionally stable hence they are more able to concentrate on a task, perform the task effectively as they believe in themselves.

### **Coping Mechanisms Moderating Emotional Reactions and Burnout of Teachers**

The study revealed that coping mechanism moderates emotional reactions and burnout of teachers. The study corroborates a study in Bukoba, Tanzania. Saidi (2017) in this study found that the effect of burnout of teachers is moderated by self-efficacy. He explained that effects of burnout a person experiences are moderated by the coping mechanism that is used in managing their burnouts.

Demchack (2018) holds a rather different opinion. In a study he conducted in Eger, Hungary, he found that the effect of emotional reactions on pre-service teachers' burnout is not moderated by the coping mechanisms they adopt in managing their burnouts and emotional reactions. He argued that emotional reactions and burnout are different concepts and independent, hence

the coping mechanism one adopts will not necessarily influence the effect of emotional reactions on burnout.

It may be difficult to agree with Demchack's findings because how a person reacts emotionally is a matter of choice. It is a decision one has to make; if the right decision is made, it has the potential to reduce or do away with some of the burnout one experiences. The decision here refers to the coping strategy one adopts. It can therefore be concluded that coping mechanism moderates emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.

### **Relationship between Teachers' Self- Efficacy and Their Burnout**

The study revealed that there is a weak statistically significant inverse relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their classroom burnout. This is consistent with Meyer's (2017) finding. In a study conducted in Lugano, Switzerland, Meyer found that self-efficacy correlated negatively with the burnout of final year students of the Franklin University. She explained that as self-efficacy of students' increases, their burnout decreases. This may be so because when people have high self-efficacy, they become psychologically prepared to face their burnouts and this is corroborated by Cherian & Jacobs, (2013); Cetin & Askun (2018). For instance, a student who has a high belief in himself or herself can deal with his or her burnout (the fear of exams) much better. In this regard, as the belief in himself or herself increases, then the fear of exams decreases.

Kowalski (2018) found an inverse relationship between self-efficacy of teachers and their burnout. This was made known in a study he conducted on 300 teachers in Gdynia, Poland. His study revealed a strong inverse relationship between the two constructs ( $r = -0.736$ ;  $n = 300$ ;  $p > 0.01$ ).

### **Relationship Between teachers' Coping Mechanism and their Burnout**

The study showed there is a strong statistically significant negative relationship between teacher respondents' choice of coping mechanism and their classroom burnout. The finding is in line with Crovetto (2017) who found in Menton, Monaco, that as teachers adopt appropriate coping mechanisms in dealing with their emotional reactions, their burnout decreases. This may be expected because not knowing what to do right in the midst of a burnout can worsen a person's plight. This is because burnout is viewed as resulting from the inability of a person to cope with work related stress and associated with deteriorated social relations, long term exhaustion and diminished interest in the profession (Maslach, 1982; Ratliff, 1988; Sacco, 2011). In the case of teachers, if a teacher should resort to alcoholism (coping mechanism) when he or she has maladaptive behaviour of students to modify (burnout), he or she may end up not being able to cause a change.

The finding is abased with the finding of Torres (2017) in Buena Vista, Gibraltar. Torres found a strong inverse relationship between teacher respondents' choice of coping mechanism and their classroom burnout. The coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) was 0.76. It means that coping mechanism explains 76 % of the variations in the burnout of teachers.

### **Relationship between Teachers' Self-Efficacy and their Coping Mechanism on their Burnout**

The study brought to light that there is a strong statistically significant direct relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their choice of coping mechanism on burnout. In practice, the self-belief of a person will determine his or her choice of coping mechanism. In most cases if there is a



higher self-belief, then there will be a positive or appropriate choice of coping mechanisms.

This finding supports that of Yamada (2016) who found in Kobe, Japan, that there is a positive relationship between self-efficacy and coping mechanism in dealing with burnout. Teachers with low self-efficacy made inappropriate choices with regard to the coping mechanisms in managing their burnout levels. He indicated that teachers as role models must be cautious in their actions.

In Pattaya City, Thailand, Saeli (2016) buttresses the finding of the current study. He found that final year education students who had higher self-efficacy used appropriate coping mechanisms in overcoming test anxiety. There was a positive relationship between the self-efficacy of students and the coping mechanisms they adopt in dealing with their burnout. His finding could be explained to mean that as students' self-efficacy increases, appropriate choices of coping mechanisms also increases.

### **Relationship between Teachers' Self-Efficacy and their Emotional Reactions**

The study revealed that there is a moderate statistically significant direct relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their emotional reactions. Perez (2015), found that teachers' self-efficacy was strongly related to their human relations ( $r = 0.821$ ;  $n = 400$ ;  $p > 0.02$ ). Accordingly, candidates who develop strong feelings of teacher efficacy early in their pre-service professional education are better prepared to relate effectively with the people around them. He added that as a teacher's self-efficacy increases, his or her human relations also improve. An increase in the

self-belief will result in a corresponding increase in the way he or she relates with people.

Mathew (2017) found in Measaieed, Qatar, that there is a spurious relationship between self-efficacy and emotional reactions. He found no link between self-efficacy and emotional reaction. He made this known when he studied 250 students in an Islamic University. He argued that people's emotional reactions are dependent on factors such as religion, family upbringing, biological and other environmental factors rather than just self-efficacy of the individual. It is difficult agreeing with Mathew because each of the factors could either improve or worsen a person's self-efficacy. The self-efficacy will in turn determine to a large extent how that individual will react emotionally. This is buttressed by Goddard, Hoy, and Woolfolk-Hoy, (2012); Labone, (2014) and Wheatley, (2015) who indicated that when the self-efficacy of teachers is high, they have the resilience and motivation to teach effectively.

### **Difference between Male and Female Teachers in terms of the Burnout they Experience**

The study again revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between the male and female teachers with respect to their burnout in their inclusive classrooms. It is right to think that because of the biological differences between males and females, there should be differences in the burnout they experience. The question that arises is whether the difference is significant or not. The study revealed that the difference is not significant.

Adu-Gyamfi (2015) found in his study that there is no significant difference between male and female teachers in second cycle institutions in

the Bekwai Municipality in terms of their burnout. In his studies, females ( $M=2.12$ ,  $SD=0.93$ ) had more burnout than their male counterparts ( $M=2.37$ ,  $SD=1.03$ ). Although a difference existed, it was not significant ( $df = 220$ ,  $t = 1.314$ ,  $p = 0.17$ ).

The finding of the study is also supported by the finding of Kebede (2017) who found in Hosaena, Ethiopia, that there is no significant difference between male and female pre-service teachers who were on educational attachment in terms of their burnout. In this study, both sexes had received the same amount of training, they were given equal allowances and support, hence it was expected that significant differences will not manifest in their burnout levels.

The society has constructed the reality that males are stronger than females emotionally (Titus, 2014; Schneider & Hacker, 2011). It is therefore expected that females should have more burnout than males. This is the basis of the social construction theory. Specific reference to the study area supports the assertion of the social construction theory. It must however be stressed that it differs from one society to another. This was the situation of the current study. Education by means of training offered both sexes, put them at par, hence the finding.

### **Difference between the Academic Qualifications of Teachers and their Burnout in Inclusive Classrooms**

The result indicates that there is no statistically significant mean difference among academic qualifications of the teachers and their classroom burnout. Shehu (2018) in Vlore, in Albania, found that there was no statistically significant difference among the qualification of the teachers and

their burnout [ $F(43, 315) = 1.473, p = .126$ ]. Even though he found differences among teachers who held diploma, bachelors and master's degree in terms of their burnout, these differences were not significant.

It appears that as people gain higher degrees, their appreciation of things improves and their burnout decreases. I expected significant differences among the teachers because of their levels of educational qualifications. Despite the variations in educational qualifications and programmes of study, they could grasp certain concepts which helped them to face life.

Novak (2016) found in Osijek, Croatia, that there was insignificant difference among the ranks of teachers and the burnout they experienced. He found that those at managerial positions did not experience more burnout than those with low ranks. It is apparent that professional promotions are based on the academic qualifications of teachers. It can therefore be said of the findings of Novak that teachers with higher academic levels did not differ significantly from those with lower academic levels.

### **Difference between Teachers' Years of Teaching and their Burnout in Inclusive Classrooms**

The result of the study showed that there is no statistically significant difference between teachers' years of teaching and their classroom burnout. The finding of the study is supported by Garcia (2016) who found in San Miguel in El Salvador that there were no differences in the burnout teachers face in terms of their years of teaching experience. He found differences in their mean scores, but those differences were not significant.

Boakye (2014), had earlier found that there were no differences among Polytechnic lecturers' years of teaching experience and their burnout.

This is attributed to the increase in workload for experienced lecturers, while in the case of new lecturers, their concern about gaining experience in their job and rising through the ranks becomes a source of burnout. The burnout levels therefore have insignificant differences although the sources of the burnout differ (Salami, 2011; Watts, & Roberston, 2011).

Lai (2018), however, found difference among the years of teaching of basic school teachers regarding their burnout. He found differences between those who had taught for below five years and those who had taught for between fifteen to twenty years. There was also a difference between those who had taught for between ten and fifteen years and those who had taught for twenty to twenty-five years.

#### **The interaction effect of Gender, Academic qualification and Years of Experience and Teachers' Burnout**

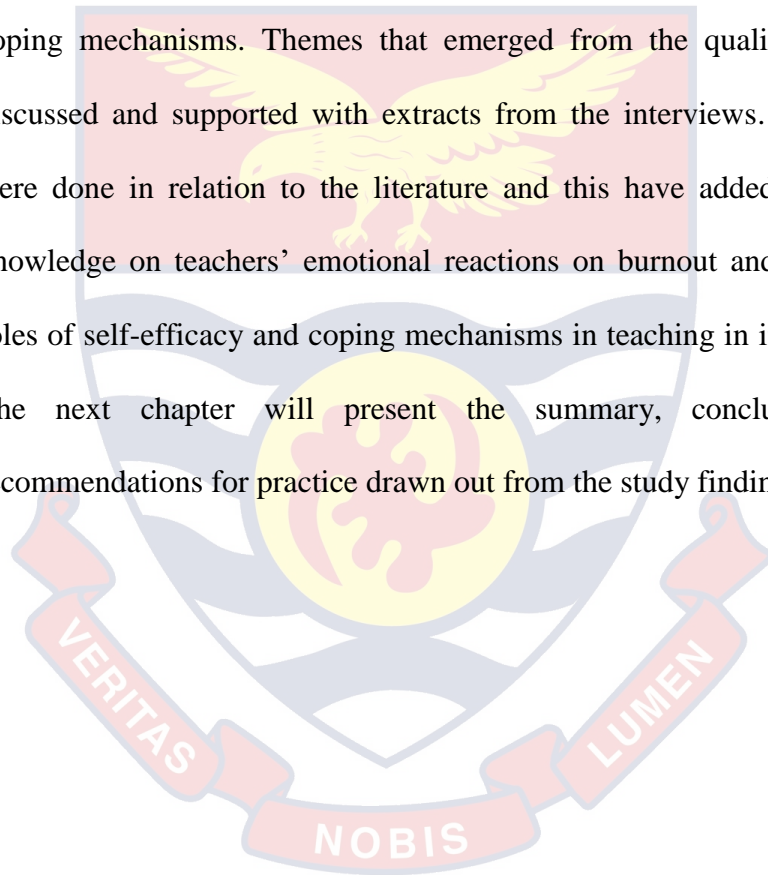
The purpose of the hypothesis was to ascertain the interaction effect of the three demographic variables studied. The results revealed that there was no significant interaction effect among the three variables. This was consistent with the finding of Ivanov (2017) in a study conducted in Uzhhorod, Ukraine to determine the interaction effect of years of work experience, rank or status and gender lecturers' mode of teaching. He found that there was no interaction effect among the variables. His study revealed that although there were mean differences between years of work experience and rank of lecturers, the difference was not significant.

Caron (2018) found that there was no interaction effect among students' years in school, gender and programme of study and their academic performance. This was revealed in a study to assess the academic performance

of students in Montpellier in France. He explained that the reason was because there were no statistically significant differences in the various categories of the variables under study.

### Summary

This chapter analysed and discussed the results of the research questions and hypotheses within the context of relevant literature on teachers' emotional reactions and burnout and the moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms. Themes that emerged from the qualitative data were discussed and supported with extracts from the interviews. The discussions were done in relation to the literature and this have added to the body of knowledge on teachers' emotional reactions on burnout and the moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms in teaching in inclusive schools. The next chapter will present the summary, conclusions and the recommendations for practice drawn out from the study findings.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, a summary of the findings of the study is presented. Conclusions drawn and recommendations made are all presented under this section.

#### Summary

This study sought to investigate emotional reactions and burnout of teachers teaching exceptional children in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana: moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms. The study used convergent mixed method approach where quantitative and qualitative data were merged in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. A sample of 390 teachers was drawn from a population of 3090 from 182 schools through purposive, proportionate cluster and systematic sampling techniques. Questionnaires and an interview guide were used to elicit responses from the respondents. A pilot- test was conducted in Ashanti Region. The data collection period lasted for two months and three days. The study answered five research questions and tested nine hypotheses. The version 25 of the Statistical Package for Service Solutions Software (SPSS) was used to process the data. Frequencies and Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations, Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient, Independent T-test, ANOVA and Multiple Regressions Test for moderation were used to analyse the quantitative data. Thematic analysis as suggested by Terreblanche

and Durrheim (2014) was used to analyse the qualitative data to gain a better understanding of the participants' world.

### **Key Findings**

The following findings were arrived at based on the research questions and the hypotheses formulated for the study.

1. The teachers expressed poor emotional reactions in their inclusive classrooms.
2. The results of the study showed that the emotional reactions of teachers directly relate to classroom burnout of teachers.
3. The sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana are mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal or social persuasion, emotional and physiological factors.
4. The results of the study showed that the teachers exhibited low self-efficacy in teaching in inclusive setting in Southern Ghana.
5. The study revealed that teachers adopt inappropriate coping mechanisms in dealing with their burnout in inclusive settings.
6. It was established that Self-efficacy moderates emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.
7. Coping mechanism moderates emotional reactions and burnout of teachers.
8. It was revealed that there is a weak statistically significant inverse relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their classroom burnout.



9. It was revealed that a strong statistically significant negative relationship exists between teacher respondents' choice of coping mechanism and their classroom burnout.
10. It came to light that there is a strong statistically significant direct relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their choice of coping mechanism on burnout.
11. The results of the study indicated that there is a moderate statistically significant direct relationship between teacher respondents' self-efficacy and their emotional reactions.
12. The study again revealed that there is no significant difference between the male and female teachers with respect to their burnout in their inclusive classroom.
13. The results indicated that there is no statistically significant mean difference among academic qualification of the teachers and their classroom burnout.
14. The results of the study showed that there is no statistically significant mean difference among years of teaching of the teachers and their classroom burnout.

### **Emerged Model for Dealing with Children with exceptional needs**

The observed model was derived from the tested hypotheses. This is presented in Figure 2.

Observed Model

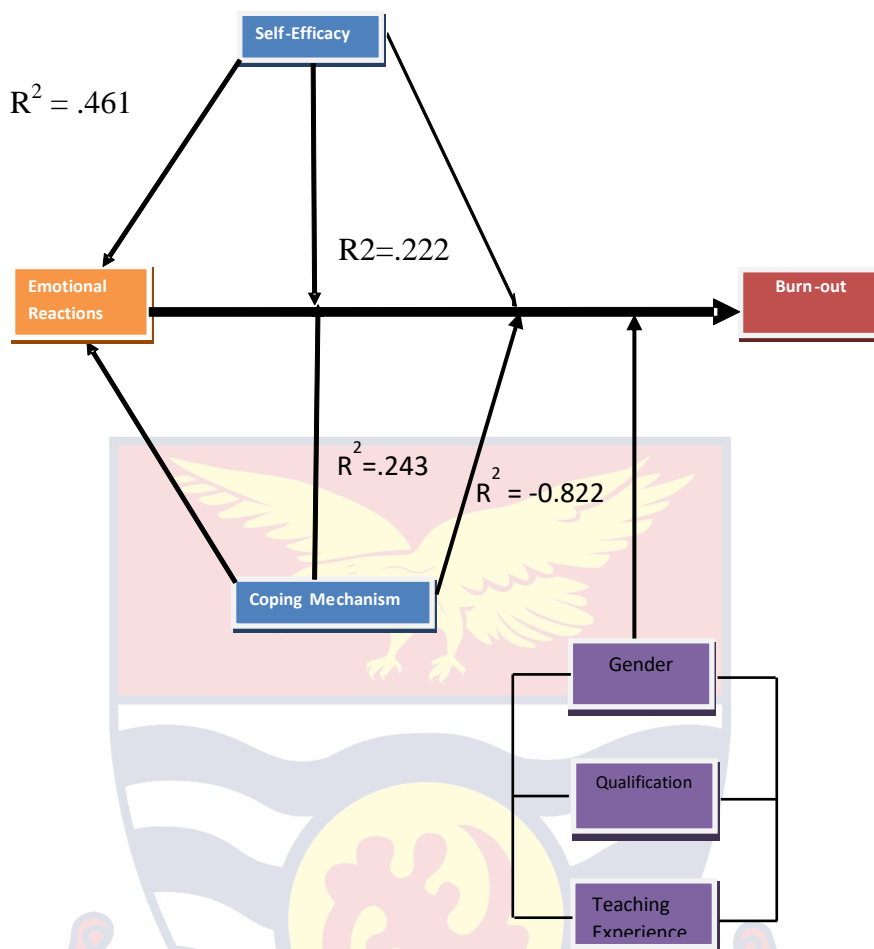


Figure 2: Observed Conceptual Framework (Researcher's Own Construct)

The variables in the current study and how they are related to give meaning to the investigation are presented in Figure 2. The independent variable is emotional reactions while the dependent variable is burnout. The study hypothesized that self-efficacy and coping mechanisms moderate the effect of emotional reaction on burnout. Upon testing the hypotheses, the findings revealed that indeed self-efficacy and coping mechanisms moderate the effect of emotional reaction on burnout. It was also hypothesized that gender, educational qualification and teaching experience may influence the independent variable and the dependent variable. It was however, observed

from the finding that this was only a conjecture so it was rejected based on the fact of the evidence. This explains why the three demographic variables are not seen in the observed model. It can be concluded from the model that when teachers teach in inclusive schools, their emotional reactions increase and that leads to a corresponding increase in their burnout.

This model will serve as a basis for future researchers who may be interested in the study. The model brings definiteness to the propositions held by researchers prior to this study. I intend to publish the findings of this study and also visit as many inclusive schools as possible to educate teachers, parents and students on the emerged model. These answers will be beneficial to policy makers who will want to cause a change about inclusive education in Ghana. For instance, the study brings to the fore the fact that teachers who teach exceptional children in inclusive settings have emotional reactions and as these emotional reactions increase, the burnouts of these teachers also increase.

### **Conclusions**

Teaching is an art and a science which culminates into a number of factors. These included the kind of training the teacher has had, the people the teacher associates with, his /her emotional reactions, how the teacher copes with situations and the activities/events that take away the teachers' happiness and attention.

It can be concluded from the study that teachers who teach in inclusive settings experience emotional reactions and burnout. The study further established the fact that self-efficacy of teachers as well as their choice of coping mechanism to a larger extent determines the burnout of teachers who

teach exceptional children in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana. The study has brought to light a novelty in the moderating effects of the self-efficacy and coping mechanism on the burnout of teachers who teach children with special educational needs and disabilities in inclusive schools in Southern Ghana.

## **Recommendations**

### ***Recommendations for teacher education***

The following recommendations are made for teacher education in the light of the findings and conclusions from the study.

1. The results of the study showed that the teachers exhibited low self-efficacy in teaching in inclusive setting in Southern Ghana. It is therefore recommended that Authorities of institutions that train teachers should ensure that their curriculum includes activities that can help boost teachers' self-efficacy. All prospective teachers should be exposed to at least a compulsory component on inclusive education. An additional comprehensive special education course along with a practical component should be introduced in all teacher training institutions to widen teacher trainees' teaching perspectives in order to equip them with the skills to enable them appropriately teach children with exceptional needs without stress. The courses must engage in problem-solving skills and boost their self-efficacy and develop their coping mechanisms. Since we are in a technological world, the training must help the teachers to abreast themselves with technology in order to have mastery which was identified as the source of self-efficacy. This is so critical because it has a rippling effect in terms of how the teachers will transmit the search image to pupils as well as how they

will deal with their colleagues and superiors. It even becomes more of a necessity, as the dispositions of children with exceptional needs may be at variance with mates without such needs. It will therefore take a teacher with a higher self-efficacy to effectively blend these two categories of children and teach them accordingly without stress.

2. The study again revealed that sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana included vicarious experience and verbal or social persuasion. It is thus suggested that the Ghana Education Service should ensure that support systems are created within schools, among schools and among districts or regions. This is because social support enhances quality of life and provides a buffer against adverse life events. Some recommended support systems include:

- a. Esteemed Support-this type of social support is shown in the expression of confidence or encouragement. Someone offering esteemed support might point out the strengths you are forgetting you have or just let you know that they believe in you. Once the support systems are created among schools then colleague teachers can serve as life coaches for each other and offer this type of support knowing that they believe in themselves. This would lead to teachers believing in themselves more.

- b. Informational support-those offering informational support do so in the form of advice given or in gathering and sharing information that can help people know of potential next steps

that may work well. Thus, teachers meeting among themselves would give them the opportunity to share their experiences and advice on how they are dealing with peculiar issues relating to the teaching of children with exceptional needs in their schools so it becomes a learning platform. Such information should be digitized and be made assessable in a shared database.

- c. Tangible support includes taking on responsibilities for someone else so they can deal with the problem or in other ways taking an active stance to help someone manage a problem they are experiencing. Colleague teachers may offer tangible support by helping the teacher who is burnout or have low self-efficacy as a result of teaching children with exceptional needs in inclusive classroom brainstorm solutions (rather than telling him/her what he/she should do) or in other ways actively help the burnout teacher deal with the issue at hand.

This may be beneficial in providing support to decrease feelings of burnout experienced by teachers. These support systems will provide teachers with a group of people to share strategies and provide opportunities for problem-solving on issues that arise regarding student situations. This will encourage professional collaboration and provide avenue for stress release.

3. The sources of teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana are, verbal or social persuasion. The results can be improved if School Authorities or Administrators such as Headteachers and School Improvement Support Officers (SISO) help teachers to reduce their

burnout and boost their self-esteem. School Administrators can have routine meetings with teachers during which the administrators inquire genuinely about the teachers' wellbeing and look for lurking signs of burnout. In this vain, the administration can schedule routine meetings and discuss issues the teachers have so that it does not culminate to burnout. The services of a clinical psychologist can be employed during such meetings to help promote resilience and help the teachers to discover their strengths. This can be successful if school administrators are open, helpful, responsive and fair.

4. The results of the study showed that the emotional reactions of teachers directly relate to classroom burnout of teachers. Based on this finding the Ghana Education Service through their Guidance and Counselling Unit and Special Education Division in collaboration with Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) should engage clinical psychologists and counsellors to teach teachers strategies they can adopt to cope with feelings of burnout. During such workshops, teachers must be helped to understand that burnouts are part of human life, hence, the need for all including teachers to find ways of dealing with them. Also, teachers should be encouraged by counsellors and clinical psychologists to know themselves especially what they can do and cannot do. This is essential because teaching children who are exceptional requires the caregiver/ teacher to develop positive attitude and readiness to teach them. In addition, counsellors and clinical psychologists must educate all teachers, especially those who teach exceptional children to imbibe lifelong learning. This will enable the

teachers to be abreast with new methods of handling the children. This is important because humans do not necessarily turn to the right coping mechanisms when faced with stress and must be guided toward these healthy attitudes through education, counselling and guided practice.

### *Recommendations for Policymaking*

The following recommendations are necessary for policymaking based on the findings from the study and the conclusions.

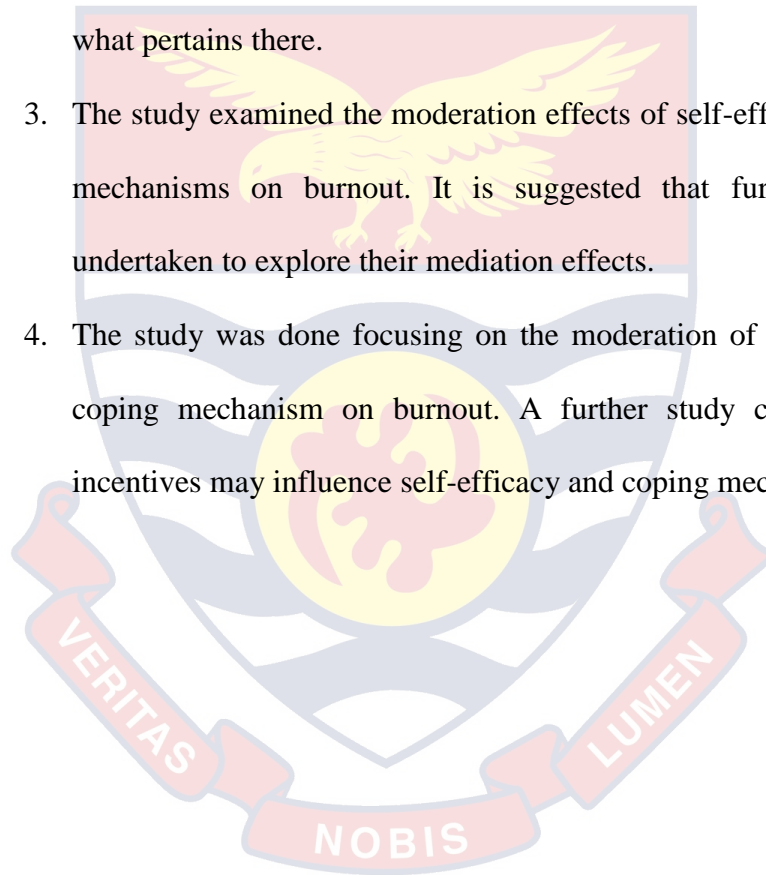
1. The results of the study showed that the emotional reactions of teachers directly relate to classroom burnout of teachers. In this regard some aspects of training will require the services of a clinical psychologist. The Ghana Education Service should have a policy where every school has a clinical psychologist to assist teachers to deal with their burnout.
2. The results of the study showed that the emotional reactions of teachers directly relate to classroom burnout of teachers. This indicates that teachers experience burnout as a result of the negative emotional reactions they experience. It is therefore suggested that there should be a policy by Ghana Education Service where mental and physical health amenities are provided in schools to offer mindfulness practices. Schools should have proper gymnasiums and exercise programmes with minimal or no cost to each school. Hobby courses, yoga and meditation exercises must be provided. This will help reduce stress and teachers will have a good mental and physical shape.



### Suggestions for Further Research

The findings and limitations of the present study revealed several avenues for future research exploring the following:

1. The study was carried out in three regions; a further research could be carried out in other regions to ascertain what pertains there.
2. The study was carried out in only basic schools, a further study could be extended to the second cycle and tertiary institutions to ascertain what pertains there.
3. The study examined the moderation effects of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms on burnout. It is suggested that further studies are undertaken to explore their mediation effects.
4. The study was done focusing on the moderation of self-efficacy and coping mechanism on burnout. A further study can explore how incentives may influence self-efficacy and coping mechanisms.



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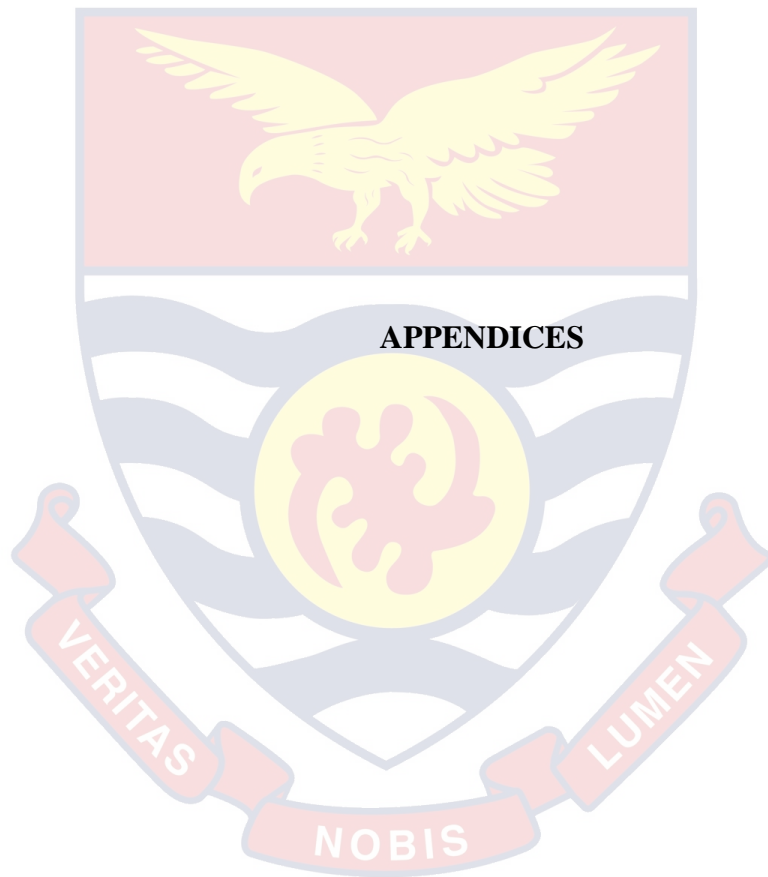


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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS IN THE INCLUSIVE SCHOOLS

I am a PhD student of the University of Cape Coast and currently embarking on a study on Emotional Reactions and Burnout of Teachers Teaching Children with exceptional needs in Inclusive Schools in Southern Ghana: Moderating Roles of Self-Efficacy and Coping Mechanisms. The study aims at identifying teachers' emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy and coping mechanisms in teaching exceptional children in inclusive settings.

I am aware of your busy schedule, but I feel strongly that you can supply the necessary information for this study. It is not a test so feel free to express your opinion. You are not required to write your name anywhere on this question. You are assured that the information you supply would be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank You.

**Name: Afua Ntoaduro**

**Contact: 0244963964**

## SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

Instruction: Please specify your response by writing or ticking (✓) in the appropriate spaces provided.

1. Gender of Respondent:

Male [ ]

Female [ ]

2. Academic Qualification:

Cert A [ ]

Diploma [ ]

Degree [ ]

Masters [ ]

Any other? Please, specify .....

3. Teaching Experience:

Below 5 years [ ]

5 years 10years [ ]

More than 10 years [ ]

## SECTION B: EMOTIONAL REACTIONS OF TEACHERS

**Instructions:** Read each statement and make sure you understand it. On the right side of each statement, there is a row of boxes; tick (✓) the most appropriate box that best describes your response to the statement in terms of how you react to teaching children with exceptional needs in your classroom. The responses range from 1. SD= Strongly Disagree e, 2. D=Disagree, 3. A= Agree 4 SA=Strongly disagree.

STATEMENTS	SD	D	A	SA
1. I feel good teaching children with exceptional needs.				
2. I suppress my bad mood or negative reactions when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
3. I often feel tired teaching children with exceptional needs.				
4. I often think I can't take it anymore teaching children with exceptional needs.				
5. I often feel sick working with children with exceptional needs.				
6. I find it is hard work teaching children with exceptional needs.				
7. I find it frustrating to work with children with exceptional needs.				
8. I feel that I give more than I get back when I teach children with exceptional needs.				
9. I feel proud of myself after teaching children with exceptional needs.				
10. I get nervous when it is time to teach children with exceptional needs.				
11. I feel pity for myself in interacting with children with exceptional needs.				
12. I feel anxious when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
13. I get irritated when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
14. I feel embarrassed when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
15. I get worried to be teaching in an inclusive setting.				
16. I get excited when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
17. I feel helpless when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
18. I feel hopeless when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
19. I experience remorse when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
20. I get impulsive teaching children with exceptional needs.				
21. I feel non-appreciative when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
22. I feel satisfied when teaching children with exceptional needs.				
23. I feel relaxed when teaching children with exceptional needs.				

**SECTION C: EFFECTS OF TEACHERS’ EMOTIONAL REACTIONS**

(By “burnout” we mean frustration and tiredness due to overwork burnout).

*Instruction: Read each statement and make sure you understand it. On the right side of each statement there is a row of boxes; tick (√) the most appropriate box that best describes your response to the statement. Score from 0 – 5 the following items according to your feelings when asked /required to teach children with exceptional needs. Use the following KEY to guide you in choosing the option that applies to you.*

**KEY**

- 0. Never
- 1. Everyday
- 2. Once a week
- 3. Sometimes in a month
- 4. Once a month
- 5. Once a year

STATEMENTS	0	1	2	3	4	5
1. I feel tired at the end of a work day.						
2. I experience helplessness.						
3. I feel emotionally drained from my work.						
4. I feel frustrated.						
5. I feel burnout from my work.						
6. I feel I am working too much on my job.						
7. I feel burned out; it puts strain on me.						
8. My tiredness continues in the morning.						
9. I feel very energetic.						
10. I feel I treat some exceptional children as if they were impersonal objects.						
11. I have become more heartless towards children with exceptional needs since I took this job.						
12. I don't really care about what happens to some children with exceptional needs.						
13. I worry that this job is draining me emotionally.						

**SECTION D: SELF-EFFICACY OF TEACHERS.** (By self-efficacy we mean the belief that an individual has in his or her abilities to successfully accomplish a task)

**Instruction:** Read each statement and make sure you understand it. On the right side of each statement there is a row of boxes; **tick (√) the most appropriate box that best describes your response to the statement concerning your self- efficacy in teaching children with exceptional needs.** Use the following **KEY** to guide you in choosing the option that applies to you.

**Key**

**0. Not at All**

**1. Hardly True**

**2. Somehow True**

**3. Very True**

STATEMENTS	0	1	2	3
1. If I try hard enough, I can always manage to solve difficult problems of children with exceptional.				
2. I can find the means and ways to manage difficult children.				
3. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals in an inclusive setting.				
4. I can deal efficiently with children with exceptional needs.				
5. I know how to handle children with exceptional needs.				
6. I can remain calm when facing difficulties dealing with children with exceptional needs.				
7. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.				
8 I am unable to find solutions to problems of children with exceptional needs.				
9. I am unable to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals in an inclusive setting.				
10. I cannot remain calm when facing challenges dealing with children with exceptional needs.				
11. I am unable to handle whatever comes my				



**SECTION E: COPING MECHANISMS FOR MANAGING BURNOUT**

(By “coping mechanisms” we mean what you do to overcome the burnout you experience)

*Instruction: Kindly put a tick (√) in the appropriate column to indicate your response to each of the statements in this section concerning what YOU usually do when YOU experience a burnout or a challenging event in teaching children with exceptional needs.*

Use the following **KEY** to guide you in choosing the option that applies to you.

**KEY**

**0 = Never.            2= Often**

**1 = Sometimes      3= always**

STATEMENT	0	1	2	3
<b>Whenever I experience a challenging event:</b>				
1. I turn to work on other activities.				
2. I do something about the situation.				
3. I say to myself “this isn’t real”.				
4. I use alcohol or other drugs to make me feel better.				
5. I slam doors or punch walls (i.e. Throw temper tantrums) when I experience challenging events in teaching children with exceptional needs.				
6. I get emotional support from others.				
7. I give up trying to deal with it.				
8. I threaten to harm someone.				
9. I refuse to believe that it has happened.				
10. I say things to let my unpleasant feelings escape.				

11. I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.				
12. I criticize myself.				
13.. I use or threaten to use a cane against children or someone.				
14. I look for something good in what is happening.				
15. I make jokes about it.				
16. I shout or yell at children.				
<b>STATEMENT</b> <b>Whenever I experience a challenging event:</b>	0	1	2	3
17. I accept the reality of the fact that it has happened.				
18. I express my negative feelings such as insulting or swearing at children.				
19. I try to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs.				
20. I learn to live with it.				
21. I think hard about what steps to take.				
22. I blame myself for things that happen.				
23. I pray or meditate.				

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION**

**APPENDIX B**  
**FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS**  
**INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS IN THE INCLUSIVE**  
**SCHOOLS**

I am a PhD student of the University of Cape Coast and I am embarking on a study on Emotional Reactions and Burnout of Teachers Teaching Children with exceptional needs in Inclusive Schools in Ghana: Moderating Roles of Self-Efficacy and Coping Mechanisms. The study aims at identifying teachers' emotional reactions, burnout, self-efficacy and coping mechanisms in teaching exceptional children in inclusive settings.

I am aware of your busy schedule, but I feel strongly that you can supply the necessary information for this study. It is not a test so feel free to express your opinion. You are not required to mention your name anywhere in this interview. You are assured that the information you supply would be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you.

**Name: Afua Ntoaduro**

**Contact: 0244963964**

1. Within which of this age-group do you belong?

20 and below

21 - 30

31 - 40

41 - 50

51 -60

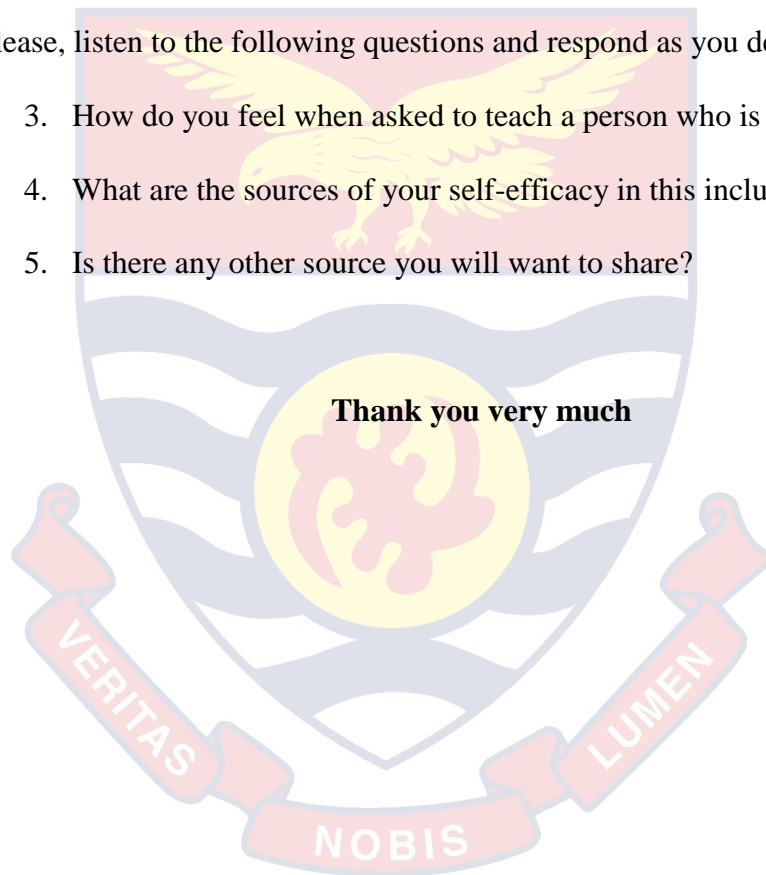
2. Please, what is your educational qualification?

Please, listen to the following questions and respond as you deem appropriate:

3. How do you feel when asked to teach a person who is exceptional?

4. What are the sources of your self-efficacy in this inclusive setting?

5. Is there any other source you will want to share?



**APPENDIX C**  
**CODING SCHEME**

<u>Main themes</u>	<u>Categories of Codes</u>	<u>Examples of Patterns of response</u>
<p><b>What are the sources of teacher’s self-efficacy in inclusive settings in Southern Ghana?</b></p>	<p>Mastery Experience</p>	<p>when I revise very well...I get a strong belief in myself and I am able to deliver to my own admiration and that of my pupils. <b>Teacher 1:</b> I will say that for me a mastery of the subject matter is non-negotiable...I believe in myself and my source is a mastery of search image or subject matter knowledge. <b>Teacher 7:</b></p>
	<p>Vicarious experience</p>	<p>I visited a mate in that school...when we were in school, I was far better than her...upon seeing her deliver such great lesson, my whole orientation on inclusive education changed. I was so much encouraged that I could also do it. My self-belief was so high...I must say that it has indeed helped me a lot. <b>Teacher 10</b></p>
	<p>Verbal or social persuasion</p>	<p>For me a major source of self-efficacy is the words of encouragement I get from colleagues.... indeed, it gives me a strong belief in myself. <b>Teacher 3:</b> At times you wake up and you feel dejected...but the words of wisdom and encouragement you receive from people just give me the belief that I can do it...at times too you go out to buy something and you ....”oh teacher pls come and have yours...it’s so refreshing ...”it gives me that sense that through it all I can do it ....my self-belief becomes very high. <b>Teacher 9:</b></p>
	<p>Emotional and physiological factors</p>	<p>I have realized when I don’t think about where to get money from it affects me positively and out of that I develop higher self-efficacy. <b>Teacher 11:</b> When my spirit is high, I tend to get a better outlook of myself...I’m able to relate better with people...honestly it even affects the way I teach. <b>Teacher 5</b></p>

## APPENDIX D

### A SAMPLE OF CODED INTERVIEW

Interviewer: I am about to conduct another interview. Please, state your gender.

Respondent: **Female**

Interviewer: Within which of this age-group do you belong?

20 and below

21 - 30

31 - 40

41 - 50

51 -60

Respondent: **31 - 40**

Interviewer: Please what is your highest educational qualification?

Respondent: **DIPLOMA**

Interviewer: Listen to the following questions and respond as you deem appropriate.

Interviewer: Great. So, what are the sources of your self-efficacy in this inclusive setting.?

Respondent: My belief comes from different sources. For example, any time I prepare well before a lesson, I get a great belief in myself. (**Mastery Experience**)

Interviewer: Great idea, any further explanation?

Respondent: Yes, you see, some of these kids are gifted, they understand what we teach them, if you don't prepare, they see it. You... yourself you won't be

fine. I always say, a good teacher is the one who prepares well for a lesson. You walk to class with a great level of confidence.

Interviewer: You said you have a number of sources. Apart from what you have just explained, is there any other source?

Respondent: Yes. ...getting to the end of the month ...I'm in high spirit...my confidence is high...I have a strong belief in myself...the issue is that there is little or no pressure as I receive my salary...my mind is clean and free from burnout....I have realized when I don't think about where to get money from it affects me positively and out of that I develop higher self-efficacy.  
**(Emotional and physiological factors.)**

Interviewer: Great. Is there any other source you will want to share?

Respondent: Yes. At times when you see others do it, especially your colleagues, you get an extra strength that you too can do it. It gives you a sense of belief in yourself. For, that is how it works.

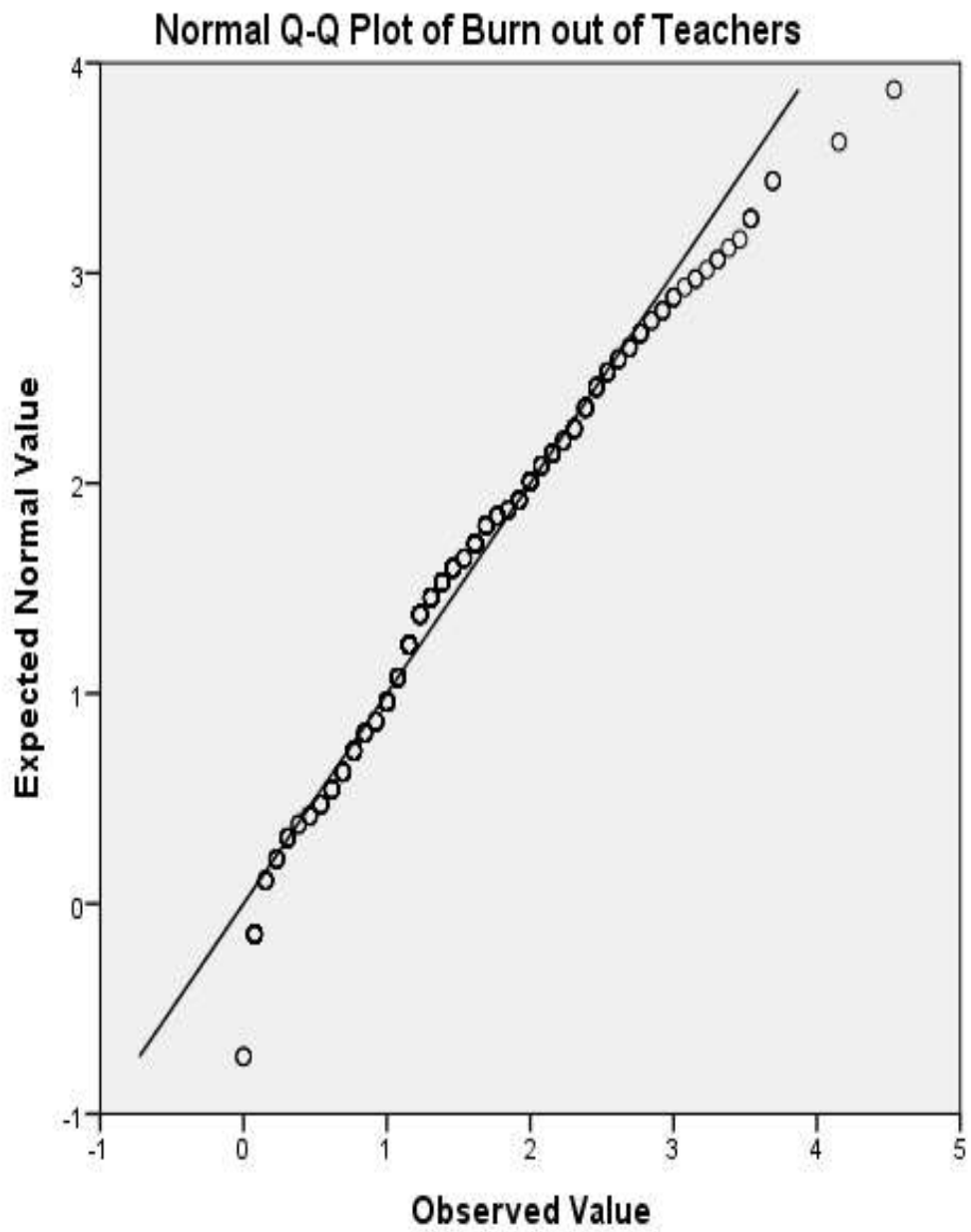
Interviewer: Nice. Anymore?

Respondent: No, these ones work for me.

Interviewer: Good to hear that. We have come to the end of this interview. Thank you so much for your information and the time that you have given to me. I value it greatly. Have a lovely day.

Respondent: Thank you too.

APPENDIX E



Graph 2: Normal Q-Q Plot of Burnout of Teachers



APPENDIX F

KMO and Bartlett's Test

		Emotional reactions of teachers	Effects of teachers' emotional reactions	Self-efficacy of teachers	Coping mechanisms for managing burnout
Correlation	Emotional reactions of teachers	.262	.136	.196	.191
	Effects of teachers' emotional reactions	-.183	-.087	.029	.369
	Self-efficacy of teachers	.211	.043	-.004	.359
	Coping mechanisms for managing burnout	.201	.232	.229	.716

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.854
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	16956.983
	Df	4005
	Sig.	.000

<b>Communalities</b>	
	Initial
I have not had training in teaching methods for children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I find it challenging to consider the children with exceptional needs when deciding on the pedagogies to use.	1.000
I find it hard to understand how to teach children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I have experience in teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I am unable to clearly define the goals of my lesson in my lesson notes.	1.000
I don't know how to develop differentiated activities where applicable.	1.000
I am unable to create opportunities for collaborative learning throughout my lesson.	1.000
I find it very difficult to explain certain contents to children with exceptional needs.	1.000
There are adequate teaching and resources in the school.	1.000
I am unable to adapt teaching and learning resources.	1.000
I am aware of alternative input devices that children with exceptional needs can rely on to interact with digital content.	1.000
I am able to decide on classroom management practices together with children with exceptional needs.	1.000
The rules for behaving in the class is set at the beginning of the term.	1.000
I find it challenging treating all children equally when they flout the rules of the class.	1.000
I find it difficult to give equal attention to children with exceptional needs in my class.	1.000
I can consult and engage the services of resource teachers to help with managing children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I find it difficult to give individualized attention to pupils with special needs.	1.000
I read questions for pupils who have reading difficulties during exams.	1.000
I find it challenging to make changes to assessment and work requirements for children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I am motivated by the school's leadership and administration.	1.000
I am given all the support I need to be able to teach children with exceptional needs by the school's administration and leadership.	1.000

I feel good teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I suppress my bad mood or negative reactions when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I often feel tired teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I often think I can't take it anymore teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I often feel sick working with children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I find it is hard work teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I find it frustrating to work with children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel that I give more than I get back when I teach children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel proud of myself after teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I get nervous when it is time to teach children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel pity for myself in interacting with children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel anxious when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I get irritated when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel embarrassed when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I get worried to be teaching in an inclusive setting.	1.000
I get excited when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel helpless when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel hopeless when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I experience remorse when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I get impulsive teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel non-appreciative when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel satisfied when teaching children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I feel tired at the end of a work day.	1.000
I experience helplessness.	1.000
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	1.000
I feel frustrated.	1.000
I feel burnout from my work.	1.000
I feel I am working too much on my job.	1.000
I feel stressed, it puts strain on me.	1.000
My tiredness continues in the morning.	1.000

I feel very energetic.	1.000
I feel I treat some children with exceptional needs as if they were impersonal objects.	1.000
I have become more heartless towards children with exceptional needs since I took this job.	1.000
I don't really care about what happens to some children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I worry that this job is draining me emotionally.	1.000
If I try hard enough, I can always manage to solve difficult problems of children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I can find the means and ways to manage difficult children.	1.000
It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals in inclusive setting.	1.000
I can deal efficiently with children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I know how to handle children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I can remain calm when facing difficulties dealing with children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	1.000
I am unable to find solutions to problems of children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I am unable to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals in inclusive setting.	1.000
I cannot remain calm when facing challenges dealing with children with exceptional needs.	1.000
I am unable to handle whatever comes my way.	1.000
I turn to work on other activities.	1.000
I do something about the situation.	1.000
I say to myself "this isn't real".	1.000
I use alcohol or other drugs to make me feel better.	1.000
I slam doors or punch walls (i.e. Throw temper tantrums) when I experience challenging events in teaching children with special needs.	1.000
I get emotional support from others.	1.000
I give up trying to deal with it	1.000
I threaten to harm someone.	1.000
I refuse to believe that it has happened.	1.000
I say things to let my unpleasant feelings escape.	1.000
I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	1.000
I criticize myself.	1.000
I use or threaten to use a cane against children or someone.	1.000
I look for something good in what is happening.	1.000

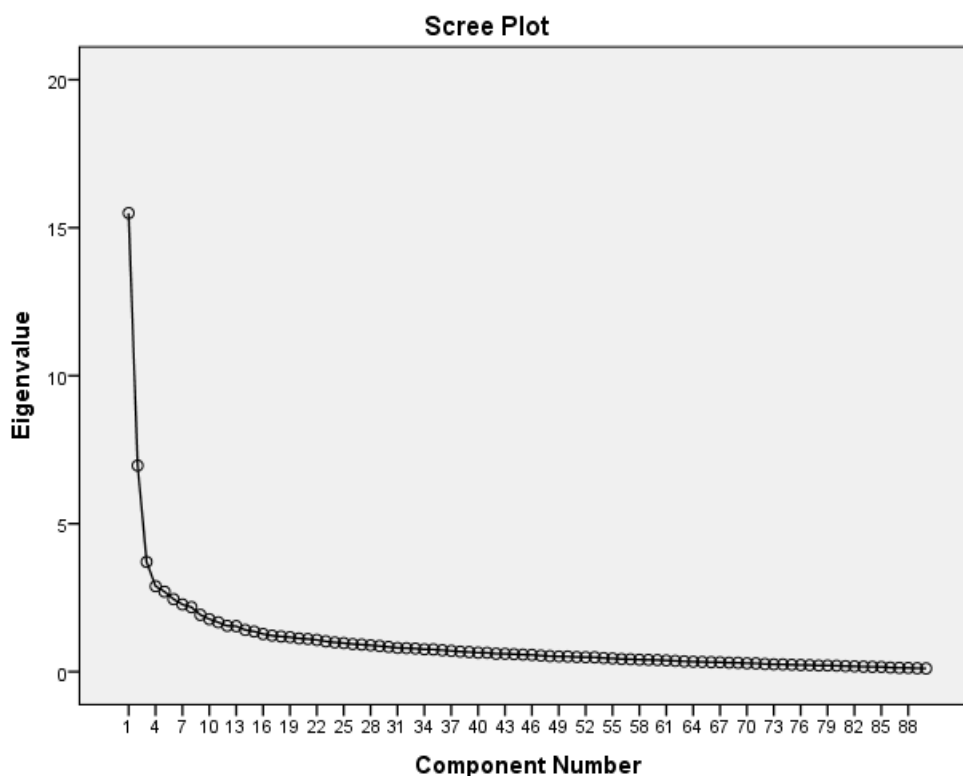
I make jokes about it.	1.000
I shout or yell at children.	1.000
I accept the reality of the fact that it has happened.	1.000
I express my negative feelings such as insulting or swearing at children.	1.000
I try to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs.	1.000
I learn to live with it.	1.000
I think hard about what steps to take	1.000
I blame myself for things that happen.	1.000
I pray or meditate.	1.000
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	



Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	15.495	17.217	17.217	14.787	16.430	16.430
2	6.963	7.737	24.954	7.670	8.523	24.953
3	3.710	4.123	29.077	3.712	4.124	29.077
4	2.887	3.208	32.285			
5	2.704	3.004	35.289			
6	2.453	2.725	38.015			
7	2.271	2.523	40.538			
8	2.180	2.422	42.960			
9	1.921	2.134	45.095			
10	1.775	1.972	47.067			
11	1.669	1.855	48.922			
12	1.549	1.721	50.643			
13	1.538	1.709	52.352			
14	1.411	1.567	53.919			
15	1.358	1.509	55.428			
16	1.271	1.412	56.840			
17	1.219	1.355	58.195			
18	1.190	1.323	59.518			
19	1.165	1.295	60.812			
20	1.126	1.251	62.064			
21	1.102	1.225	63.288			
22	1.074	1.194	64.482			
23	1.025	1.138	65.620			
24	.986	1.096	66.716			
25	.966	1.073	67.790			
26	.931	1.034	68.824			
27	.916	1.018	69.842			
28	.893	.993	70.835			
29	.868	.964	71.799			
30	.837	.930	72.729			
31	.804	.893	73.622			
32	.798	.887	74.509			
33	.783	.870	75.379			
34	.756	.840	76.219			
35	.752	.835	77.054			
36	.725	.806	77.860			
37	.703	.781	78.641			
38	.680	.756	79.397			
39	.663	.737	80.134			
40	.641	.713	80.846			
41	.639	.710	81.556			
42	.609	.677	82.233			
43	.604	.671	82.904			

44	.593	.659	83.562			
45	.577	.642	84.204			
46	.568	.631	84.835			
47	.545	.606	85.441			
48	.527	.586	86.027			
49	.517	.574	86.601			
50	.512	.569	87.170			
51	.496	.551	87.720			
52	.488	.543	88.263			
53	.485	.539	88.802			
54	.463	.514	89.317			
55	.448	.497	89.814			
56	.429	.476	90.291			
57	.422	.469	90.760			
58	.408	.453	91.213			
59	.402	.446	91.659			
60	.394	.438	92.097			
61	.379	.421	92.518			
62	.367	.407	92.926			
63	.348	.386	93.312			
64	.339	.377	93.689			
65	.330	.366	94.055			
66	.321	.356	94.411			
67	.316	.352	94.763			
68	.306	.340	95.103			
69	.301	.334	95.437			
70	.286	.318	95.755			
71	.281	.312	96.067			
72	.260	.289	96.356			
73	.251	.279	96.635			
74	.247	.275	96.909			
75	.237	.263	97.172			
76	.226	.251	97.423			
77	.220	.244	97.667			
78	.211	.234	97.901			
79	.206	.229	98.131			
80	.203	.225	98.356			
81	.186	.207	98.563			
82	.180	.200	98.763			
83	.171	.190	98.953			
84	.163	.181	99.135			
85	.161	.179	99.313			
86	.138	.154	99.467			
87	.129	.143	99.610			
88	.125	.138	99.748			
89	.117	.130	99.878			
90	.110	.122	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Rotated Component Matrix <sup>a</sup>			
	Component		
	1	2	3
I have not had training in teaching methods for children with exceptional needs.	.163	.307	.033
I find it challenging to consider children with exceptional needs when deciding on the pedagogies to use.	.535	.130	.130
I find it hard to understand how to teach children with exceptional needs.	.588	.181	.101
I have experience in teaching children with exceptional needs.	-.383	.229	-.248
I am unable to clearly define the goals of my lesson in my lesson notes.	.442	-.007	-.153
I don't know how to develop differentiated activities when applicable.	.605	.148	-.036
I am unable to create opportunities for collaborative learning throughout my lesson.	.541	.050	-.176
I find it very difficult to explain certain contents to children with exceptional needs.	.568	.016	.072
There are adequate teaching and resources in the school.	-.123	.174	-.218



I am unable to adapt teaching and learning resources.	.464	-.039	-.111
I am aware of alternative input devices that children with exceptional needs can rely on to interact with digital content.	-.442	.054	-.183
I am able to decide on classroom management practices together with children with exceptional needs.	-.557	.228	-.165
The rules for behaving in the class are set at the beginning of the term.	-.152	-.089	.062
I find it challenging treating all children equally when they flout the rules of the class.	.552	-.049	.009
I find it difficult to give equal attention to children with exceptional needs in my class.	.560	.143	.028
I can consult and engage the services of resource teachers to help with children with exceptional needs.	-.279	-.098	.030
I find it difficult to give individualized attention to pupils with special needs.	.569	.097	-.046
I read questions for pupils who have reading difficulties during exams.	-.444	.069	-.102
I find it challenging to make changes to assessment and work requirements for children with exceptional needs.	.182	.010	-.055
I am motivated by the school's leadership and administration.	-.369	.084	-.187
I am given all the support I need to be able to teach children with exceptional needs by the schools' administration and leadership.	-.334	.099	-.210
I feel good teaching children with exceptional needs.	-.592	.070	-.159
I suppress my bad mood or negative reactions when teaching children with exceptional needs.	-.231	.133	.069
I often feel tired teaching children with exceptional needs.	.577	.137	.111
I often think I can't take it anymore teaching children with exceptional needs.	.690	.173	.047
I often feel sick working with children with exceptional needs.	.698	.136	-.016
I find it is hard work teaching children with exceptional needs.	.578	.269	.090
I find it frustrating to work with children with exceptional needs.	.704	.255	.039

I feel that I give more than I get back when I teach children with exceptional needs.	.478	.170	.027
I feel proud of myself after teaching children with exceptional needs.	.329	.060	.057
I get nervous when it is time to teach children with exceptional needs.	.692	.056	-.033
I feel pity for myself in interacting with children with exceptional needs.	.631	.119	-.014
I feel anxious when teaching children with exceptional needs.	.777	.123	-.015
I get irritated when teaching children with exceptional needs.	.800	-.047	.001
I feel embarrassed when teaching children with exceptional needs.	.653	.254	-.011
I get worried to be teaching in an inclusive setting.	-.245	.186	-.143
I get excited when teaching children with exceptional needs.	.579	.042	.071
I feel helpless when teaching children with exceptional needs.	.759	.085	.049
I feel hopeless when teaching children with exceptional needs.	.348	.018	-.083
I experience remorse when teaching children with exceptional needs.	.678	.078	-.005
I get impulsive teaching children with exceptional needs.	.648	.211	.009
I feel non-appreciative when teaching children with exceptional needs.	-.282	.151	-.234
I feel satisfied when teaching children with exceptional needs.	-.447	-.004	-.113
I feel tired at the end of a work day.	.142	-.248	.458
I experience helplessness.	.228	.007	.473
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	.033	.100	.456
I feel frustrated.	-.020	.361	.479
I feel burnout from my work.	.006	.353	.488
I feel I am working too much on my job.	-.102	.254	.373
I feel stressed, it puts a strain on me.	-.059	.072	.562
My tiredness continues in the morning.	.120	.363	.280
I feel very energetic.	-.083	.527	.102
I feel I treat some children with exceptional needs as if they were impersonal objects.	.106	.638	.114
I have become more heartless towards children with exceptional needs since I took this job.	.201	.602	.071
I don't really care about what happens to some	.218	.590	.114

children with exceptional needs.			
I worry that this job is draining me emotionally.	.149	.479	.331
If I try hard enough, I can always manage to solve difficult problems of children with exceptional needs.	-.478	-.289	.168
I can find the means and ways to manage difficult children.	-.523	-.204	.131
It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals in inclusive setting.	-.497	-.114	.120
I can deal efficiently with children with exceptional needs.	-.187	-.224	.150
I know how to handle children with exceptional needs.	-.416	-.305	.135
I can remain calm when facing difficulties dealing with children with exceptional needs.	-.226	-.193	-.001
I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	-.291	-.205	.163
I am unable to find solutions to problems of children with exceptional needs.	-.130	-.021	-.100
I am unable to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals in inclusive setting.	-.213	-.098	-.060
I cannot remain calm when facing challenges dealing with children with exceptional needs.	-.176	-.056	-.065
I am unable to handle whatever comes my way.	-.251	.050	-.068
I turn to work on other activities.	.005	.132	.196
I do something about the situation.	-.484	.034	.311
I say to myself, "this isn't real".	-.022	.516	.066
I use alcohol or other drugs to make me feel better.	-.073	.560	-.107
I slam doors or punch walls (i.e. Throw temper tantrums) when I experience challenging events in teaching children with exceptional needs.	.114	.573	-.116
I get emotional support from others.	-.293	.425	.132
I give up trying to deal with it.	.151	.555	-.090
I threaten to harm someone.	.163	.555	-.189
I refuse to believe that it has happened.	-.080	.452	-.100
I say things to let my unpleasant feelings escape.	-.068	.502	.030
I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	-.438	.321	.111
I criticize myself.	.136	.418	.112
I use or threaten to use a cane against children or someone.	.189	.596	-.046
I look for something good in what is happening.	-.499	-.064	.216
I make jokes about it.	-.364	.396	.152

I shout or yell at children.	.078	.648	-.094
I accept the reality of the fact that it has happened.	-.503	.252	.105
I express my negative feelings such as insulting or swearing at children.	.254	.659	-.110
I try to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs.	.026	-.053	.438
I learn to live with it.	-.140	-.164	.528
I think hard about what steps to take.	-.055	-.279	.375
I blame myself for things that happen.	-.002	.529	-.087
I pray or meditate.	-.164	-.088	.501
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.			

<b>Component Matrix<sup>a</sup></b>			
	Component		
	1	2	3
knowledge on how to select appropriate tools	.848		
know how to develop individualised education programme	.768		
knowledge in selecting appropriate learning	.763		-.392
knowledge on how to select and use	.578		.452
able to identify educational needs	.490	.358	-.367
knowledge on how to identify categories	.498	.727	
knowledge on various characteristics	.503	.685	
know how to use assertive devices	.425	-.640	
novice teachers can monitor and evaluate	.331	-.470	
knowledge and skills to design	.443		.690
collaborate with other professionals	.492		.510
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. 3 components extracted.			

<b>Component Transformation Matrix</b>			
Component	1	2	3
1	.958	.288	.006
2	-.288	.957	.016
3	-.001	-.017	1.000
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.			

APPENDIX G

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES  
ETHICAL REVIEW BOARD

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE  
CAPE COAST, GHANA



Our Ref: *CES-ERB/ucc.edu/13/19-53*  
Your Ref: .....

Date *24th June, 2019*

Dear Sir/Madam,

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS CLEARANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDY

*Chairman, CES-ERB*  
Prof. J. A. Omotosho  
[jomotosho@ucc.edu.gh](mailto:jomotosho@ucc.edu.gh)  
0243784739

*Vice-Chairman, CES-ERB*  
Prof. K. Edjah  
[kedjah@ucc.edu.gh](mailto:kedjah@ucc.edu.gh)  
0244742357

*Secretary, CES-ERB*  
Prof. Linda Dzama Forde  
[lforde@ucc.edu.gh](mailto:lforde@ucc.edu.gh)  
0244786680

The bearer, *Afua Ntouduca*....., Reg. No. *ED/SE/16/0002* is an ~~M.Phil.~~ / ~~Ph.D.~~ student in the Department of *Education and Psychology*..... in the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. ~~He~~ / She wishes to undertake a research study on the topic:

*Challenges, emotional reactions on burnout of teachers of children with special needs and disabilities in inclusive schools in Ghana: Moderating roles of self-efficacy and coping mechanisms.*

The Ethical Review Board (ERB) of the College of Education Studies (CES) has assessed his/her proposal and confirm that the proposal satisfies the College's ethical requirements for the conduct of the study.

In view of the above, the researcher has been cleared and given approval to commence his/her study. The ERB would be grateful if you would give him/her the necessary assistance to facilitate the conduct of the said research.

Thank you.  
Yours faithfully,

Prof. Linda Dzama Forde  
(Secretary, CES-ERB)

## APPENDIX H

### LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES  
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS  
**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY**

Telephone: 0332091697  
Email: dep@ucc.edu.gh



UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE  
CAPE COAST, GHANA

8<sup>th</sup> March, 2019

Our Ref:

Your Ref:

#### TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

**THESIS WORK**  
**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION**  
**MS. AFUA NTOADURO**

We introduce to you Ms. Ntoaduro, a student from the University of Cape Coast, Department of Education and Psychology. She is pursuing Doctorate of Philosophy in Special Education and she is currently at the thesis stage.

Ms. Ntoaduro is researching on the topic:

**"Emotional Reactions and Burnout of Teachers Teaching Children with Exceptional Needs in Ghana: Moderating Roles of Self-efficacy and Coping Mechanisms."**

She has opted to collect or gather data at your institution/establishment for her Thesis work. We would be most grateful if you could provide her the opportunity and assistance for the study. Any information provided would be treated strictly as confidential.

We sincerely appreciate your co-operation and assistance in this direction.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Ama Ocran'.

Ama Ocran (Ms.)  
Principal Administrative Assistant  
For: **HEAD**