

Teacher Burnout in Youth Villages in Israel

Vered Azulay

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Abstract

The main goal of the current research is to explore the burnout experience of teachers in youth villages in Israel. This professional population is highly at risk for increased burnout due to the close work with youth at risk.

Burnout is defined as continuous emotional pressures and depletion of the employee's coping resources that occur as a result of a prolonged exposure to pressures at work and in life (Shirom, 1994). Freudenberger (1974) formulated the concept of burnout during clinical treatment of mental health workers, clinical psychologists, social workers, and psychiatrists. He was the first to verbalize the term "burnout" and its main components: a sense of failure, physical or mental exhaustion, and a sense of psychological fatigue or physical extortion.

The outcomes of burnout can be divided into three parts: Physical reactions occur around the time of exposure to stress (short-term results) and some appear at a later stage (long-term results). Physical responses entail increased heart rate, blood pressure, and muscle tension, secretion of hormones, and more. Long-term reactions may include chronic hypertension, migraines, heart disease, ulcers, and psychosomatic diseases. A second part of the reactions is emotional responses (cognitive and emotional) that may be expressed in irritability, anger, apathy, dissatisfaction with work, and more. Finally, the third component is behavioral reactions characteristic of stress and burnout, which include decreased performance, lack of concentration and attention, isolation, aggression, negligent dressing, and in extreme cases suicide. Additionally, behavioral reactions may include delays, absences, reduced motivation and quality of performance, inefficiencies in work, errors in judgment, poor morale, and declining professional attractiveness (Leiter & Maslach, 2001, Melamed et al., 2006).

Pridan (1992) described the process of teacher burnout: the teacher begins with enthusiasm, vigor and a sense of mission. When encountering difficulties and pressures arising from teaching, the teacher has doubts about his ability, as well as the use of his intellectual resources and the degree of professional fulfillment he derives from teaching.

With the development of the sense of non-fulfillment, there is growing fatigue. Finally, there is a substantial emotional exhaustion, culminating in the desire to sever contact with students and to abandon teaching.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) presented three categories of teacher burnout which were validated by Friedman. There are three patterns of behavior of worn-out teachers (Friedman, 1992):

1. Physical and mental exhaustion
2. Lack of fulfillment
3. Depersonalization - lack of involvement in students' lives to the extent that students refer to teachers as "objects."

Interpersonal relations are of great importance in teacher work, with previous studies showing that the higher the social support for teachers, the lower levels of burnout are reported (Gavish & Friedman, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). Morim-Dvir (2007) demonstrated how personal factors and interpersonal factors, such as self-efficacy and social support, mediate between a stressful work environment and burnout. For example, in a study conducted by Van Droogenbroeck, Spruyt & Vanroelen (2014), they assessed the effect of four types of interpersonal relationships: With students, with colleagues, with supervisors/counselors, and with parents. Findings show that the teacher's relationship at work contributes significantly to reducing burnout. The researchers have demonstrated that all four relationships are most important to teachers and may affect the reduction of burnout (or increase in the incidence of problematic relationships).

To tell about youth at risk, first of all we have to define adolescence period. There are several definitions to the adolescence period. Adolescence is the period of transition from childhood to adulthood. The adolescent period begins around the onset of puberty, and ends with the adoption of adult roles such as employment and marriage. Although there is disagreement as to how exactly to define adolescence, it is often linked to the second decade of life. Some writers distinguish between early adolescence (11 or 12 to 14 years), mid-adolescence (15–17 years) and late adolescence (18–21 years) (Richter, 2006)

Most of definitions agree that at this stage, the adolescent undergoes physiological, cognitive, social, and emotional changes that violate the psychological balance of the adolescent and the family system to which he belongs (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). According to the developmental model, in adolescence, there is a process of segregation-individuation, that is, the transition from dependence towards independence. This process focuses on the child's independence as he distances himself from reliance on the family and the loosening of childlike relationships to become an adult member of society. When unbridgeable failures occur in the child's separation process, the adolescent's process of separation and individuation is compromised.

The primary developmental need to disengage from the family framework and pursue adult life continues and pushes the adolescent to realize the process. In the process the youngster is often using extreme behavioral expressions such as anti-social behavior, delinquency, use of psychoactive substances, and more. On the other hand, a proper separation process eventually leads to a mature feeling of the adolescent, and especially to the ability to direct his life and adapt to changed living conditions on his own (Merdinger, Hines, Lemon-Osterline & Wyatt, 2005).

In industrialized Western societies, adolescence usually lasts until the late twenties. This can be explained by the fact that in modern culture young people face the need to obtain residence, social status, spouse and professional achievement that are considered "correct" and will determine their future fate. This period, which continues until the formation of the individual's professional and family identity, is usually referred to as a "moratorium" and expresses a period when social obligations are rejected, and there is a temporary rejection of accepted norms (Erickson, 1961). In Western society, the moratorium lasts for several years, sometimes even for a decade, and is accepted by most Western societies as legitimate. During this period a process of experiencing takes place in the professional, interpersonal and marital spheres. Arnett (2000) claims that in Western societies, the process of identity formation described by Ericsson (1961) continued into the twenties. He called this period "emerging adulthood" to emphasize it as another developmental stage on the way to adulthood. During this period, meaningful

choices will take place according to which the continuation of life will be determined (Banai, 2008).

Youth at risk are in a situation that may be mentally or physically harmful and prevent them from developing properly. In Israel, the Youth Law (1960) defines a minor in need as a person whose "physical or mental integrity is harmed or may be harmed." Children at risk are exposed to physical, sexual, or emotional abuse (Peter, 2004), and may suffer from neglect and abuse (Ney, Fung, & Wickett, 1994).

These are children who experience significant vulnerability and whose development is characterized by contact with a neglecting and/or abusive parent figure (Cohen, 2001). In Israel of the third millennium, every second child out of ten is a "child at risk," that is, living in poverty and neglect, sometimes with violence, often without a social framework. Moreover, it is entirely possible that more children are not being reported and are at some risk. From year to year, the number of children at risk is increasing, and many of the children have unhealthy and often life-threatening patterns of behavior. About 9% of them are even involved in crime and endanger their future (Ben Aryeh, Zionist, & Berman, 2008).

One of the most pressing social problems facing Israel today is the sharp increase in the number of youth at risk. The Jewish Agency, to address this issue, repurposed four of their Youth Aliyah Villages that once housed refugees who arrived in Israel alone. These invaluable facilities provide at-risk youths with a positive, growth-based, environment where children removed from their homes, can receive the therapeutic intervention needed to heal and flourish. Today, The Jewish Agency's Youth Villages provide highly cost-effective boarding school settings for several hundred youth with severe emotional, behavioral and family problems. Intensive educational, clinical and social work services help 12 to 18-year-olds succeed in and complete high school and enter national service army with their peers. Empirical evidence has shown that youth villages have a great potential for enhancing immigrant youth's absorption and for facilitating their integration in the host society (Benbenisty & Zeira, 2008). The youth village attempts to serve both educational needs and provide rehabilitation for those

requiring it by creating a stimulating environment that can empower each young person (Grupper, 2008). In this kind of residential school, there is a tendency to bridge the gap and find appropriate educational and rehabilitative solutions for a large range of young people. Among the young people who are being educated in youth villages are new immigrants who are in the midst of their cross-cultural transition process, children and youth who are in need because of family and social problems, young people seeking a second chance after having failed in local school, and young persons who have gone through an emotional crisis.

In this study, the quantitative research method used is based on the assumption that investigating the reasons for teacher burnout has a numerical component that can be included in a broad sample of teachers. Relying on statistical methods suggested by quantitative research, a clear relationship is evident between teachers' duties, support cycles, and demographic characteristics and burnout. The snowball technique, in which questionnaires were sent to teachers at the school using the method of "friend brings a friend", was applied. Thus, representation of as many teachers as possible could be assured. Moreover, this study also used qualitative research methods when 20 teachers were interviewed.

The main question was whether the burnout of the teachers in the youth villages causes them to drop out from the education system. According to the results presented in this study, the different factors of the departure from the profession are the significant factor of the dropping out from the education system. This result is in line with previous studies that showed teachers with high burnout has higher probability to dropout from the education system. Several studies have also found that burnout significantly mediates the relationship between various job stressors and work withdrawal behavior (Richards et al., 2016). Thus, stress could accentuate psychological depletion (teacher emotional exhaustion), causing counterproductive work behavior in teachers' turnover, absenteeism, and poor work quality. Studies demonstrated that employees' emotional exhaustion significantly mediated the relationship between surface acting and turnover intention (Goodwin et al., 2011).

The first hypothesis that belongs to the main research question is that the teachers who work with youths at-risk in Israel suffer from professional burnout. According to table number 11, the teachers in the research study suffer from burnout significantly; in other words, this hypothesis was confirmed. The first hypothesis addressed the basic assumption upon which the research was based, so that the basic assumption was confirmed, and therefore the data in the research enable us to draw conclusions about the coping with burnout and the attempt to prevent the dropping out of teachers in the continuation. According to Gavish and Friedman (2007), teachers feel difficult feelings of professional failure and erosion of the sense of professional efficacy, sometimes even before they began their position. The findings in this research which were found among teachers in youth villages are in line with previous studies. Burnout syndrome is frequently used in order to account for physical and psychological issues related to human service professionals such as teachers, nurses, social workers, etc. Teaching is one of the most hotly-debated domains prone to burnout. According to a leading voice in teacher burnout research, teacher burnout is a multidimensional construct with three related constructs: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005).

Another question in the research study was whether teachers experience burnout and to what extent. In light of the first hypothesis, we see that the teachers do indeed experience burnout. The result is a mean of 2.5 on the scale of 5, but the burnout was found to be significant. The mean is the median on the scale, thus indicating relatively reasonable burnout. This can indicate that the teaching profession is fundamentally a profession that causes burnout and that it is necessary to strengthen the different factors so as to prevent this burnout from becoming the dropping out from the system. However, in the qualitative analysis it was found that the teachers indicate a low level of burnout (mean of 3.06 on a scale of 1-10) and satisfaction with work.

Therefore, it was necessary to hypothesize that the burnout is associated with age, gender, or education level. For instance, as the teacher is older, her level of burnout is higher. In the research study, we found that there is no significant relationship between any one of the parameters and burnout. Thus, we did not succeed in confirming the

hypothesis and even disconfirmed it. In addition, a number of researchers indicated a relationship between the number of classes that the teacher teaches and the scope of her position in the school and her level of burnout (Benevene & Fiorilli, 2015; Fiorilli et al., 2015). In the Ministry of Education, there are teachers with great experience, and from the age of fifty they are eligible for a benefit called age hours.

Another hypothesis we examined is whether there is a relationship between the different factors of support and burnout. We did not succeed in confirming the hypothesis, as table number 16 shows. Significant differences were not found that show a relationship between the factors of support. The lack of significance raises the following question. What is the factor that contributes to the prevention of burnout or in the continuation even the dropping out of teachers from teaching? If we address the four main factors of Friedman that lead to burnout and address the nature of the work, the lack of recognition and poor social support, the inadequate work conditions, and the personal characteristics and primarily to the two factors of the nature of the work and the social support, which were measured in factors of support, we would expect that there be influence on the index of teacher burnout. However, it is possible to understand that apparently it is difficult to significantly measure the main factor of each one of the four and that it is difficult to find significance only of some of them.

Burnout in teaching can derive from many factors, and therefore we hypothesized that in addition a positive relationship would be found between the factors of the departure from the teaching profession and burnout. In a research study, the teachers were asked to note on a Likert scale of 1-5 the different factors that are known in the research literature. It is possible to see according to table number 17 that indeed the different factors as a whole were found to be significantly and positively related to burnout. However, a very low percentage of variance was found, and therefore it is not possible to find the essential factor that influences the teachers' burnout. The findings support the extensive review of the literature performed. In all of them, there is reference to different data that influence the burnout and not one of them succeeded in finding the most essential factor. It is very hard to isolate the central component that causes burnout and to neutralize it. However, there is no doubt that as researchers (Arviv-Eliashiv &

Zimmerman, 2016; Prizker & Dorit, 2010) maintained, there are many different factors of the teachers' departure, including difficulties in the coping with the role requirements, multiplicity of the tasks, lack of professional support, school climate, and so on

The third question in the research study was how do the teachers who teach youths at-risk perceive the teaching profession and their role as teachers. In the results of the interviews, it is possible to see that the teachers refer to the status of the teachers in Israel as a low-intermediate status. They do not see or think that there is prestige in the profession in society's eyes. However, in their personal perception they rank the importance of the teaching as a high status in society. It is possible to see therefore the hidden dissonance among the teachers. They perceive their role as an important role in society while society conveys a different attitude. It is possible to see in their responses to satisfaction with work the importance they ascribe to the profession. They view as important the students' success, the promotion and help of the student in different areas

The youth village model is based on the socializing power of a cohesive community, with kibbutz community life as its ideal. Bronferbrenner's (1979) ecological theory, according to which children's development is not influenced only by the microsystem, could serve to analyze and explain the elements of the youth village model. Hence, even more important are influences by persons acting on the macro-system level, and the development of a child is the end product of all these different activities. Indeed, in the youth village the entire environment participates in the educational process, including those who interact face-to-face with the child on the micro level and also those acting on the other ecological levels. The Israeli residential education system are organized in a relatively large network which allows each institution to act autonomously, while enabling the network as a whole to set general educational orientations and apply across-the-board policy changes. In this setting, the role of the teacher is extremely important and the relationship with every student is crucial. To enable every member of the community to feel at ease, the community is based on pluralistic and multicultural values. The youth population is composed of new immigrants from varied cultural backgrounds. Other members of the community are Israeli-born adolescents who come from the geographical and socio-cultural periphery.

Creating a sense of belonging (Brendtro, Brokenleg, & Van Bockern, 1990) in such a community is possible only if staff members apply a true and genuine culturally pluralistic attitude, which can happen only if the prevailing atmosphere emphasizes the importance of every individual finding their place in such a community. The teacher has to capture all this diversity and find the right approach to reach every child.

In addition to the questions that were asked, additional hypotheses were examined, and the examination of these hypotheses found that the unique contribution of the index of efficacy in teaching has impact on the burnout. This finding is commensurate with the assertions of researchers about the influence of the burnout on the dropping out (Ingersoll, 2001). It appears that when the teachers feel burnout they feel lack of efficacy in teaching, thus leading them to leave the practice of teaching.

Furthermore, it was found that the time that the teachers from an urban community and the teachers from a rural community invest in the evaluation of the papers is different, when the respondents from the urban community do this for a longer period of time. This is a topic that has not yet been researched in-depth, and therefore this is the primary finding on this topic.

The findings of this research stress the the importance of coping with teachers' stressors in order to reduce burnout and turnover intentions. These trends are familiar both in previous research and from my personal experience. For example, studies show that the first years in the teaching profession are important in determining whether a beginning teacher will remain in the profession and for his or her subsequent professional development (Rots, Aelterman, Vlerick, & Vermeulen., 2007). The first period as a teacher is demanding for most people. Such a demanding working situation may generate intentions to leave the teaching profession. Indeed, there are high levels of attrition among newcomers to school teaching in several countries (Ingersoll, et al., 2014).

To conclude, the current study examined the burnout phenomenon among teachers in youth villages in Israel. Results show that teachers in this setting are in high risk for burnout, mostly due to the intense relationship with students and the great

demands they face. Following these results, I suggest for these policy recommendations to be implemented by policy makers.

First, due to high burnout among teachers, it is very important for educational staff to undergo workshops in which they will learn how to cope with professional and personal stressors. These workshops must be an integral part of their professional training in order to increase resilience.

Second, it is important that every beginning teacher will have a mentor (senior teacher) that could assist him/her in building the educational capacities.

Third, in order for teachers to feel less anxious, they must have a significant support network in their school. Hence, the manager and team leaders must have a continuous communication with teachers and assist them in every problem. In addition, this network has to assist teachers to build better communication with students and parents.

Introduction

Over the past 30 years, the phenomenon of burnout has become a standard field of research, theory, and intervention, to which attention is directed in the academic sphere as well as the mass media. First of all, we have to concretize it – Shirom (1994) shows that burnout is defined as continuous emotional pressures and depletion of the employees coping resources that occur as a result of a prolonged exposure to pressures at work and in life. One of possible reasons that researches start focus on this theme is because of changing era, workplace stopped to be for a long time. Today its normal that people change workplace every few years, so the question is – why? The possible answers is burnout. Specially, the teaching profession is considered the most worn profession (Farber, 2000 ; Greenfeld, 1990). In the past, teachers came to the education system with a sense of mission, the desire to be a teacher was the dream of almost every person. Today, unfortunately, there is a noteworthy worldwide shortage of teachers, and quite a few teachers in their first years are looking for a different professional future. Despite significant investment in time and money to become teachers, after several years in the education system, novice teachers find themselves in other workplaces.

In the educational context, several obstacles and risk factors are capable of generating chronic stress among teachers and thus of provoking burnout syndrome. Such risk factors include work overload, complementary administrative work, overcrowded classrooms, role stressors, class discipline problems, conflicts with superiors, co-workers and parents, continual education reforms, deficits in training, promotion and professional development, low wages, disruptive attitudes and behavior by students, deficient school and classroom facilities, poor timetabling and time pressures (Inbar-Furst and Gumpel 2015; Kahn et al. 2012).

Burnout can provoke diverse problems, affecting teachers affecting performance, absenteeism, presentism, and job rotation, all of which are directly relevant to teaching quality and to the learning process (Golembiewski & Muzenrider 1988). As observed by Prieto and Bermejo (2006), burnout indirectly affects the daily organization of the school,

by requiring teacher substitutions and alterations in the chronological development foreseen in subject programmes. Teachers who suffer from burnout do not provide all the necessary information or the backup needed by their students; relationships are strained and acceptance of their proposals is likely to be reduced.

Burnout has several major consequences for teachers which can be grouped into three categories: physical, psychological and behavioral. Physical problems related to burnout include general discomfort, headaches, fatigue, sleep disorders, hypertension, asthma, cardiovascular disorders, muscle pain, loss of appetite and weight loss (Melamed et al. 2006). Psychological consequences include restlessness, irritability, reluctance, feelings of isolation, malaise, powerlessness and a sense of incompetence (Burke and Greenglass 1993). Finally, behavioral problems that are frequently cited include sloth, hyperactivity, annoyance, mistrust, problems with family, partners or friends, an impaired quality of life and the abuse of alcohol or drugs (Chan, 2006).

Studies of the burnout phenomenon reveal its negative consequences, which are expressed not only in the individual's behavior but also in organizations as places of employment. Burnout is typically described as a phenomenon that takes place in the world of the individual, who is usually unaware in its early stages. Nonetheless, burnout has a substantial negative impact on the individual's functioning in everyday life, work, family, and leisure .

In the research, burnout is described as the outcome of stress in the professional daily life and beyond. Many people are suffering from burnout in a wide range of fields. Maslach defines burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a decline in functioning (Maslach, 1988). Initially, professions identified as having a high level of burnout rate were quite limited and included nursing and workers of various types of social welfare organizations. At a later stage, other professions, such as police work, correctional officers, lawyers and commercial workers were included. Nevertheless, occupations with "high risk" for burnout may be identified as one category, which can be classified under the title "Service Professions".

One of the professions included in this category is teaching, which entails constant contact with students and parents and may, therefore, be more prone to burnout than other occupations. Teachers engaging in the education of youth at risk who are working in youth villages are in more substantial pressurized stress. The purpose of this current study is to examine the level of teacher burnout in the youth villages.

The main goal of the current research is to explore the burnout experience of teachers in youth villages in Israel. This professional population is highly at risk for increased burnout due to the close work with youth at risk. First, the introduction will present theoretical background regarding teacher burnout, youth at risk and youth villages in Israel. Later, the research will present the mixed method that was employed in this study, and the results will be elaborated. Finally, the discussion and conclusions will be presented.

The term "boarding school" refers to institutions in which people live most of the year under one central authority, and the interpersonal relationships between them are not family ties. The purpose of boarding school is to influence in a specific direction or to cause a change in the participants or students (Wazner, 1993 Kashti, and Manor, 1989, Dagan, 1997). The boarding school is perceived as a powerful environment since it encourages students to internalize clear and understandable norms and behaviors and to adapt to them by continually exposing students to their influences. A boarding school is a general name for all agricultural schools, institutions for adolescent children, youth villages and other out-of-home arrangements dealing with education or care.

Review of the Literature

1. Teacher Burnout

1.1 What is Burnout? Definition

Burnout is defined as continuous emotional pressures and depletion of the employee's coping resources that occur as a result of a prolonged exposure to pressures at work and in life (Shirom, 1994). Freudenberger (1974) formulated the concept of burnout during clinical treatment of mental health workers, clinical psychologists, social workers, and psychiatrists. He was the first to verbalize the term "burnout" and its main components: a sense of failure, physical or mental exhaustion, and a sense of psychological fatigue or physical extortion.

In Freudenberger's view, the main element of burnout is depression, which stems from a sense of guilt over the lack of success in performing the task and fulfilling the ideals. Zohar (1988) defined burnout as a loss of raw materials for continued combustion, as the raw materials consumed themselves and the burning continues. At a later stage, Friedman (1997) further elaborated on the concept of burnout as a process in which pressure at work and contact with people in the framework of service-provision cause an adverse change in the attitudes and the behavior of the professional. Burnout is also characterized by a shift from high motivation to low motivation, which is expressed in the loss of enthusiasm and excitement at work, and more importantly, the loss of the sense of mission. Burnout, according to Friedman, turns from dynamic to passive, referring to burnout as a process.

Pines and Aronson (1988) highlighted the sense of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion caused by the prolonged involvement in emotionally demanding situations. The emotional demands are caused by a combination of high expectations and chronic stress situations. Physical exhaustion is described as a feeling of lack of vigor, chronic fatigue, and weakness. Mental exhaustion is accompanied by the development of adverse attitudes towards oneself, work and life, dissatisfaction with achievements,

diminished self-expression, and cynical attitudes towards clients and colleagues. Burnout results in extreme feelings of dissatisfaction and failure.

One of the most influential researchers in the field is Maslach, who named burnout "the disease of modern life," whose victims are in a wide range of areas. Maslach (1982) recognized three dimensions of burnout in her research: (1) Exhaustion - emotional exhaustion expressed as physical fatigue, emptiness, lack of energy for oneself and others, and a feeling of overload. Burnout is the result of a process of loss of mental energy. (2) Negative attitudes of the individual towards himself- a sense of failure and lack of personal achievement expressed in depression, low morale, reduced creativity, diminished effectiveness and efficiency of work, a decrease in performance and ability, and lack of faith in the possibility of coping. (3) A change in attitudes toward others - personalization, resentment, hostility, cynicism towards customers, and a lack of faith in the possibility of coping. According to this definition, burnout is not the result of a single circumstance, more of accumulated stress from processes that occur in a workplace. Furthermore, many studies have shown that mental fatigue may be more pronounced among service providers, police (Terry, 1981), teachers (Betoret & Artiga, 2010) or nurses (Poghosyan, 2010).

Burnout is connected to some other terms, one of them is mental illness. Mental illness, also called mental health disorders, refers to a wide range of mental health conditions — disorders that affect your mood, thinking and behavior. Examples of mental illness include depression, anxiety disorders, schizophrenia, eating disorders and addictive behaviors (Struch et al. , 2007) found that in Israel about half the respondents indicated one or more physical causes for "mental illness": 42% noted genetic problems and about 14% mentioned chemical/organic problems in the brain. Approximately 73% of the respondents mentioned one or more causes that could be seen as psychosocial etiology – i.e., stress from external events including trauma (36%), unemployment, tension at work and in Israel (20%), domestic crises (34%), failures and disappointment, immigration difficulties, external troubles and complications, etc. However, along with the recognition of biochemical and psychosocial causes, we found a not inconsiderable

measure of blame attributed to the patients for their illness, as reflected in the opinion of almost half the respondents (46%) that people would suffer less from mental illness if they stopped thinking negative/bad thoughts.

1.2 Results of Burnout

The outcomes of burnout can be divided into three parts: Physical reactions occur around the time of exposure to stress (short-term results) and some appear at a later stage (long-term results). Physical responses entail increased heart rate, blood pressure, and muscle tension, secretion of hormones, and more. Long-term reactions may include chronic hypertension, migraines, heart disease, ulcers, and psychosomatic diseases. A second part of the reactions is emotional responses (cognitive and emotional) that may be expressed in irritability, anger, apathy, dissatisfaction with work, and more. Finally, the third component is behavioral reactions characteristic of stress and burnout, which include decreased performance, lack of concentration and attention, isolation, aggression, negligent dressing, and in extreme cases suicide. Additionally, behavioral reactions may include delays, absences, reduced motivation and quality of performance, inefficiencies in work, errors in judgment, poor morale, and declining professional attractiveness (Leiter & Maslach, 2001, Melamed et al., 2006).

Since the beginning of this century, many studies have documented the impairment to the quality of work and the cost to the organization as a result of the effects associated with burnout: loss of interest in work; disrespect and development of a cynical approach to work and clients; reduced quality of work; and absences and early retirement (Melamed et al., 2006). Various studies have focused on the personal consequences of burnout, such as reduced self-perception and self-esteem, and damage to family life and marriage (Pines & Aronson, 1988). Others have indicated that prolonged mental wear may impair the mental health of the worker (Shirom & Melamed, 2005; Leiter & Maslach, 2001) .

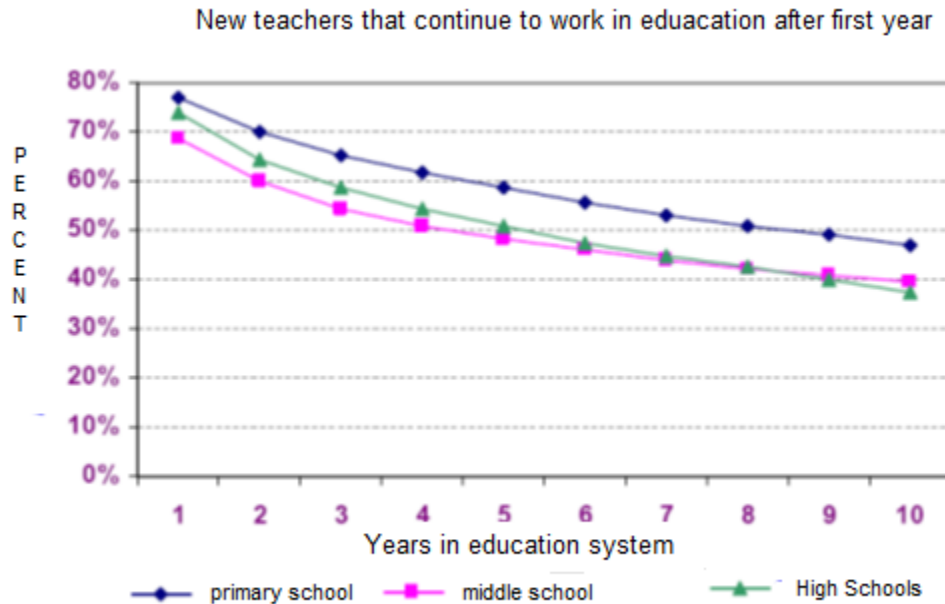
The negative consequences of burnout reflect the worker, the service-recipient, and the society. An employee experiencing burnout applies several mechanisms with the

aim to reduce the level emotional involvement, and to obtain an equilibrium between excessive involvement and lack of involvement through distancing in different dimensions. These may result in the physical distancing (establishing explicit structural barriers between the service provider and the service recipient), mental estrangement (emotional opacity development), and rational distancing (the adoption of sound arguments as a defense against over-involvement). In these dimensions, the employee can apply different modes. For example, with respect to physical distance, the worker can reduce hours of service through sick leave and absence from work, or to achieve mental detachment, the employee may develop apathy and indifference toward the distress of the service recipients (Alarcon, 2011).

One of the most noteworthy forms of burnout is dropout. In recent decades, teacher burnout has become an increasing social phenomenon in the Western world, including Israel. Teacher dropout is defined as leaving the teaching profession for reasons other than retirement (Ingersoll, 2001). According to research conducted in Israel, one-third of the new teachers drop out in their third year, the year of tenure in the system, and approximately 15% drop out in their first year. Among the teachers who drop out of the educational system, there is a significant proportion of high-quality teachers with high level of cognitive skills, human capital and outstanding academic achievements (Sperling, 2015).

There are around 154,000 teachers in the education system in Israel (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2008), and approximately 1,500 new teachers join every year. For many, the usual model of 'float or drown' is no longer valid and 40% are expected to leave the system within five years. In the Jewish sector, the dropout rate is even higher with one out of two entering the system dropping out within five years. Dropout rates are exceptionally high during the first year. 25% of the novice teachers leave the system during the first year and additional 15% will leave during the following four years (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2006a). A detailed description of teachers' dropout rates is exhibited in the following figure, which depicts new teachers who continue to work in education after first year in percent, by the category of school types.

Figure Number 1: Teacher Dropout Rate in Israel, 1995-2005



Source: (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2006a)

Ingersoll calls the phenomenon of teacher dropout a "revolving door" (Ingersoll, 2001: 501). This door is continuously rotating, because a fixed proportion of teachers, almost a third, is constantly in the process of moving between schools or leaving the profession (not retiring). Hot argues that initiatives to increase the number of teachers joining the system will not solve the shortage problem without the implementation of a dropout policy. Consequently, teacher dropout increases the turnover of teachers in the school and diminishes attempts to accumulate experience, thus harming the efficiency of the educational process (Rinat Arbiv, Varda Zimmerman, 2013).

In recent years, the phenomenon of teacher dropout has been rising in developed countries. A survey conducted in the United States, indicates that between 1989 and 2009, the percentage of teachers who left the field of education rose by 43% (from 5.6%

to 8%) in the public sector and by 25% (from 12.7% to 15.9%) in the private sector (Keigher & Cross, 2010). As in other studies in the field, the data from this survey demonstrate that the rate of dropout is exceptionally high (between 20% and 30%) among novice teachers who have been in the profession less than five years (Rinat Arbiv, Varda Zimmerman 2013). In 1993-2003, the cumulative dropout rate among novice teachers in their first five years was between 40% (primary education) and 50% (secondary education) in the Jewish sector, and 26% (in primary education) 46% (in secondary education) in the Arab sector (Vergen, 2007).

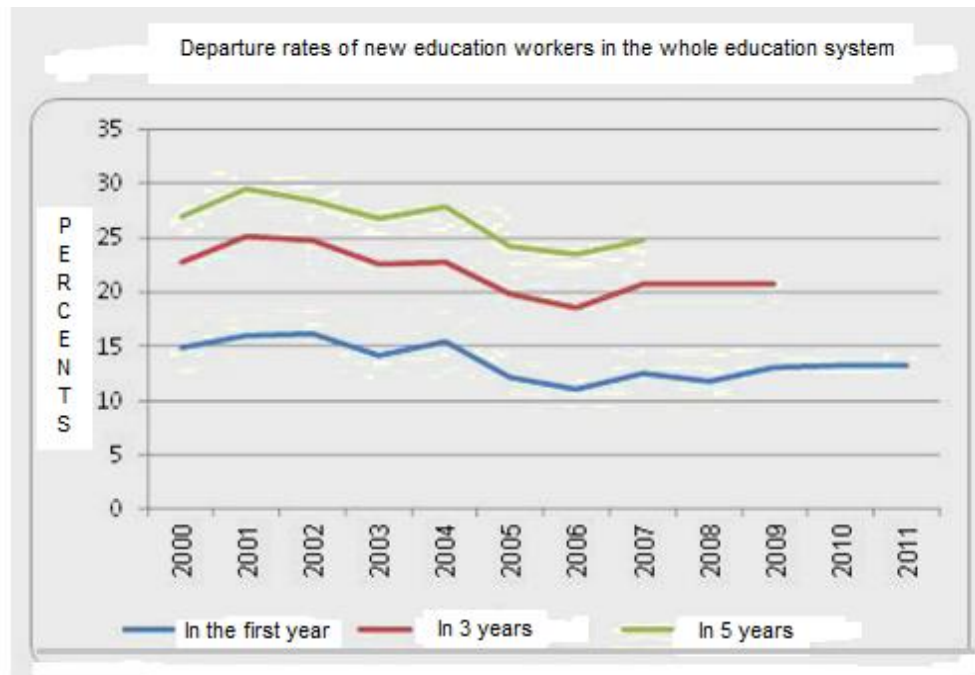
From an ethnic-sensitive point of view, data show several differences between Jewish and Arab sectors. For example, between 1991 and 2001, while the dropout rate among teachers in the Jewish sector rose from 8.5% to 9.9%, the Arab sector dropout rates rose from 5.2% to 8.6% (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2006). This fact indicates that a stronger burnout exists among Arab new teachers in comparison with Jewish new teachers. A possible explanation for this fact is the lack of educational and financial resources in the Arab sector. In addition, the traditional cultural norms in the Arab sector lead many youth to drop school and start working in a very early stage.

Another important ethnic perspective is given by viewing immigrant youths as a risk group for dropout. In 2009 there were 235,446 immigrant children in Israel, children who immigrated to Israel or were born in Israel to parents who immigrated from 1900 onwards, who constitute 10% of the total population of children in Israel. The percentage of minors aged 12-17 who were born abroad and immigrated to Israel from 1990 onwards, who are the focus of this study, was 7.2% of the total number of minors in Israel at this age in 2009. Half of all immigrant children who lived in Israel in 2010 were immigrants from the FSU (Former Soviet Union), and about 16.6% were immigrants from Ethiopia (Hillel Shamir, 2006). Specifically, higher rates of immigrant youths drop out from school in comparison with individuals that were born in Israel (Worku Mengisto & Horenczyk, 2019).

It is important to note that data on dropout rates in Israel is incomplete. Statistics on this subject were published in a limited number of Central Bureau of Statistics

publications and included the dropout rates up to 2011 (Central Bureau of Statistics). The absence of available data on hampers the ability to examine the social and educational implications of the phenomenon, as well as the discussion of the effects of systemic interventions that have taken place in the education system in recent decades.

Figure Number 2: Dropout Rates of Novice Teachers



Source: Arbiv-Elyashiv, R. & Zimmerman, V. (2016). *Who Is the Drop-Out Teacher? Demographic, Occupational, and Institutional Characteristics of the Drop-Outs from Teaching*. (Hebrew)

Teacher dropout causes many complications for the school management. School principal must search for the appropriate teacher for the school climate and educational staff. Furthermore, teacher dropout necessitates the recruit of new or veteran teachers that need acclimatization, and of new teachers who require a period of learning. Solving these problems takes time and entails an investment of financial and human resources (Arbiv-Elyashiv & Zimmerman, 2016).

The literature points to various reasons why teachers are leaving the system, including difficulties in coping with job demands, multitasking, lack of professional support, school climate, burnout, and more (Arbiv-Elyashiv & Zimmerman, 2016; Pritzker & Dorit, 2010). Teacher training programs' focus on the theory at the expense of practical tools contributes to the dropout of new teachers. However, a combination of pedagogical experiences in the field during the training program was found to reduce this phenomenon (Strahovsky, Merbach, and Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2002).

In their research, Arbiv and Zimmerman (2016) explain burnout according to two models:

- A. The compensation model (Sorensen & Tuma, 1981) - This model is derived from considerations of economic viability and human capital theory. The model is based on the resources of the individual and the personal factors that guide individual decision-making. Every employee decides whether to leave his job or remain form considerations of rational economic feasibility - calculating the cost versus the benefit. The underlying assumption in this model is that employees strive to make optimal use of their resources and convert them into economic and social goods. A worker who follows this model perceives his career as a cost-benefit calculation.
- B. The Requirements Model – Resources of Professional Employment, (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, Demerouti et al., 2001)- This model focuses on the influence of the work environment on the individual. The model assumes that occupations include two dimensions: requirements and resources. The occupational demands require investment and physiological effort. The worker mobilizes all his strength to achieve these goals applying much energy that depletes his emotional and physical resources which in turn leads to burnout and consequently health problems. According to this model, another process is a motivational process that is different from the energetic process undergone by the worker. On the one hand the employee feels fatigue and a desire to leave the position and the organization, on the other hand, the employee feels motivated and committed to the organization. Subsequently, the model predicts

that the employee will remain in his position or the organization (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005).

Studies conducted over the past two decades point to four main factors for the dropping out of novice teachers from the system (Kersaint & el, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2003):

1. Lack of specific job training - Upon taking up the position, the teachers find themselves in charge of a class for an extended period. This reality involves disciplinary problems characteristic of the school in which they teach and a need to find effective teaching methods suited to their class (in this respect there is a substantial difference, for example, between a school in Ramat Aviv, with social-economy high level and high teaching level and a school in a poor neighborhood in south Tel Aviv, with a low social-economy level and low learning level, students with learning disabilities, and more. Typically, during training, the novice teachers were not confronted deal such problems over time. Moreover, the training prepares the teachers for a wide range of possible schools without providing in-depth training. New teachers may feel unequipped to cope with these complications and choose to leave the profession.
2. Family factors - women account for a relatively high percentage of those engaged in the teaching profession, and in most cases, it is customary that the caregiving of children and older parents is their responsibility. The combination of work and home duties leads to teachers choosing to leave the education system. Additionally, the compensation is not appropriate for the level of investment. On the one hand, the teachers' work is very demanding and includes the challenge of coping with students as well as the preparations for the next day, such as writing lesson plans and testing tests. On the other hand, teachers' salaries and social status are low relative to other professions.
3. Vast amount of paperwork - in most schools, educational work also entails much paperwork. This paperwork is the result of both classroom processes, such as the examination of tests and assignments, external evaluations, such as the MEITZAV tests, and supervision processes in schools, such as reports to management. The

requirement to continually devote time and energy to paperwork is a burden on some of the teachers in the system.

4. Lack of pleasure in teaching - Some teachers who left the system reported that they did not enjoy the daily work in the classroom. The feeling that work is not a source of pleasure and gratification is one of the considerations for leaving the system.

The burnout phenomenon is a major concern for teachers in many types of institutes. Specifically, previous studies showed that kindergarten teachers, as well as, university teachers suffer from high burnout. It seems that the effort of teaching is a difficult task in various of contexts. Kindergarten teachers not only care for and teach children between the ages three and six, but also provide them with warm, nurturing and learning experience, and lay the foundation for their future social, emotional and academic success. Therefore, kindergarten teachers need to put in more effort to care for children, and hence they suffer from high physical and mental fatigue. Kindergarten teachers also experience tremendous pressure from children's parents, so they are more likely to suffer from burnout (Hung, 2012). In addition, national surveys of university staff have concluded that academia is no longer a comparatively low-stress working environment, identifying both mounting workload and an increasing pressure both to publish and acquire external research funding as significant contributory factors to academic distress. Comparisons to normative data across the UK workforce revealed not only significantly elevated levels of stress for those in employed in universities but its relationship with reduced autonomy, compromised communication and impaired working relationships (Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005).

The teaching profession entails being subjected to various job demands that often underpin a perception of a heavy workload. However, an increasing time pressure seems to be an international tendency in the teaching occupation. Other examples of job demands are frequent meetings that interfere with preparation time, administrative paper work generated by the management and being subjected to constant reforms and changes that demand re-organization of work and work tasks. The complex work environment and increasing time pressure may also contribute to reduced job control, which is a well-

known risk factor for stress. Moreover, teaching is a profession that entails a high degree of face-to-face interaction with students, who may show poor behavior, attitudes, motivation and performance. Teachers also cope with other stressors such as having pressure from the parents of the school children and sometimes unrealistic expectations from the society. All these factors may contribute to emotional demands. At the same time, teachers are required to display their own emotions with restraint, i.e. demands of hiding emotions (Arvidsson, Håkansson, Karlson, Björk, & Persson, 2016).

Burnout phenomenon is especially severe among beginning teachers. Beginning teachers more often feel anxious due to the fact that they are inexperienced in their fields (Chang, 2009). For example, if they constantly fail in classroom management and in coping with students' disruptive behaviors, burnout may occur (Hong, 2010). In addition, overwork, dissatisfaction with the working position and not feeling to belong to the workplace are also important reasons which lead to high levels of burnout. Fairness, the organizations' values, role conflict and role ambiguity, lack of social support, lack of support from supervisors, lack of feedback and praise, little participation in decision making, and lack of teacher autonomy (Maslach et al., 2001) are other reasons found behind burnout.

Other triggers for teacher burnout are time pressure, fear of violence and poor opportunities for promotion, salary, being aware of little professional prestige, and holding the same position for a long time (Cano-Garcia et al., 2005). Teachers also report on excessive paperwork, large schools with overcrowded classrooms, the lack of equipment, students' behavioral problems, and isolation, and poor social relations (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006).

While the paradigm of educational research has shifted to a more social constructive approach, more and more studies explore teacher burnout as the result of an interaction between individual and organizational factors. These relationships also hold an important cultural perspective. For example, Pines (2002) examined burnout among teachers in Israel and in the USA. In the study, Pines interviewed 97 Israeli teachers and compared their burnout level with four American teachers and found that Israeli teachers

are under higher stress than American teachers because of larger class sizes, longer work hours, less instructional support, and fewer resources; in addition, they were exposed to a dangerous environment. Despite these conditions, American teachers reported higher levels of burnout than Israeli teachers. Pines explained that this may be because Israeli teachers have a greater sense of significance in serving as a teacher. More cross-cultural studies are needed to explore how cultural beliefs and economic development such as teachers' social and economic status may impact the issue of teacher burnout (Mérida-López, & Extremera, 2017).

In addition to organizational factors, there are also transactional factors for burnout that relate to the relationship between individual factors with organizational factors. Several studies have examined transactional factors as sources of teacher burnout, such as teachers' self-concept, self-efficacy (Chan 2006), teachers' socially reflected self-concepts (Friedman & Farber 1992), teachers' attribution of student misbehaviors (Bibou-nakou et al. 1999) and internal rewards or professional satisfaction (Friedman & Farber 1992).

Bibou-nakou et al. (1999) examined teacher burnout with 200 elementary school teachers in Greece. Specifically, they examined teachers' causal attributions and their relationship with burnout. The findings revealed that punitive actions were correlated with diminished personal achievement, whereas social-integrative coping was associated with reduced feelings of depersonalization. They further argued that teachers' personal accomplishment was higher in the group of teachers who attributed students' disobedience to internal student-related factors. Hence, teachers who did not take students' disruptive behaviors personally reported higher personal accomplishment in teaching and thus less feelings of burnout. In another study, Evers et al. (2004) examined burnout among teachers in The Netherlands and suggested that teachers' competence to cope with disruptive classroom behaviors was significantly related to each dimension of burnout. Pines (2002) also suggested that disruptive student behaviors stress teachers because when students lack interest in learning and lack attention in class, teachers may feel they are insignificant or perceive themselves as failures.

By examining transactional factors, literature offered deep insight into why some teachers feel drained by problematic student behaviors. In the same situation of disruptive student behavior, one teacher may feel threatened, while another may not. Teachers are affected unequally by exposure to the same disruptive behaviors on the part of students. Some scholars believe that this is because teachers respond to the potential stressors of burnout based on their goals and beliefs. Therefore, teachers do not necessarily feel burnout simply by dealing with the disruptive behaviors of students, but may feel so because of their perception, appraisal, attribution, and feelings about those behaviors.

1.3 Possible Causes for Burnout

Burnout in the organization has several important factors that may be divided between elements that depend on the individual, primarily personality factors; as well as occupation and workplace-related factors. A review of the literature establishes that studies distinguish between personality factors, and situation factors; and more integrative complex models that combine both.

According to Pines (1993), the cause of burnout is the need for people to believe that the things they are doing are meaningful and as a result also their lives. Today, in the Western culture, there is a growing emphasis on the occupation as a central component in the meaning of life. Hence, the occupation is often the core of the sense of self-perception: People who expect to derive a sense of existential significance from their work enter their profession with high hopes, ideals, and motivations. When their personal goals at work are not realized, they may suffer more from the damage of burnout.

Farber (1984) further reinforces the need to investigate personality factors and argues that three factors should be considered to understand attrition: personality variables, intermediate processes (e.g., cognitive assessment of stressful events) and significant life events (positive and negative). Indeed, various clinical observations correlate between personality traits, which may increase the vulnerability to burnout and become a catalyst for its formation. These personality traits include target-oriented idealists, sensitive, fearful, A-types, work-addicts, and people characterized by over-

achievement, commitment and over-devotion, enthusiasm, openness, and over-empathy (Pines & Aronson 1981, Farber 1984).

According to Pines (1993) individuals characterized by high motivation, commitment, intense involvement and a strong desire for their work to give them meaning in life - are most likely to experience burnout. Her research shows that the enthusiastic, entrepreneurial, pioneering and energetic people tend to wear off more than people who exhibit cynicism and lack of caring. Such persons tend to have a high level of emotional involvement in their workplace, which constitutes the precondition for burnout.

Although some of the causes of burnout depend on the personality structure of the employee, a significant contribution is also related to the nature and conduct of the organization and the quality of the occupation. To map the situational factors of burnout, it is advantageous to view them as a structure of the four dimensions of the work environment: psychological, structural, social and organizational (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

- The psychological dimension contains mental characteristics, such as high independence and a sense of power and diversity in work, as well as emotional characteristics such as meaning, work benefit, and self-expression. For example, a teacher who feels that his work is rewarded by many sides – economic, social and so on, or feels that he isn't realizing his ability and isn't building his career.
- The social dimension consists of good working relationships, cooperation with colleagues and the relationships between service providers and service recipients. For example, a teacher who does not socialize with other teachers or who argues with them will have greater burnout.
- The structural dimension that is composed of structural aspects of the work environment: environmental pressures such as noise, inconvenient structure, and density. Many of schools in Israel are in old building, without renovation and so on (for example, it may be 2 toilets for 60 teachers).

- The organizational dimension, which is rooted in a rigid hierarchical structure, unclear and contradictory role definitions, and workers who are not involved in decision-making processes. There are system designs that influence teachers and teacher's burnout, like designs that made without ask teachers opinion. Moreover, some of school directors doing the same – like decide about getting school day much longer, without ask teachers about it.

One of the most critical factors that can cause burnout is pressure. In Zeytinoglu research (Zeytinoglu et al. 2007) he note that one of the ways to define stress in the workplace is identifying triggering events that lead to a change in the worker. According to this approach, an event in the workplace will be considered stressful if it requires the individual to change or adapt while coping with the frustrations, conflicts or pressures that the event triggers. Schieman et al. (2006) review a variety of stressful events in the workplace – from common and widespread situations of workload, to extraordinary and exceptional experiences at the workplace.

Erkutlu and Chafra (2006) argue that many people regard stress as a problem with adverse effects - expressed even in a person's physical condition. Their attitude toward the general understanding of the concept of pressure and its significance is the employee's assessment of the demands and his ability to meet them, and vice versa. Only when there is a gap between the worker's assessment of himself and the worker's perception of the way the organization evaluates him will the pressure be created.

Subsequently, in their work, Bansal and Gamarnik (2006) relate to different types of stress stimuli. A stressful event is any event which requires a renewed adaptation of the individual. Pressure can be characterized by its intensity, duration of activity, degree of suddenness and circumstances of action. There are acute events that affect a large number of people and influence over an extended period, such as massive layoffs, closer of factories, a severe economic crisis, and changes that surround many areas of the work (e.g., change in management, change in procedures, change of position, fear of being fired). Finally, another source of stress is daily hassles, routine events or daily harassment

that accumulate, frustrate and irritate the employee. These events include small but irritating matters, such as workload and ambiguity related to procedures.

In their study, Cooper and Marshall (1980) highlight six factors for stress in the workplace.

1. Factors related to working conditions. In this respect, one of the most significant factors is overload. There is a distinction between quantitative overload and qualitative overload. A quantitative overload refers to situations with insufficient time to perform the task resulting from a lack of working hands, as opposed to qualitative overload that may be expressed in the difficulty of providing solutions to problems that have arisen (Wiesmann, 1994) .
2. Factors related to the position. This group refers to three different factors that constitute a conflict in the individual due to a clash between what is required and expected from the worker. Stress due to professional uncertainty is a situation in which the role is not defined correctly in terms of matching expectations demands, and responsibilities. Pressure from a liability burden is a situation in which the employee has an excess of responsibility that does not correlate with his qualifications. Finally, stress from irresponsibility is a situation in which the individual feels that he is not a partner to making decisions in the organization (Cooper and Marshall, 1980) .
3. Interpersonal relationships, employee coping with social relations with the employer, subordinates, colleagues or clients. Poor interpersonal relationships such as lack of trust, interest, appreciation, and willingness to cooperate can lead to dissatisfaction with work, stress, and even illness. On the other hand, good interpersonal relationships provide a social support network vital to individual health (Cooper and Marshall, 1980) .
4. Management and career development, coping with a sense of occupational insecurity that may harm the individual's psychological well-being, primarily because it is characterized by uncertainty. These characteristics delay and interfere with the process of coping with the enormous tension created in the process. Also, the lack of opportunities for promotion and professional development, the lack of

conformity between the status of the job and the actual practice, or the return from work .

5. Organizational structure and climate. These factors relate to the stress caused by the lack of congruence between the individual and the culture in the organization. This situation is perceived by the individual as a threat to his autonomy and requires action to solve the dissonance. Management style can affect the functioning of the company. In a rigid management style, the organization can lead to lack of sense of belonging, diminished communication, and restrictions on behavior that are difficult for the individual and affects his motivation and productivity (Cooper and Marshall, 1980) .
6. The balance of home and work. This factor is one of the most common sources of stress in modern society, stemming from a conflict between work demands and family requirements. Stress is felt when the investment of time in one count exceeds the second, or when there is no clear separation between home and work (Cooper and Marshall, 1980).

Various studies have found a positive correlation between the level of tension and stress experienced by the individual at his place of work and the degree of wear and fatigue. For example, Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) argue that burnout is a state of chronic exhaustion caused by great stress, mainly due to a sense of massive responsibility, routine work, or stressful interpersonal relationships. Thus, workers exposed to potentially explosive social relations may be more worn out than those who work less with people. Inappropriate behavior towards stress situations and stress factors at work may increase emotional exhaustion, thus causing employees to withdraw more and more from client meetings and to lower work performance (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). Moreover, various studies have shown that burnout develops slowly and does not disappear even after disengagement from the original stressor (Melamed et al., 2006).

In a recent comprehensive literature review by Alarcon (2011) labor requirements, mental resources, and attitudes toward the organization were identified as

strongly linked to burnout. At the same time, it was found that the more demanding the work was, the faster the employee experience burnout. In addition, the worker's emotional resources, defined as character traits, social support, and emotional energy, are inversely related to burnout. Finally, a more positive approach and identification with the goals of the organization lower the level of burnout.

If we accept the definition that burnout is a combination of external pressures which is perceived by the employee subjectively, we can understand, according to this approach, that the pressure on the individual increases when there is less congruence between the characteristics of the individual and his needs and the environment in which he operates. The extent of burnout is a function of the perception of subjective adjustment as experienced by the teacher. The experience of the teacher is directly related to the factors that are significant in the eyes of the teacher to the proper performance of his or her educational work.

The support of the supervisors and the environment, or the physical conditions may be perceived as a factor influencing professional efficiency. Thus, for example, a teacher who teaches at the Eshkolot Payis Building enjoys improved conditions¹ compared to a teacher who teaches in inferior conditions. The difference in conditions can affect the teacher's burnout. Though physical conditions alone are not the only guarantee of reducing the burnout, they serve as part of the overall factors that affect burnout. A similar focus on gaps can be seen in the work of Gavish and Friedman (2000). Both refer to the conflict in the gaps between teachers' perception of work and their actual role. In their opinion, this approach is based on the organization's evaluation approach: The role played by the individual in the organization, the individual's interaction with the environment, as well as the individual's perception of his role. The gap between job expectations and the actual tasks provide a central factor in the

¹ Eshkolot Payis Buildings are new buildings that are more funded buildings and are equipped with new technologies and new furniture.

experience of stress. Many teachers find themselves in organizational circumstances that force them to perform inferior work.

Teachers in special education require exceptional organizational conditions. The work in special education needs professional equipment, special materials, and a unique classroom structure to facilitate individual instruction. What is expected from organizational conditions in special education is true even in regular education, since a teacher expects organizational, physical conditions that meet the requirements of the profession (Bella and Friedman, 2000). In the school where the study is being conducted, a special room equipped with suitable facilities for special education teachers was prepared. In conversations with the teachers, they noted that the improvement in the physical conditions of the room, according to their request, had a positive effect on their professional work.

Yitzhak Friedman lists the following four main aspects that were found to cause burnout:

1. The nature of the work: A significant gap between expectations for a challenging and rewarding work, and the reality, lack of appropriate rewards (including inappropriate wages), the burden of responsibility, time pressure and work tasks, innovations and unpractical demands, and routine.
2. Lack of awareness and inadequate social support: lack of positive feedback, a sense that efforts and investment are not valued by management, colleagues, the public and family, critical remarks, lack of sense of community, unresolved conflicts.
3. Inappropriate working conditions: limited promotion opportunities, inadequate work procedures, demands to do more with fewer means, dishonesty, and inequality.
4. Personal characteristics: negative attitudes toward a role reduced the ability to cope with pressures, gaps in the sense of professional competence (lack of congruence between the sense of personal competence and reality). The alleviation and prevention of burnout depend on the ability of the heads of the system and its

procedures to create a work environment in which the professional and personal dreams of the workers will be preserved, developed and flourished.

Pines (1984) separates the pressure factors that lead to burnout in two; Stressors at work and stressors outside work. According to Pines stressors at work are not necessarily the result of ongoing contact with people, but rather the nature of their role in their work. In the management professions, for example, stress stems from the need to make weighty decisions in situations of lack of sufficient information and under a pressure of time. In the administration professions, for example, the primary stress stems from boredom and a frustrating routine.

So far, the concept of burnout has been presented, its causes and possible consequences in the workplace. In the next section, the review will focus on burnout as it appears among teachers, who present the focal point of the present study.

1.4 Teacher Burnout

Over the years, the concept of burnout has become more applicable to teachers than any other occupational group (Farber, 2000). The teaching profession is considered one of the most burnout-inducing professions due to intense work with students (Farber, 2000, Greenfeld, 1990). In the past, teachers came to the education system with a sense of mission, the desire to be a teacher was the dream of almost every person. Today, unfortunately, there is a noteworthy worldwide shortage of teachers, and quite a few teachers in their first years are looking for a different professional future. Despite significant investment in time and money to become teachers, after several years in the education system, novice teachers find themselves in other workplaces. Studies in different cultures show that measures of teacher burnout predict both subjective and objective health as well as teachers' motivation and job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).

Gavish and Friedman's (2007) examination of teacher burnout in their first year has shown that teachers come out of the teacher training process when they are worn out. Furthermore, studies from Israel and abroad indicate a gap between teacher training and

teaching in practice. Training programs that emphasize "what to teach" and less the meaning of "being a teacher". Moreover, their focus on didactic aspects and neglect of reference to organizational issues of training may cause difficulties for novice teachers (Pritzker & Chen, 2010). This claim has far-reaching implications and necessitates the rethinking of the training process. In other words, teachers enter the teaching profession when they are exhausted, lack the energy and vitality, are alienated from their students, and mainly hold low professional self-concept. At all levels of attrition, they surpass even those of veteran teachers. Yet before they have become familiar with their professional world, teachers feel a professional failure and an undermined sense of professional competence (Gavish & Friedman, 2007).

Adoniou (2013) reports findings from a study of 14 teachers in their first year of primary school. By the end of the first year, half of the teachers reconsidered their long-term commitment to teaching. In his study, Adoniou found that the novice teachers considered leaving because they were struggling to be the teachers they expected to be. One reason for this was the contradiction between the support offered to them and what they imagined about good teaching. The article discusses the results of the failed deployment of support for novice teachers, alongside suggestions on how mentoring programs can better support novice teachers to become the teachers they want to be.

To enable teachers to feel the sense of mission and satisfaction, the integration phase should be personally and professionally satisfying. It should include focused professional learning (Corbell et al., 2015), and offer support and guidance of mentors who will accompany the new teachers until their full acclimatization in school (Huling, 2012). For absorption programs to be effective, they must be structured, comprehensive and constantly evaluated. Mentors and peer educators are significant contributors to helping novice teachers build their self-confidence. Regrettably, absorption and mentoring programs that are not adequately structured can be meaningless (Kidd, 2015).

Friedman and Lotem (1985) report several causes for the teacher's mental burnout: the interpersonal relationship between the students and the student-teacher relationship. The pedagogical efforts of the teacher and the scholastic-educational

achievements of his students. Another factor of significance originates from the teacher's environment (the home), when work "invades the home", these may be difficulties arising from problems with the nanny, child diseases, housemaids and more. Additionally, the lack of cooperation and alienation in the school; the teacher's feeling that they cannot rely on anyone at the school when necessary is a cause of wear and burnout. Lack of participation in decision-making, lack of enthusiasm on the part of colleagues to perform duties, and lack of privacy in the school. A negative self-image of the teacher, dissatisfaction with the way of fulfilment of the role due to lack of time and lack of means. Public criticism also provides a disabling factor, as the teacher feels unpopular in public. Difficult and complex teaching issues as well as the intellectual challenge and effort in teaching.

Pridan (1992) described the process of teacher burnout: the teacher begins with enthusiasm, vigor and a sense of mission. When encountering difficulties and pressures arising from teaching, the teacher has doubts about his ability, as well as the use of his intellectual resources and the degree of professional fulfillment he derives from teaching. With the development of the sense of non-fulfillment, there is growing fatigue. Finally, there is a substantial emotional exhaustion, culminating in the desire to sever contact with students and to abandon teaching.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) presented three categories of teacher burnout which were validated by Friedman. There are three patterns of behavior of worn-out teachers (Friedman, 1992):

- Physical and mental exhaustion
- Lack of fulfillment
- Depersonalization - lack of involvement in students' lives to the extent that students refer to teachers as "objects."

According to Kyriacou (1987), teacher burnout is characterized by physical, emotional and behavioral exhaustion. Also, teacher fatigue is characteristic of stress, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression, and in extreme cases mental breakdown. Dunham (1980) described two primary responses to teacher burnout: one response is

associated with various physical senses, sleep disorders, and depressive symptoms. A second response is anxiety associated with a feeling of insecurity, limited ability, and distraction. In his view, absences, leaving the profession and early retirement from work are the results of burnout.

Many researchers discussed the causes of teacher burnout. Gavish (2002) in his dissertation divided the reasons for burnout into three groups: personal, environmental, and organizational. However, another division is possible (Greenfeld, 1990):

1. Workload: The teaching structure is characterized by a short and dense unit of time that includes intensive contact with diverse classes that create a variety of short and varied interactions. Much work remains outside the school hours. This overload may lead the teacher to feel frustrated and to decrease his self-esteem.
2. Role conflict: The conflicting demands that the teacher has to deal with cause frustration and dissatisfaction.
3. The teacher personality expressed in the relationship with students.
4. Leadership personality: The teacher should lead the class. To do so, he must exhibit leadership and charisma, which can create pressures.
5. Discipline problems that the teacher must deal with.
6. Interpersonal relationships with the school staff: Teachers stand alone with their students and therefore the team's support is of great importance. When the teacher senses that his colleagues do not support him enough, he may feel lonely in the field.
7. School as an organization and decision-making process: The school is a hierarchical organization and decisions are made formally and hierarchically. If the teacher feels that he does not influence the decisions, he may feel alienated.
8. Diminished status: In the past, the teacher's status was high. The teacher was perceived as an agent of the society responsible for the socialization of the next generation. Currently, we witness the decline in the status of the teacher.
9. Instrumental mechanical approach to success: The social perception that each activity is measured according to input and output has led to achievement measurement as a key indicator of teaching. Accordingly, the teacher's success

depends on his students' achievements, and their partial success is seen as his failure.

10. Dichotomous thinking: Those who choose support professions are typically individuals who are attracted to a profession for idealistic reasons. They see teaching as educational and social service, coming from love and devotion to people, a desire to build a better world in which people are more sensitive and caring. Such people tend to have a world view of giving and receiving, being attentive and helping. Such dichotomous thinking can lead to denial of one's own needs, and cause teachers to avoid asking for help from others when required.

Subsequently, Gavish (2002) describes the following three main approaches to teacher burnout:

1. Resource Conservation Theory (COR) developed by Tris, Cheri, and Chapley (1999). The individual holds few resources to cope with the demands of the profession, lack of coping causes mental exhaustion. Resources help overcome the need for defensive coping and improve the sense of self-efficacy that neutralizes burnout. Lee and Ashford (1996) support this approach according to an analysis of 60 early studies.
2. Organizational factors: Friedman and Wax (2000) and Friedman and Farber (1992) argue that burnout is a reduction in the sense of efficacy due to environmental factors. They note that organizational-environmental factors that prevent individuals with a high sense of efficacy the realization of occupational goals and professional expectations can contribute to burnout. Employees who are confident in their skills expect these skills to result in parallel rewards and when a process does not occur, the likelihood of burnout increases. Friedman and Wax (2000) name this a gap expected and observed levels of self-efficacy.
3. An existential perspective: Malach-Pines (1984) and Malach-Pines and Yaffa-Yanai (2001) claim that burnout expresses a sense of existential absence that the individual expected to derive from his work. Burnout is related to career choices, partially stemming from unconscious aspects and affected by childhood experiences, the satisfaction of needs, and more. The decision carries with it

aspirations, hopes, and very high level of self-involvement. Professional success provides a sense of meaning. In failure, people tend to feel meaningless.

In summary, the phenomenon of teachers' burnout worldwide is characterized by two main factors: occupational factors and personal factors, as presented below.

Personal Reasons for Teacher Burnout

Despite the importance of role and occupation-related variables for the understanding of the phenomenon of burnout, they should not be separated from an analysis of personal factors. Then, stress and burnout are psychological, emotional, subjective, and experiential phenomena characteristic of a teacher's self-perception (Leiter & Maslach, 2001).

Schwarzer and Greenglass (1999) argue that burnout is a character component or a tendency that becomes a stable phenomenon during the individual's career. On the other hand, most researchers see personal factors, a mediator between stressful conditions and burnout. In other words, the influence of social factors on stress and burnout is mediated by teacher interpretations. The combination of tendencies and personality traits (such as mental or physical strength, tendency to be exposed to stressful situations) with the organizational status (such as the degree of bureaucratic interventions, size, and composition of the classroom) determines which type of stressors will most impact each teacher.

Personal factors for teacher burnout other than gender are age and seniority at work. Age is an independent variable with a considerable influence on burnout. Senior teachers with prior experience possess a broader selection of responses of coping methods (Cherniss, 1980). Nevertheless, the causes of burnout are uneven in time. Some teachers at age of 40 wear out faster than young teachers. Some teachers with 20 years seniority have a higher their level of burnout new teachers.

Additionally, teachers who are in their first years display a high level of commitment and involvement. They devote much time to work and are dedicated to

fulfilling their mission. Over the years they experience a decline in the level of motivation and professional commitment, while the importance of the family and relationships increases. Consequently, their level of burnout grows. According to Spaniol and Caputo (1979), personal expressions of teacher burnout include physical symptoms manifested in fatigue, headache, dizziness, heart disease and digestion, and psychological symptoms such as depression, anger, emotional instability, worry, guilt, alienation, and criticism .

1.5 Interpersonal Characteristics of Teachers' Burnout

Interpersonal relations are of great importance in teacher work, with previous studies showing that the higher the social support for teachers, the lower levels of burnout reported (Gavish & Friedman, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). Morim-Dvir (2007) demonstrated how personal factors and interpersonal factors, such as self-efficacy and social support, mediate between a stressful work environment and burnout. For example, in a study conducted by Van Droogenbroeck, Spruyt & Vanroelen (2014), they assessed the effect of four types of interpersonal relationships: With students, with colleagues, with supervisors/counselors, and with parents. Findings show that the teacher's relationship at work contributes significantly to reducing burnout. The researchers have demonstrated that all four relationships are most important to teachers and may affect the reduction of burnout (or increase in the incidence of problematic relationships). The following are the central teacher relationships with potential influence on the level of burnout.

Relations between the Teacher and the Principal

The central opinion emerging from literature is that principals, according to the teachers' perception, play a critical role in the teacher's well-being. They have all the resources to support the teacher's work and contribute to it. Alternatively, the principal is "the source of all the troubles" of the teacher. The principal is perceived by the teachers as a central figure in the relationship between the teacher and other functionaries and is responsible for all the organizational components in the school. Principals have many

tools by which they can improve relationships with teachers and help them reduce the level of burnout.

Support - Principals who know how to empower and support their teachers will make the teachers feel better and do their work better, subsequently, teachers will feel productive and more committed to the school. Teachers who feel that the principals do not support them will feel dissatisfied and helpless and even physically ill (Rozenholtz, 1989). Moreover, coordinating expectations and determining responsibilities increases the teacher's sense of commitment to the job. Once the role of the teacher and the climate are not vague, these will allow the teacher to concentrate on the primary task - work (Cherniss, 1988). Moreover, when principals include the teachers in the decision-making process, they increase their sense of autonomy and thus help them reduce burnout.

Teacher's Relationships with Colleagues

The literature emphasizes the importance of "healthy" interaction between the teacher and his peers, based on mutual assistance, professional and personal, and on sharing and supporting personal problems (Brenner, Sorbom, & Wallius, 1985; Greenglas, Fiksenbaum, & Burke, 1996). It is important to establish a school culture that fosters cooperation and collegiality: norms of mutual support among teachers, respect for colleagues' ideas, feedback from colleagues, praise for colleagues for successes, and collaborative ideas, materials, and information.

Relationships between the Teacher, the Parents, the Community, and the Public

Most teachers believe that parents should be an integral part of the educational process and that their support for the work done at school can significantly influence its success. Teachers also expect parents to adopt a strategy that is consistent with that of teachers in addressing various problems related to their children (Underwood & Meredith, 1991).

Teachers expect the parents to be partners in the educational processes, to support and appreciate the teacher's work, but not to interfere in their work. Nowadays, teachers

are in the "line of fire" due to growing public demands for better academic performance and more appropriate behavior of students. The community expects education to significantly contribute to solving social problems, such as drugs, intercultural gaps, child abuse and more. Further, the community expects teachers to undertake educational tasks that have traditionally been done by parents, such as the development of children's social attitudes and skills.

Relations between parents and educational institutions are multifaceted, complex and differ from one place to another. Various sorts of models have been proposed in the past for the degree of involvement and partnership of parents in their children's education (Friedman & Fisher, 2002). One of the primary models is the "parents as viewers" model. In this model, the roles of the school and the roles of the home are defined and known, and there is a distinct border between parents and teachers. The teachers present to the parents the results of the school's educational work for each known period (end of third, half, or end of the year), tell them the praise of their children or report negative behaviors of the children. The school sees it as its duty to warn parents when their children do not meet the accepted norms of the school. The educational institution expects the parents to bear responsibility for returning the children to the behavioral or educational standard. Parents regularly receive the children's grades in a personal report but are referred to school when a problem arises around their child that the school cannot handle. In this model, the role of the parents is passive when they observe the school work from the side in the belief that the teachers do their job in the best possible way. Teachers, on the other hand, expect parents to support schoolwork at home and discipline their children and strengthen them when they do not meet requirements. According to Noy (1997), the model of parents as viewers was typical for a long time in the relationships between parents and school and still characterizes many schools. It is particularly prevalent in schools that have not renewed their teaching methods and educational perceptions and traditional societies. In the model of parents as viewers, decision-making and policy-making are found exclusively in the hands of the teachers, and they concentrate all their power. Expectations from parents are clear, and failure of children in school is attributed to parents and not to school (Noy, 1997).

Another model that conceptualizes the relationship between parents and school is the "parents as a resource" model in which there is a higher degree of parental involvement in schools because, in this model, teachers understand the help that parents can offer them and expect their support. A school that operates according to this model refers to the parents as a resource, which in the right connection can be useful, advance the school and expand its sources (Korem, 2004). Parents are asked to contribute material and spiritual resources to the school to expand the possibilities of action and the variety of education offered to students. The requests for help and donation are usually varied, including baking cake for Shabbat, organizing parties, accompanying trips, collecting recycled materials for classroom use, and more. For the most part, the school staff usually defines the needs of the school and turns to the parents for help. The contribution of the parents can be at the level of the class in which their child or general is studying, for the entire school. In the parents' model as a resource, the school retains its full power by taking exclusive decision-making and policy-making rights. In this model, as in the previous model, the encounter with the parents takes place around their identity as parents, but the boundaries are less rigid, and the parents' entry into the school takes place on various occasions (Noy, 1997). This entry contributes to the atmosphere of sharing and the children's feelings about the connection between home and school. The existence of the model depends to a great extent on the fact that the school views the parents as those who can contribute to its activities.

An additional model is the "communication-dialogue" model. In this model, parents are perceived as partners in dialogue when their contribution and influence on school content and processes are assessed as the contribution of partners who have the potential to be equal to that of educators (Friedman, 1989). In these places, one can see applications of a communication model in which an ongoing process of dialogue, clarification, and partnership in thinking with parents takes place. Parents can approach teachers and principals on any matter; they can be involved and influence, express their opinions, and work for change together with educators. The model is derived from a liberal educational outlook and critical pedagogy based on models of effective communication and problem solving (Gordon, 1995). In this model, both parents and

teachers have a significant weight that aspires to equality in solving problems. Dealing with dilemmas is done by investing in creating understandings that enable equal cooperation between the parties. The communication model has great potential for changing the balance of power between parents and teachers. In this model, the encounter between the school and the parents is a multi-faceted encounter. The parents come with all their identities as activists, professionals, stakeholders and more, while the school staff communicates with them not only around the achievements and functioning of their children.

Finally, on the extreme edge of the continuum, in which the parents take a right to intervene intensively in school life is the "model of struggle" When the school fails to create understandings with parents or solve educational problems through the ways and tools, and when parents oppose the powerless place that the school places them in, they start the struggle (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Parents' interests sometimes clash with the school's educational worldview or the conventions according to which it operates. Therefore, parents are forced to lead a struggle to advance their cause and influence the system to solve the problems they represent. The model of struggle is usually created because the other models do not work, and the school fails to reach understandings with a group of interested parents who see reality differently from the school. In conflict situations, sometimes open or covert conflict develops, and the communication model does not guide the school.

Various researchers have argued for a more complex impact of parental involvement, particularly in the way that this involvement is interacting with teachers' attitudes. In his book "School, Family and Community Partnerships," Epstein (2001) argues that school, family, and community are "spheres of influence" that are of high importance to the child's development and education. The maximum effect is achieved when these spheres collaborate productively and positively. Epstein encourages the school to create as many overlapping areas as possible between these three environments through activities that cross the boundaries of these environments. In this way, the collaborative environment around the child becomes stronger, and he feels that he has an

address wherever he is and that the significant people in his life - his parents, his teachers - join together to make things difficult to find.

Thus, schools play an essential role in encouraging parents to become more involved in the child's academic life. In their study, Dauber and Epstein (1993) found that school was the most influential predictor of parental involvement. Specific activities that predicted good parental involvement included providing homework that the parent could help with, teaching parents and children contact workshops, and communicating routine messages to parents about their child's condition. Parental beliefs and parental perceptions were also related to the degree of parental involvement in the child's education in this study. The child's educational aspirations and the level of comfort parents felt vis-à-vis the school's staff proved to be a good predictor of parental involvement. In addition, parents' beliefs about their responsibilities as parents, the level of parental competence to influence the child to learn better, and their familiarity with the interest and motivation of the child at home and at school were also related (Edwards, David & Allared, 1999; Walker et al., 2005). Reed et al. (2000) argued that parental perception of parental roles and parents' involvement in the school is of great importance in determining parental involvement. Furthermore, they found that parental self-efficacy is mediated by the perceived role of the parents. When the parent views himself as responsible for helping his child, his level of self-efficacy regarding involvement is significant.

Alongside the personal characteristics of the parents, it is important to remember that socio-demographic variables also influence the degree of parental involvement in school life. More parental involvement was reported in small schools than large schools (Crosnoe, 2001), and among parents of a higher socio-economic class than low (McEvoy & Walker, 2000). The difference in the size of the school can be explained by the degree of intimacy and sense of responsibility that arises in small schools compared to the reluctance and the spread of responsibility in large schools. Also, the parent's socio-economic situation explains the parent's involvement, particularly in the free time of

high-class parents and sometimes in their higher awareness of the degree of involvement compared to lower-class families.

However, it is important to note that sometimes teachers and parents do not see eye to eye the level of parental involvement. These cases are most common in situations where parents want to be more involved while teachers see parental participation in school as an intrusion into their professional territory. Often, teachers tend to blame the behavior of the parents on the child's problems, while on the other hand the parents usually attribute the difficulties to the teachers.

The parents' responsibility for their children's behavior and achievements often resonates with childhood traumas, memories of the parents' school experience, and the difficulties they faced as children. Their weakness, which stems from their experience as children, sometimes surface when coming into contact with the school around their child's achievements. The feeling of "I'm not okay - you're okay" is a familiar feeling with which children grow up (Harris, 1980). In this situation of failure to take responsibility that sometimes occurs in the conflict between parents and teachers, children may fall between the cracks and find themselves the primary victims of these power struggles. Therefore, it is essential that both the parents and the teachers adopt the principles of cooperation cited above and to establish a productive collaboration aimed at empowering the children and enabling them to realize his academic potential.

Observing the structure of the school and the pedagogic processes may illuminate part of the complicated answer to the question of power in the relations between the parents and the school. Professional knowledge accompanied by professional jargon, which is not always understood by everyone, is a powerful tool for educators. The parents who raise their children over the years accompany them through the transition from one educational framework to the next and from a teacher to a teacher, are well acquainted with them (Eldar, 2000). However, the professional knowledge about children's development and the adaptation of learning methods to them lies in the hands of educators.

Sometimes the school misuses the power of this knowledge, and through it, the parents are put in a position of weakness. Most of the educational discussions take place in the school, which is a public system, behind closed doors, when the parents cannot hear what is said about their children, and probably not make their voices heard. Given the parents' familiarity with their children, their lack of voice from the discussions is sometimes a real hamper to the children's well-being and their chances of succeeding. The closed-door policy creates a vigorous defense of mistakes within the school, and conflicts that sometimes exist within the staff of the school itself did not come out as part of maintaining a uniform front of the school against parents. In cases where the school shares with the parents, the educators sometimes ask for a coalition of teachers and parents in front of the children. Such an alliance may have a positive educational value, but it may equally leave the child without support, wholly isolated from the adult world (Trager, 2003). Parents who do not participate in such a coalition are perceived by the school as parents who do not cooperate and do not understand or know what is right for their child.

From an ethnic point of view, Arab teachers suffer from additional burden causing more stress when they teach in Jewish schools. Studies conducted by social organizations promoting Jewish-Arab coexistence have found that integration of Arab teachers in Jewish schools was followed by a decrease in alienation between the populations, higher satisfaction, and have even suggested that a shift in social consciousness has occurred (Gindi & Erlich-Ron, 2019). One study has indicated that social relationships between Arab teachers and their Jewish colleagues went beyond the workplace, unlike social relationships of Arab employees and their Jewish colleagues in other fields (such as the high tech industry), where relationships tend to remain work-related. Bendas-Jacob and Makhoul (2013) found that two thirds of school principals felt Arab teachers were well integrated in school, the vast majority of teachers felt the Arab teachers were accepted by students and staff, and 24% indicated they had developed a personal relationship with them.

Relations between the Teachers and the Students

The most common sources of interest and concern for teachers in their work at school are their interactions with their students and the positive feedback from successful lessons (Nias, 1999). There are three main characteristics of the interaction between teachers and their students, which form the basis for the expectations of teachers and their students:

- Most teachers perceive their relationship with their students as personal rather than impersonal and bureaucratic;
- Teachers derive from the interpersonal nature of these relationships a sense of moral responsibility, more than legal, for students, that is, there is an ethical dimension in the relationship with the students.
- Most teachers feel that their moral responsibility to their students places a commitment on them, and this commitment is expressed in the need to "care" for them: for their physical, social, emotional or moral welfare; to support them; whether these actions have a hefty price or are contrary to the interests of the teachers themselves. Lortie (1975) notes that designing meaningful personal relationships with students brings teachers the highest rewards and personal satisfaction.

Manz and Sims (1991) found that an educator is a transformative-leader who succeeds in influencing his students to invest in studies by agreeing to contribute more than they are committed to the school, to their friends, and out of faith in the goals. At the same time, the teacher will aspire to change with an emphasis on the uniqueness of each student. To convey to his students the message and feeling that he relies on their inner motivation, and therefore allows them greater freedom of choice and more range of action. Such a teacher succeeds in influencing his students to invest in their studies out of an inner desire rather than an expectation of rewards. The teacher will make students recognize the value of their achievements as a positive reward in and of themselves as part of their development and growth. The students will agree to contribute more than they are committed to the school or their friends out of faith in the goals of the school.

These findings have been reconstructed in more recent leadership studies (Pearce, Manz, & Akanno, 2013).

Respectively, teachers are positively perceived by their students when they meet the following conditions: They are warm people who adopt a personal attitude towards their students. They understand and are patient, encourage and praise their students whenever possible. Listen to students and give them opportunities to speak and take the initiative. Furthermore, they are kindhearted, pleasant and modest people who can behave informally. They are willing to hear criticism from students and do not expect all students to be submissive. It is also vital for students to know that teachers will share most of their activities and make an effort to contact their parents. Most studies focus on the interaction between the teacher and the students, with teacher closeness being the central aspect. Students are therefore interested in receiving a human, warm and intimate attitude from the teacher, who will provide guidance and advice, and will help solve personal problems. Also, the students express appreciation for teachers who provide a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere, who know how to teach well, and use a sense of humor (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2011).

Professional Characteristics of Teachers' Burnout

Burnout is caused by a combination of work requirements that include psychological, organizational, and physical aspects which lead to mental effort. On the other side is the occupational resources factor. Some studies have indicated a correlation between the number of classes taught by the teacher, the extent of his/her position in the school and the level of his / her attrition. The number of classes and the scope of the teacher's job are objective indicators of workload. Some teachers teach many subjects, and the transition between classes and different age groups leads to their burnout (Fiorilli et al., 2015; Benevene & Fiorilli, 2015).

Furthermore, teacher burnout factors are related to the work itself and to the environment in which they work, such as communication problems with students are found to be of great importance, teachers are motivated primarily by internal altruistic

motivations such as the desire to teach and help children, and most of their professional time. The sense of satisfaction also increases, as does the perception of their achievement, and when the experience is negated, the feeling of satisfaction decreases, and this leads to burnout (Struyven et al., 2012). Additional factors are teacher's self-image issues, teacher-student interactions, high mental stress, threat to the teachers leadership at school, classroom discipline problems, students' empathy, lack of appreciation from students, difficulty in organizing material, too high workload that becomes a "punishment", low salaries, parents indifference, severe criticism of the teacher's work (Antman & Shirom, 1987; Friedman, 1999; Friedman & Lotan, 1993).

School Climate

One of the essential components of employment that affects teacher burnout is the school climate. "Climate" is a comprehensive and multidimensional concept that includes many factors, such as interpersonal relationships, norms, the degree of supervision or freedom, cohesion, sense of belonging and satisfaction, order and procedure, sharing and competitiveness. Climate is a crucial concept in analyzing the environment at both the organizational and societal levels (Ostro, Kinicki, & Fagan, 2008). The increasing recognition of environmental influences on human, emotional and social responses, as well as the recognition that changing the environment and improving its quality will lead to a change in human reactions and enhance the quality of life of individuals and society, has increased interest in the study of the human environment and its effects on individual behavior.

The concept of "environment" is referred to in the most general social structures, while researchers point to the effects of diverse experiential conditions ranging from the influences of others and patterns of society to the functioning of society as a whole (Moos, 1979). The renewed interest in psychology is characterized by the addition of another dimension to the concept of "environment": the physical dimension. The goal is to understand the connection between human behavior and experience and the physical environment and to draw more attention to the fit existing between human needs and the environment.

The environmental climate, both in the organization and in the community, has several levels of analysis, with each level having different implications (Zohar & Luria, 2005). The primary levels of analysis are individual level and group level. At the personal level, climate analysis focuses on the psychological climate of the individual, with a perception that the individual's mental climate may predict his/her behavior well. Also, the analysis of the organizational and group climate in which the individual is located focuses on various external factors that are in a relationship with the individual and may affect his/her behavior (Luria, 2008b).

The organizational climate is the system of characteristics of the internal environment of the organization as experienced by its partners. It affects their behavior in a direct and indirect way, and is described in terms of values, norms and beliefs in the organization's existence, as well as the prevailing atmosphere (Bar-Lev, 2007). The climate consists of perceptions, opinions, and attitudes toward the school that are internalized by the staff and reflected in the general climate. In fact, the social and academic climates are composed of variables related to the social environment. These variables refer to the behavior, attitudes and perceptions of the teaching staff and the student population regarding the school and the relationship between the individuals in it. The lives of schoolchildren are significantly affected both by the academic climate and by the social environment (Sharan, 1986). Therefore, a school must set a goal of building a social climate and optimal learning ambiance, with a pleasant and supportive educational environment that develops social skills and offers opportunities for diverse experiences, while committing to the inclusion of all students, including students with special needs, (Timor, 2008).

The school climate is a source of learning values and norms accepted in a wide range of cultures, along with imparting the specific values and standards that distinguish the population group and the culture to which the child belongs. Values such as cleanliness, obedience, discipline, punctuality, competition, achievement, and accomplishment are part of the values that the school provides while transferring information, acquiring education and educating the student. The atmosphere of the

educational framework influences social relations, learning, and scholastic achievements. The way teachers and students interact influences the social relationships within the school and the academic achievements of the students (Bar-Lev, 2007).

The school climate includes several characteristics: (1) leadership style, (2) the degree of freedom, independence, and autonomy granted to staff members, and (3) the extent to which teachers relate to their role as meaningful, and how there is perceived by the environment. Moreover, does the organization encourage, support and accept creativity, originality, initiatives and various teaching methods (Zack & Horowitz, 1985). (4) The nature of the relationships and cooperation between the staff members in the organization, cohesion and collegiality, which is expressed in dialogue and exchange of opinions, support and assistance even in the personal aspect, the exchange and routine sharing of learning contents, and sharing responsibility (Zack and Horowitz, 1985; Bar-Lev 2007). (5) The degree of stress, tension, and pressure felt by the teachers in the organization (Zack and Horowitz, 1985; Bar-Lev 2007).

It should be emphasized that there are interactions between the different components. At the same time, a positive school climate encourages and praises the workings and quality of the entire system.

On the other hand, the school climate can also adversely affect teacher burnout when the climate is characterized by the lack of support of the staff and school management, and lack of promotion options. Tension among the staff and with management is a source of stress and burnout, and personal and professional support provides an essential feature in relieving anxiety and burnout (Farber, 1982).

In the school climate, the size of the school and the number of students attending school are critical. The larger the school, the more bureaucratic it will need to be, and the individual will feel helpless about the ability to influence, which directly causes burnout (Roness, 2011). Studies of Friedman and Lotan (1993) found that the structure of the school influenced teacher burnout: large schools, large spaces, clean and orderly buildings provide an atmosphere of discipline and order. From the perspective of the

management, there is a clear and defined hierarchy; a deputy and many officials. A clear management style and high authority, as well as pressure on the part of management to high achievements, and a lack of personal support. In contrast schools without burnout have a small, intimate, warm structure, a structure that is not one hundred percent clean, the administrative environment is undefined, there is a management team, and numerous staff meetings, though a less committing environment.

Another cause of teacher burnout is inadequate compensation, unsatisfactory and low wages. Since the teaching profession requires hard work on a permanent basis, work without fatigue, without hours and job that requires the teacher to study continuously. In comparison to other professions, teachers' salaries are minuscule and do not reflect the amount of effort required. (Farber, 1991; Trendall, 1989).

Teachers and Students - Generations

One more interesting aspect is the generations of teachers and students. Teachers are part of Generation X or Generation Y (Millennials). Generation X, which is sometimes shortened to Gen X, is the name given to the generation of Americans born between the mid-1960s and the early-1980s and Generation Y is the name given to people born in late 1980-s till 2000.

Generation X has been defined as an "in-between" generation. The group's earning power and savings were compromised first by the dotcom bust, and second by the financial crisis of 2008 and the Great Recession (Coupland, 1991).

The Millennials are also very concerned about their health and are taking measures to improve it. For this generation, Google Search takes the lead in being the most used source to inform oneself about health. Even though there has been some misconception about Millennials, they were initially labeled lazy and entitled, they have proved themselves to be hardworking, ambitious and willing to think outside the box to pursue opportunities related to their professional life (Jiří, 2016).

Students are or so-named Generation Z. The members of generation Z are not good listeners and lack interpersonal skills. Communication with others generally consists of use of the World Wide Web. Due to the interest in new technology, the members of Generation Z can generally be found at locations that offer the advantage of being hooked up to the Web. The Generation Z member's interpersonal skills are different from the other generations as they are set apart and are the newest generation. Interpersonal skills are awkward for this generation. They lack interpersonal skills that are needed to communicate and relate to individuals. Generation Z is also known as the "silent" generation due to technology ruling the world thus giving them the name of the "silent, the iGeneration, generation quiet, and the next generation". They take the Internet for granted and consider web sites such as Orkut, Google, and Facebook as their community. Within this community of cyber space, a person can have many acquaintances without personally meeting anyone. By being considered the quiet generation, the members of this generation do not have personal meetings with their friends that may lead to relationships (Jiří, 2016). This generation difference can be one of the factors to teacher's burnout.

1.6 Ways of Coping with Burnout

The term "coping patterns," or "coping," defines the individual's efforts to deal with external and internal demands, and the conflicts between the two. Coping patterns are divided into two main groups. The first group of coping patterns is an attempt to eliminate the source of stress (in this case, "problem-focused strategies"), through direct and focused treatment of the diagnosed problem. The second group of coping patterns is an attempt to alleviate the worker's emotional distress without attempting to change the source of stress (Deborin, Fioravanti, Tarantino & Cohen, 2015).

Austin, Shah & Muncer (2005) found that teachers with high levels of stress are more likely to use negative coping strategies such as escape avoidance. Teachers with high levels of distress used negative strategies more frequently.

Reviewing the literature devoted to coping with burnout, Friedman (1995) identifies two types of coping programs or strategies:

1. One program group focuses directly on the burnout factors (as far as they are known or identified). The immediate action involved in the practical treatment of the source of stress can be in the context of teachers, for example, reducing the number of students in a classroom, reducing heterogeneity in classes, changes in the curriculum to increase students' motivation and more.
2. The other group of programs focuses on indirect treatment of burnout factors, using palliative techniques (temporary relief). Stress-relieving techniques assume as a given fact that stress is a phenomenon one must live with but try to ease the emotional experience and its symptoms. Stress relieving techniques can be classified into two categories:
 - A) Mental techniques that try to change the teacher's perception, for example, regarding his surroundings and circumstances. "Putting things in perspective," trying to see the pleasant, or even amusing, sides of stressful situations, using positive imagination, and more.
 - B) Physical techniques, including relaxation exercises, physical activity, workshops for a healthy and enjoyable life and more .

In addition, strategies for dealing with stress and burnout may be further divided:

1. Individual-focused problem-solving (the employee takes action, on a personal initiative, to solve problems).
2. Group-centered coping (the workers join together in a group that tries to alleviate their emotional distress).
3. Focusing on an institutional problem (the organization in which the employee is employed, trying to solve the pressing problem).
4. Institutional-focused coping (the organization in which the employee is employed collectively addresses the stress relief of employees without directly addressing issues and stressors).

Shinn and Murtash (in Friedman 1995) found that among the individual strategies, the most common is the strategy of focusing on lateral occupations; Among the group strategies (and in fact the only practical approach) the most common is group support; Among the institutional strategies, no common strategy was identified. Factories do very little to increase the resilience of their employees in dealing with burnout.

The coping patterns show that nothing has been done about teachers directly. The two strategies, problem and thrill-based, are useless statements with respect to teachers and certainly do not mitigate the teacher's burnout. The attempt, for example, to reduce the number of students in a class becomes, over time, an "academic debate." To date, no practical decision has been reached on this issue. Even the attempt to form an "attractive" curriculum has not proven itself, and students see school as one big boredom, resulting in disciplinary problems that contribute to teacher burnout. With an educational system that employs more than 100,000 teachers, there is no one to take responsibility for rectifying the situation (Shin et al., 2014).

Malach Pines (1984) describes two elements for coping with teacher burnout: coping direction: whether directed at the stressor or the individual experiencing stress. Mode of coping: active or passive. According to these two factors, she described four methods of dealing with burnout.

Table Number 1: Four Methods for Dealing with Burnout

	Direct	Indirect
Active	Changing the source of stress. Confrontation with the source of pressure. Finding positive aspects in the situation. Example: teachers with multi job description find the satisfaction in the success of the fulfilling the professional & personal goals.	Discussing the source of stress. Change self to adapt to stress. Find other occupations. we can see this kind of behavior reflected in teacher's when they share their feeling with co-workers, or asking to reduce the amount of work hours.
Passive	Ignoring the source of stress. Refrain from the pressure source. Leaving the environment.	Neglecting behaviors: drinking alcohol, using drugs. Eating too much. Disease. Collapse. Usually when the pressure is high, some of the teachers are suffering from various diseases that cause them to miss work.

Direct methods are the most effective for coping with burnout today as they succeed in changing the individual's perception. The indirect methods do not help when they are triggered alone, only in conjunction with the direct actions. A statistically significant positive correlation was found between the indirect passive methods and the high level of burnout.

The summary of all definitions and researches mentioned is presented as follows:

Table Number 2: Summary of the First Chapter

<u>Definitions of Burnout</u>					
<u>Researcher</u>	Freudenberger	Zohar	Pines & Aronson	Shirom	Friedman
<u>Year</u>	1974	1988	1988	1994	1997
<u>Summary</u>	concept of burnout	loss of raw materials for continued combustion	physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion caused by the prolonged involvement in emotionally demanding situations	continuous emotional pressures	shift from high motivation to low motivation
<u>Researches about Burnout</u>					
<u>Researcher</u>	Pridan	Friedman	Friedman	Rinat Arbiv, Varda Zimmerman	Adoniou
<u>Year</u>	1992	1992	1989	2013	2013
<u>Summary</u>	described the process of teacher burnout	three categories of teacher burnout	the "communication-dialogue"	Consequently, teacher dropout increases teacher turnover in the school and diminishes attempts to accumulate experience, thus harming the efficiency of the educational process	novice teachers considered leaving because they were struggling to be the teachers they expected to be

Examining coping strategies among teachers in the Arab culture in Israel, shows that prospective Arab teachers stated that they were satisfied with the ways they were personally and socially treated in the college. At the same time they also indicated that they felt they had to consciously refrain from expressing their national identity, which was different than that of their Jewish students and colleagues. In essence, these students are trading the partial renouncement of their identity for socio-personal well-being. They fear risking the socio-personal comfort zone they have established by confronting it with external reality, and therefore choose to leave their national identity outside of it (Halabi, 2017).

The current work focuses on teacher burnout in villages for at-risk youth. Therefore, in the next section is devoted to the issue of youth at risk.

2. Youth at Risk

2.1 Adolescence as a Critical Period

There are several definitions to the adolescence period. Adolescence is the period of transition from childhood to adulthood. The adolescent period begins around the onset of puberty, and ends with the adoption of adult roles such as employment and marriage. Although there is disagreement as to how exactly to define adolescence, it is often linked to the second decade of life. Some writers distinguish between early adolescence (11 or 12 to 14 years), mid-adolescence (15–17 years) and late adolescence (18–21 years) (Richter, 2006)

Most of definitions agree that at this stage, the adolescent undergoes physiological, cognitive, social, and emotional changes that violate the psychological balance of the adolescent and the family system to which he belongs (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). According to the developmental model, in adolescence, there is a process of segregation-individuation, that is, the transition from dependence towards independence. This process focuses on the child's independence as he distances himself from reliance on the family and the loosening of childlike relationships to become an adult member of

society. When unbridgeable failures occur in the child's separation process, the adolescent's process of separation and individuation is compromised.

The primary developmental need to disengage from the family framework and pursue adult life continues and pushes the adolescent to realize the process. In the process the youngster is often using extreme behavioral expressions such as anti-social behavior, delinquency, use of psychoactive substances, and more. On the other hand, a proper separation process eventually leads to a mature feeling of the adolescent, and especially to the ability to direct his life and adapt to changed living conditions on his own (Merdinger, Hines, Lemon-Osterline, & Wyatt, 2005).

In the past, it was customary to attribute to adolescence the physiological changes alone, but today there is a reference to all the changes experienced by the adolescent. Moreover, physiological, emotional, and cognitive changes occur earlier in adolescence due to changes in eating habits and the acquisition of skills and knowledge at a younger age. Hence, adolescence lasts longer, followed by the emergence of independent living is delayed. Therefore many young people in their late twenties still live in their parents' homes and are not in a hurry to start a family and experience different kinds of work (Benvenisti & Zeira, 2008).

In industrialized Western societies, adolescence usually lasts until the late twenties. This can be explained by the fact that in modern culture young people face the need to obtain residence, social status, spouse and professional achievement that are considered "correct" and will determine their future fate. This period, which continues until the formation of the individual's professional and family identity, is usually referred to as a "moratorium" and expresses a period when social obligations are rejected, and there is a temporary rejection of accepted norms (Erickson, 1961). In Western society, the moratorium lasts for several years, sometimes even for a decade, and is accepted by most Western societies as legitimate. During this period a process of experiencing takes place in the professional, interpersonal and marital spheres. Arnett (2000) claims that in Western societies, the process of identity formation described by Ericsson (1961) continued into the twenties. He called this period "emerging adulthood" to emphasize it

as another developmental stage on the way to adulthood. During this period, meaningful choices will take place according to which the continuation of life will be determined (Banai, 2008).

Banai (2008) explains that during adolescence a person 'chooses himself,' however, in the post-adolescent period he chooses 'his place in the world.' Until the establishment of the 'family unit,' the young person must achieve several goals, including: A. To leave his parents' home and live outside the home of the family of origin. B. To choose a professional track and to meet the conditions of acceptance and demands to realize socio-economic status. C. To realize his identity that had crystallized during adolescence and cope with disappointments surrounding this identity.

At the same time, one of most significant achievements during adolescence is the crystallization of an integrative identity. According to Erickson (1968), identity development begins before adolescence, when the child internalizes and identifies with significant figures, however these are partial identifications that may contradict each other. During puberty, as a result of physiological and cognitive changes and social expectations, the adolescent re-forms his own identity. Identity organization allows the individual to feel stability in his life, and that he remains the same person in spite of different experiences throughout life. This feeling enables him, later in life, to commit to a profession, to a family, to a worldview, and more. On the other hand, failure of the process leaves the person with a confused identity and difficulties in taking any commitment. Therefore, adolescence is a critical period, in which the ability of the individual to cope independently with challenges in life is primarily determined (Benvenisti, 2007).

In acquiring appropriate life skills, the adolescent must adapt to the real conditions of life and gain a sense of self-efficacy. The adaptation was defined in the literature in various terms, for example, Grossman (1977) explained adaptation as the degree to which the individual meets the standards of independence and personal responsibility expected from his age in his culture. Later, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) argued that adaptation is the result of processes by which the individual adapts to various

internal or external demands when these processes are influenced by the encounter between the internal personality factors and the environmental factors.

Optimal adaptation usually occurs when some cumulative conditions exist, including a realistic perception of life, emotional and social maturity, and a positive balance between external and internal forces that affect human behavior. On the other hand, when the adolescent encounters situations characterized by severe living conditions, lack of social support, or inflexible personality traits lacking in mental strength, he may feel feelings of lack of control and a sense of threat.

Studies in the field show that two main variables help adolescents adapt. The first is self-image, that is, the way adolescents perceive themselves personally, academically and socially (Rutter, 1987). The second variable is the level of social support, that is, the way adolescents perceive the concern and assistance they receive from others (especially family, teaching staff, and friends).

The challenges of adolescent adaptation can be divided into three main areas: (1) organizational challenges, the organization of the environment, time, and self-control. (2) Cognitive difficulties that are mainly expressed in the academic field and cognitive abilities such as learning abilities, concentration, thinking, memory and analysis. (3) Social difficulties are arising from the transition from one social framework to another (Sruff, Cooper, & Woodhart, 1998). Challenge in one of these areas may also be expressed in the emotional field and manifested in fear of failure, anxiety or negative self-image.

2.2 Youth at Risk

The above described challenges are even more severe for youth at risk. Youth at risk are in a situation that may be mentally or physically harmful and prevent them from developing properly. In Israel, the Youth Law (1960) defines a minor in need as a person whose "physical or mental integrity is harmed or may be harmed." Children at risk are exposed to physical, sexual, or emotional abuse (Peter, 2004), and may suffer from neglect and abuse (Ney, Fung, & Wickett, 1994).

These are children who experience significant vulnerability and whose development is characterized by contact with a neglecting and/or abusive parent figure (Cohen, 2001). In Israel of the third millennium, every second child out of ten is a "child at risk," that is, living in poverty and neglect, sometimes with violence, often without a social framework. Moreover, it is entirely possible that more children are not being reported and are at some risk. From year to year, the number of children at risk is increasing, and many of the children have unhealthy and often life-threatening patterns of behavior. About 9% of them are even involved in crime and endanger their future (Ben Aryeh, Zionist, & Berman, 2008).

Studies have shown that children and youth at risk are usually the outcome of one or more of the following:

1. Poverty - Conditions of poverty and neglect are highly correlated with youth's risk of negative behaviors. The inability of the children to be alone, to prepare their homework quietly, to be entertained and to release their energies, is pushing the children into the street, where they are a nuisance to the public, subject to many dangers and encounter an enviable encounter envious encounters with wealthier strata (Melamed, 1984). But poverty, according to many studies (for example: Melamed, 1984; Ney, Fung, & Wickett, 1994; Haugaard & Hazan, 2004), is not the primary direct cause of delinquency. Studies have shown that only 3 percent of criminals and less than 1 percent of all criminals are resulted from poverty as a direct cause. Other criminology studies argue that poverty is very rarely the cause of crime. The courage, effort, and moral foundations of thousands of parents, who prefer to starve rather than commit crimes, and instill this approach in their children, attest to this claim.
2. Broken families - family relations, that is, the relationships between the father and the mother, between them and their children and their children, play an important role in shaping the personality and behavior of the children, and when they are faulty, this has implications for their deviant or delinquent behavior. Criminals, far more than those who are not criminals, have grown up in a negative family atmosphere that is not conducive to the development of emotionally well-

developed young people who are happy and willing to accept discipline and legitimate authority (Melamed, 1984).

Family relations can be lacking in the following ways: (a) **The domestic atmosphere is deficient.** Failure to satisfy the child's needs by his family. Experience teaches that home education has great importance to the child's education, his feeling of being a desirable household member, and part of a social unit called a family, and his pride in his roots. Glueck and Glueck determine in their research that a significant proportion of the criminals come from broken homes or from homes that lack the pride of belonging to the family. In a situation of "a lack of proper emotional satisfaction and a lack of an object to identify with - criminal activity cannot be avoided."² (b) **Generation gap.** The gap between the years and opinions between parents and their children, which causes high tension in the family, is natural. The existence of this tension is often positive, as it helps the children to free themselves from dependence and to consolidate their independent personality; Sometimes the tensions rise beyond the ordinary and natural limits, and if not addressed on time, the relationship between the parents and the child may be completely disrupted and transformed into a relationship of hostility and even violence, or in the worst cases of a relationship of total indifference and despair. Such situations lead to running away from home, wandering and deterioration (Steinberg, 2001).

The literature reviews the many negative consequences for children who experience parenting and/or abuse and neglect. These children are at risk of serious behavioral disorders, from disobedience and rage attacks to criminal behavior, violence and other forms of antisocial behavior (Etier, Lemelin, & Lacharite, 2004). They are also at risk of emotional problems (Edwards, Brown, Swisher, & Jennings, 2005), which are expressed in distrust, low self-esteem, anxiety, and depression (Wodarski et al., 1990). In rare cases, as a result of severe abuse and neglect, mental disorders such as bipolar

² Glueck, S., Glueck, H., 1962, in: Melamed (1984).

disorder, borderline personality disorder, schizophrenia, dissociative disorder, and inappropriate social attachment can be observed (Haugaard & Hazan, 2004). These implications may affect the children's ability to establish vital interpersonal relationships (Ethier et al., 2004). Most of the studies that focus on youth at risk have investigated the phenomenon in the context of placement outside the home, i.e., placement in the boarding school. This population is most vulnerable, especially in light of the sharp transition from the family framework to a sudden and multifaceted coping with another environment (Stein, 2006).

According to data from the Ministry of Education in Israel, during the past two decades, there has been a significant reduction in the proportion of youth aged 14-17 who do not study, in the Jewish sector from 20.5% in 1980 to 4.6% in 2000, and in the non-Jewish sector from 48.7% in 1980 to 20.7% in 2000 (Lahav, 2004). However, from these data, it becomes apparent that despite the many actions taken in Israel to reduce the dropout phenomenon, the problem was not eliminated. Studies indicate that the disengagement of youth from the normative education system in which their peers are located does not usually stem from the choice of the boy and the girl. Instead, in most cases, it is a constraint imposed by the system directly or indirectly (Lahav, 2004). In Israel, dropping out is concentrated especially in secondary education in the 15-17 age group (mainly in the transition stage between middle school and high school). It was further found that students with reading and math problems in middle school are likely to fail in 10th grade (Balfanz & Herzog, 2006). Nevertheless, it should be considered that the data usually reflect only overt and reported dropout at the point of time of the examination. Hidden and unreported dropout ultimately led to similar results (Lahav, 2011; Central Bureau of Statistics, 2012-2013).

According to Shammai (1994), youth in distress develop a personality characterized by symptoms of low frustration threshold, impulsivity, poor self-control, difficulties in abstract thinking, low verbal level, feelings of estrangement and social dislocation, low aspiration for the future regarding social mobility. The perception of reality as a social framework with no hope for the future, feelings of social alienation and

feelings of helplessness among children and adolescents mean not internalizing a social norm of success as the goal of life, i.e., giving up hope and aspiration for a better future.

Findings demonstrate that higher claims of reality diminish the ability to make decisions and choose between alternatives. When the personal resources - personality and social, are available to young people and they (Barnett, 1998) reinforce feelings of helplessness and social alienation (Weinger, 1998). Emotions of continued helplessness and isolation are essential factors in adolescents' difficulties in adapting to accepted societal norms, their dysfunctions in educational settings, challenges in self-restraint of aggressive behaviors and responses (Solberg, 1994), disturbances in relationships with others, and development of criminal behavior patterns (Eshed-Polk, 1996). According to experts in the area of adolescence, the unsupportive environment in the family or the community, can interfere with the successful completion of the socialization process and impair their ability to cope with new social situations or situations that require effort.

Lahav (2011) refers to behaviors at risk and observes complicated behaviors such as school absences, hidden dropout, connections to criminal culture, drug and alcohol abuse, early use of cigarettes, early sex. The multiplicity of youth is growing in all countries in the world. Youth is not born at risk, but rather a mixture of thoughts, behaviors, and personal factors that have influenced the development of dangerous behavior. Youth at risk can be treated and mobilized to a better place in society. The educational system, both the teachers and the administrative staff must be sensitive to this youth and create a sense of security and self-efficacy.

One of the most popular models for estimating "at-risk" among youth worldwide is the eclectic-ecology approach. This is a multidimensional approach to deciphering the individual's educational and psychological problems, which is done by addressing the complex interactions between human data and environmental data. This approach combines adolescent developmental theories and ecological-ecological theories about the peer group, family, school, and broader community of the adolescent with whom the adolescent is interacting.

The family environment includes an array of activities, roles and interpersonal relationships experienced by the child in his family. The characteristics of the child and his parents shape this environment. Another environment is the sociological environment in which the adolescent is in daily contact. This environment includes all those social connections of the child who are not necessarily members of his family. This refers to frameworks that provide various services, such as education, health, and welfare. On the other hand, the more distant environment is an environment in which the boy is not an active partner but indirectly affects him. These environmental variables determine the socioeconomic background of the adolescent (economic crisis, inferior living standards, inadequate health services, and more) (Mor, 2008).

Subsequently to all the theories and models presented in this chapter, a "state of risk" is the integration of an environment and harmful personal characteristics that may endanger the adolescent and harm him in his normal social development. Moreover, according to the studies presented above, there is a strong positive relationship between adolescents who are in the definition of "at-risk" and the risk of dropping out among those adolescents (Miller, 2001).

2.3 Immigrant Youth as Youth at Risk

A group particularly vulnerable to being at risk is immigrant youth. According to the definition of the Ministry of Aliyah and Integration and the Ministry of Labor Social Affairs and Social Services, an immigrant child is a person born abroad who immigrated to Israel, or one of whose parents immigrated to Israel from 1900. The definition of the Israel Police is more limited and includes only children born abroad who immigrated to Israel from 1900 onwards. In 2009 there were 235,446 immigrant children in Israel, children who immigrated to Israel or were born in Israel to parents who immigrated from 1900 onwards, who constitute 10% of the total population of children in Israel. The percentage of minors aged 12-17 who were born abroad and immigrated to Israel from 1990 onwards, who are the focus of this study, was 7.2% of the total number of minors in Israel at this age in 2009.

From the very beginning of Zionism, the immigration of the Jews of the world was an essential component in building the settlements in Israel. With the establishment of the State of Israel, the Law of Return was enacted, according to which the state would be a haven for every persecuted Jew in the world. Thus, Israel became an "immigrant society." New immigrants who come from foreign countries encounter cultural, language and financial difficulties. The children are assimilated into society and the problems of the beginning are gradually disappearing. The same case does not apply to the parents, and they are particularly in need of financial assistance. This leads to a reversal of roles between the parents and the immigrant youth, parental authority declines, and consequently, there is an extreme decline in family values and even disengagement from them (Flora Koch Davidovich, 2010).

The immigration process is defined as a "crisis," even if the migrant in his country of origin was functioning well before emigration. This crisis, on the personal and cultural levels, was created by the processes of disengagement of the immigrant from the previous culture and adoption of the new culture (Weil-Tanna and Hoffman, 1995). These processes lead to a clash between the different norms of the two cultures, which in turn bring the immigrant to delinquency and social deviation. The lack of role models, as well as lack of direction and setting boundaries, generate a state of confusion for many immigrant adolescents and cause social isolation and alienation. Some adolescents choose anti-social ways to express their dissatisfaction with society and find support and reinforcement from joining youngster groups who are absent from school and involved in violent activity and crime (Cohen, 2006). The process of maturation is a developmental stage that symbolizes the transition from childhood to adulthood and is characterized by powerful physical and psychological level. This combination of the two types of crises creates severe distress among the youth (Mirsky & Prawer, 1992; Weill-Tene & Hofman, 1995).

In this vein, it is important to note that individuals from second generation of immigrants choose to identify themselves as more close to the society they grow within, rather than the one their parents came from. For example, according to studies conducted

in the US, while the immigrant first generation has a distinct point of reference in the country of origin, the experiences of their children are distinctly American (Portes & FernandezKelly, 2008). However, many of them carefully balance dual cultures and languages at home and in school. How they become incorporated into mainstream society will reveal much about their current experiences and what future generations may experience (Portes & FernandezKelly, 2008). Fundamentally, the formation of ethnic identity represents a sense of connection and belonging to an ethnic or racial group (Alba, Kasinitz, & Waters, 2011). However, as ethnicity is not static, it is an ongoing evaluation that involves a trying on of traits that will ultimately be adapted or discarded, depending on the group's social standing and individual appraisals of those traits. Ultimately, ethnic identity of individuals from second generation is fluid, temporary, and reflects the changes across life stages and experiences (Portes, & Rumbaut, 2014).

2.4 School Dropout

The Compulsory Education Law, 5759 - 2008, stipulates that all children in Israel aged 5-15 must study in a formal educational framework approved by law. Furthermore, it was stated that compulsory education is free of charge (Director Circular, 2011). In fact, reducing dropouts is one of the central goals of the education system. The realization of the goal requires a uniform and measurable definition of the dropout phenomenon and the operation of a system of information and systematic follow-up of students. Therefore, the education system operates on three parallel and complementary levels: to strengthen learners' perseverance and to increase their success in the normative frameworks to prevent the dropout of those at risk. The next level is a re-integration of all those youth who have dropped out of the educational frames. The third and final level is the creation of a computation to complete the knowledge and education that all those youth not attending any educational framework. (Dovrat, 2013).

The responsibility for the actual activation of the law as mentioned above was entrusted to the staff of the regular visit officers, who are in the local authorities. Supervision of its implementation lies in the pedagogical administration. The regular officers must locate, monitor, treat and report students who have difficulties functioning

in formal education frameworks. The visit officers are also required, by their duty, to return all these dropout students to the cycle of studies and to increase the involvement of education officials and other care providers in preventing dropouts and in dealing with hidden dropouts (Lahav, 2013).

In practice, the responsibility for regulating the law rests with the school staff. It is the role of the classroom teacher to report to the principal any student who was absent for no known reason three consecutive days from the school for one month and even to visit the home of the youngster (Director General's Circular, 2011). The teacher has the responsibility for handling covert dropouts. At his disposal stand counsellors that guide him in his work.

In each school, according to the law mentioned above, an educational consultant is responsible for the welfare of all the school's students, and the consultant is supposed to be a key figure in implementing the school's policy to prevent dropouts and encourage perseverance. It is the counsellor's task to work individually and in groups to prevent the dropout of students. At the same time, the counsellor is responsible for assisting the educators who are in charge of the subject (Volansky & Rimon, 2011).

Most countries have two distinct models of residential education and care settings for children and young people, rehabilitation schools and schools for the elite. The first focused on the rehabilitation needs of populations of children and young people who are at high risk, such as school dropouts, those excluded from mainstream schools, delinquent youth, and children and young people with problematic family backgrounds and severe emotional problems. The second are specialized educational residential schools that cater to elite groups of children and young people, for example, the public schools in the United Kingdom (Grupper, 2013).

Community support services are aimed mainly at detached youth, but also for students at risk of dropping out. The primary functions are the youth promotion units, youth services, and the educational, psychological service. The educational psychological service performs the diagnosis and evaluation of all the problems of the student.

Evaluation is integrated with the school and the community and enables a multi-dimensional confrontation with the problem of dropping out. Thus, all aspects of the adolescent who has dropped out are simultaneously addressed- both from the social-educational element and from the perspective of being in an "at risk situation." (Biderman & Navon, 2011).

In this context it should be noted that there are two types of dropout:

- Covert dropout - adolescents who have not yet wholly abandoned the educational framework. These young people are still enrolled in school but rarely arrive, and when they come they are passive and do not cooperate. Covert dropout is often a pre-factor for actual dropout. Those youth at risk for dropping out can be identified and helped according to the following signs: (1) wandering; (2) learning gap; (3) frequent absence from the educational framework; anti-social behavior.
- Overt dropout - when the student does not attend any educational framework and, moreover, is not registered legally in any formal educational framework. (Ben Rav & Kahan-Strawczynski, 2011)

In the early 2000s, the Israeli Knesset passed the "Student Rights Law" which validates all the rights of students in Israel by international human rights law. Therefore, by law, the state is responsible for ensuring the existence of optimal conditions for proper study, in recognition of the children needs and right to learn meaningful learning that will prepare the children for future life and enable them to work in a dynamic and changing world. Israel is trying to maintain these rights through a variety of programs for youth at risk of dropping out.

The Ministry of Education and Social Affairs work hard to comply with all the provisions of the "Student Rights Law," 2013. Nevertheless, there are still populations for whom the proposed system does not meet their needs and does not allow them to realize their potential and right to education. There are many factors at play, some of which are personal, family, some relate to the community or dependent on the school system. Education plays a crucial role in motivating the individual to social integration

and advancement. Youth dropout from educational frameworks provides a significant, if not primary factor in the perpetuation of socioeconomic gaps in Israeli society (Dovrat, 2013).

The problem of dropping out of formal education frameworks is a global phenomenon that not only exists in Israel. However, each year the dropout rate increases. Dropout is a dynamic process commonly described through two concepts: overt dropout and covert dropout. Overt dropout describes a situation of physical disconnection of the boy and girl from the education system intended for their age-group. Among the dropouts are three distinct subgroups: (1) youth who have decided to disconnect from the education system and stop looking for educational alternatives; (2) youth who after a short time of separation from the education system are looking for a way to integrate back into the system; (3) All those adolescents who, due to regrettable life circumstances, which were not always under their control, fell between the cracks and remained outside the educational framework.

A covert dropout is a group of youth who do not attend the educational framework frequently, and if they do, they are in the classroom in a non-active manner. (Dovrat, 2013). This phenomenon was described by Adler (2013) as a "present-absentee phenomenon." It should be noted that the covert dropout has no uniform and agreed definition, but some signs may help identify and locate it. The difficulty in accurately estimating the exact rate of youth dropping out of school every year stems from the complexity of the situation and the lack of reporting. A method is used by the Central Bureau of Statistics, according to which a national sample of the population of all ages is examined for their occupation. The findings of recent years show that the covert drop encompasses a percentage similar to that of the apparent dropout. Researchers who have studied the matter in depth indicate that in the case of any youth who is known to have dropped out of the educational framework, it is possible to find a youth who has covertly dropped out of the educational framework. (Lahav, 2011).

Youth at risk usually drop out of school and do not endure the educational system and its rigid rules. Also, these youngsters have no support from the parents because their

parents' education is low and their socioeconomic status is also low. The parents' relationship with the school is deficient, and therefore the adolescent does not feel any connection to the framework and drops out and reaches the most problematic place - the street. On the street, the problems are much more difficult and available. Rosman Weisman (2005) categorized the risk factors among youth into six main areas: the personal sphere, the family domain, the school field, the social sphere, the community social fields, and the employment field.

The phenomenon of dropping out is not only a problem of the Ministry of Education; it is a phenomenon that affects the entire population of Israel. The dimensions of the phenomenon and its ramifications concern all aspects of Israeli society and its consequences are evident in the country's economy, employment, unemployment, poverty and risk behaviors, such as delinquency and drug abuse. These results affect the future of society and the state. Therefore, direct treatment and prevention of the phenomenon of dropping out is a national task (Cohen-Navot, Ellenbogen-Frankowitz, & Reinfeld, 2013).

However, the above-displayed figures indicate that despite the many actions undertaken in Israel to reduce the dropout phenomenon, the problem was not eliminated. Many studies argue that the disengagement of youth from the normative education system in which their peers are located does not usually stem from the choice of the youth at risk. But in most cases, it is a constraint imposed by the system directly or indirectly (Lahav, 2011).

2.5 Youth at Risk Dropout

In Israel, there is 630,000 youth in grades seven to twelve (ages 12-18), of whom 600,000 are studying. Of the students of these ages, about 180,000 are defined youth "youth at risk" (Motola, 2010). "The Committee to Examine the Situation of Children and Youth at Risk and in Distress" - The Schmid Committee was established in November 2011, due to the deteriorating situation of children and youth during the economic crisis of the previous decade. Fifteen years earlier there had been a change of

perception regarding children in general and children at risk in particular. Educators and policymakers realized that children and youth at risk are not only children and teenagers in extreme situations but also children in each of the risk situations. For example, children whose parents are unable to set boundaries, neglected children who arrive in unsuitable or dirty clothes for school, and "covert dropouts" - children who often miss school or "are just present" but are not there (Dovrat, 2013).

The rate of youth dropout is rising in the new immigrant community, mainly immigrants from the former Soviet Union and Ethiopia. Among the immigrants from the former Soviet Union, a particularly worrisome picture emerges, according to which the dropout rates, both overt and covert, are unusually high. Dropout rates among Ethiopian-Israeli youth are not high. However, the covert dropout rates pose concern as many transfer between the schools. Data from the Israeli Ministry of Education demonstrate that 10% -15% of youth ages 14-18 are defined as a population at risk due to covert dropouts. This figure refers to approximately 10% -30% of the youth of secondary school age (Cohen-Navot et al., 2012). Moreover, researchers claim that all teenagers have potential for risk. Hence, to identify at-risk youth, the of adolescent's functioning at home and within the educational framework must be analyzed. (Glenn & Nelson, 2010).

Some adolescents are forced to leave the educational framework before the end of the 12 years of education due to the need to help the family economy. Consequently, two groups of youth emerge in Israel: one group, which includes the students who take advantage of the variety of programs and learning subjects offered by the state, and a second group, which consists of those who are unable to find their place within the existing system and utilize its offerings for their advancement. Only half of the teenagers who go out to work finish 12 years of schooling with a matriculation certificate that will help them find decent work during their professional lives (Balfanz et al., 2006).

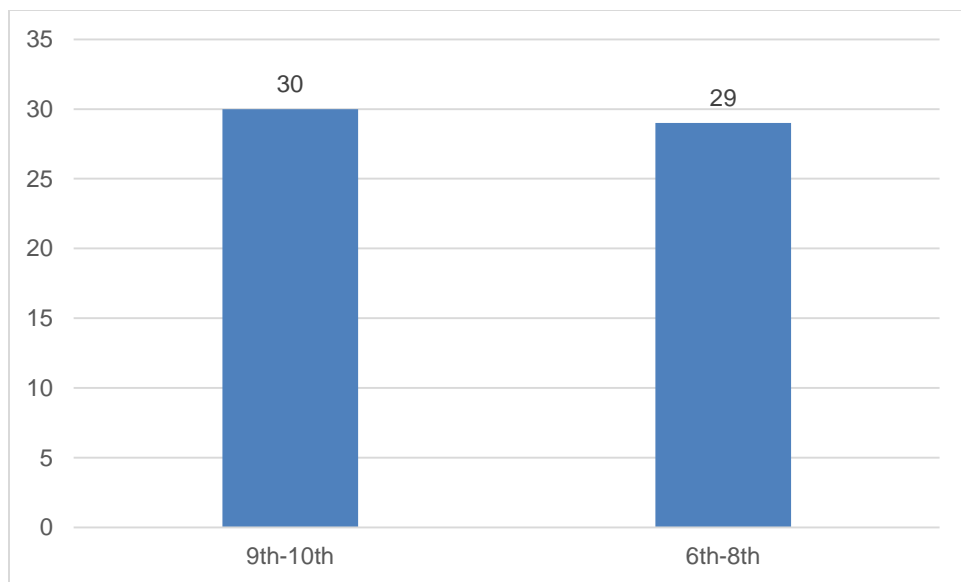
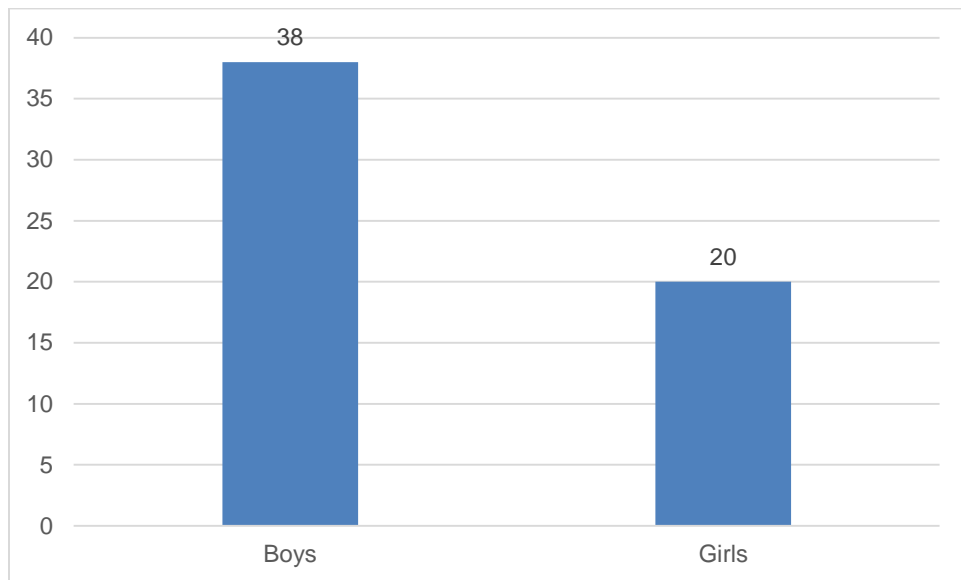
Research of the subject began in the early 1950s. Early school leavers were called then "school leavers." It became clear that many students did not see the school as a path that could prepare them for their next life – employment. At a later stage, the concepts changed as did the reasons for leaving school, however, regrettably the phenomenon did

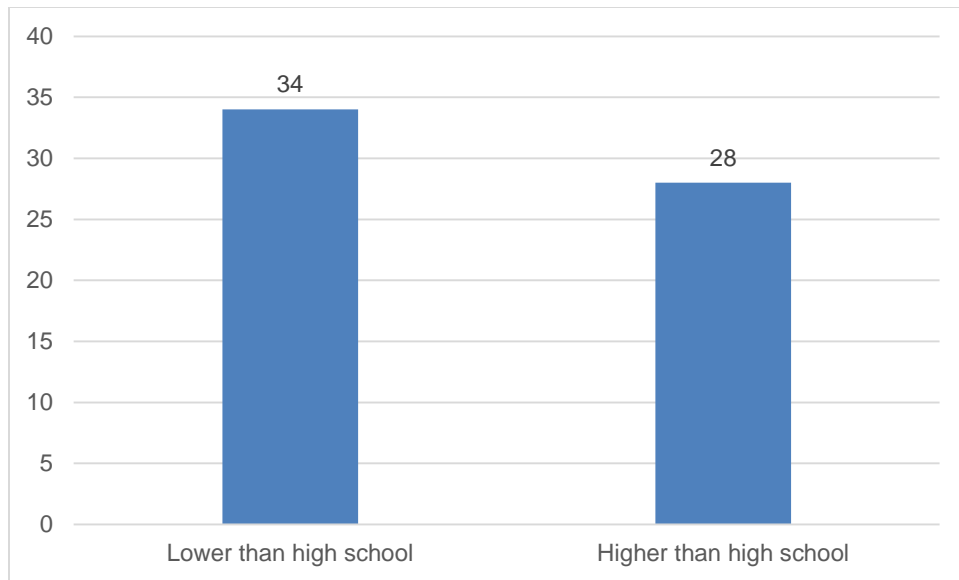
not disappear. Studies examining the dropout rates in recent decades were expanding and present a social crisis and tragedy to the youth, their families and to the society in which they live. Many studies have repeatedly emphasized the high price that young people will have to pay in the not-so-distant future when they turn to seek employment that requires knowledge they do not possess (Miller, 2011).

In an attempt to recognize the reasons for dropping out, the research has indicated that teenagers who reported a high sense of alienation in their school tended to be absent from school (covert dropout) and then stopped altogether from going to school (overt dropout). The findings further show that adaptation of the student to the school framework influences perseverance or dropout. The higher the learner's adaptability, the better are his chances of persistence and stability within the school. Shemesh (2013) argues that the sense of self-efficacy of adolescents increases their level of adaptability to the school framework, which is expressed in the student's attitudes and behavior.

Negative attitudes toward school are among the aspects that characterize covert dropouts. Moreover, the same study indicates that when adolescents express a positive attitude towards the school and the people in it, they will persist more in their studies than the adolescents with a negative attitude toward the educational framework, who would tend to exhibit vandalism and anti-social behavior during their stay in the classroom. (Motola, 2010).

Figure Number 3: Covert Dropout Rates (One Expression and More) among Grades 6-10
according to Selected Characteristics (Percentage)





Source: Engelberg Center for Children and Youth, Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute, 2015.

Since dropout in general and dropout of youth at risk in particular are fundamental problems for many students in the education system, various attempts have been made to solve the problem as presented in the next section.

Possible Solutions to the Problem of Dropping Out

As early as the 1960s, social discourse on the subject of dropout entered public discussion. Terms such as "strong" and "weak" groups in joint educational frameworks were introduced. In the Israeli reality of that period, integration was translated into structural reform - creating junior high schools. The structural changes proposed in the reform were presented as a component system that would improve school education and increase its output. The transition from a homogeneous school to a heterogeneous school and classroom exposes weak students to the climate of achievements, to standards of effort and investment, too high academic expectations and demands. Academicization and professionalism of the teachers, as well as professional curricula, may improve learning processes and ensure a better for high school (Motola, 2010).

In response, regional junior high schools were set up to come out against the demographic barriers. Junior high schools enabled the introduction of a diverse range of students in a new educational framework. The aim was to create heterogeneous and integrative educational structures that would enable the expansion of social relations and the reduction of educational gaps. The integration policy is in line with the prevailing moral approach in the democratic society - striving for equality of sociological-educational opportunities utilizing instruments that support social strata lacking resources. (Shemesh, 2013).

Educational integration was controversial in the public discourse. The disadvantaged social groups view this policy as an opportunity to improve their situation, while the established groups, or at least some of them, view it as a threat to their relative status and the advancement of their children. The integration policy was perceived and presented (in the Knesset in 2012) as an end in itself. The goal of the policy was defined as a symbolic expression of the social-egalitarian approach to political unity and to the advancement of disadvantaged groups, as well as to the improvement of the relations between the various groups. (Joint Israel, 2013).

Inclusion in junior high school has increased the problem of the pedagogic staff because of the variety of students, both mentally and socially. Facing integration at the school level, leads to a tendency to apply partial class-level segregation. The primary justification for this form of exclusion is based on the claim of didactic compatibility: the need to adapt learning materials, level, pace of progress and teaching methods to students with different learning abilities. Over the years, the tendency of the formal frameworks to separate the groups into homogeneous frameworks in the upper secondary school has intensified as a 'correction' of the heterogeneous reform of the junior high schools. (Mor, 2008).

Today, the Ministry of Education dedicates many efforts to implementing the education laws for all students, out of the belief that proper integration within the educational framework can significantly contribute to social advancement. The responsibility for the day-to-day implementation of the Compulsory Education Law lies

in the hands of regular visiting officers in the local authorities. The responsibility for the regulation of the regular visit and the treatment of the students in the age of the Compulsory Education Law lies in the hand of the school principals and the class teachers (Circular of the Director-General 7, 2011).

In the last decade, the government's treatment of youth at risk, who are at high risk of dropping out, is placed on the SHAFI (Counseling Psychological Service) and the Shachar (Education and Welfare Services) Division. However, inequality and educational gaps remain, with international data placing Israel at the top of socioeconomic gaps. To improve educational achievements, the State of Israel must invest in the disadvantaged. Accordingly, the education system is supporting heterogeneous frameworks on the one hand, and on the other, encourages the establishment of unique frameworks for promoting achievement through homogeneity. In the framework of the high school there are intervention programs aimed at all students, in order to improve learning and the climate in the school, and there are also programs that focus on students at risk. The aim is to provide complementary education to those students to overcome the gaps they have accumulated over the years. "Towards Matriculation" - "Track to B.". This track includes the MABAR (regular matriculation), Etgar and Ometz (faith in the self, willing to believe, and expects to achieve) classes (Cohen-Navot, 2011).

It should be noted that some junior high school graduates are students with potential for matriculation, who did not realize their abilities for various reasons, mainly due to poor learning habits and inconsistent efforts towards matriculation certificate. Most of them come from low socioeconomic background and are unable to cope in an ordinary class due to educational deficits from elementary school and later junior high school. They were placed in the low-level tracks, thus, contributing to the widening of the scholastic gap between them and others. Most students and their parents aspire to progress in life, to obtain a matriculation certificate, and to continue to academic studies. In the MABAR classrooms there are countless efforts to find a suitable solution for all these students by finding a way to reach their full potential (Mor, 2008)

In recent years, the Ministry of Education has set a goal to increase the percentage of those entitled to a matriculation certificate. Yet, intervention programs for matriculation exams exist in the upper secondary school only, whereas in junior high schools they do not exist, and the challenge remains at the school's doorstep. A suitable treatment for at-risk youth at an early age of junior high level helps students reach high school at a good starting point and thus have a better chance of successfully completing their 12 years of study and being eligible for a matriculation certificate. (Lahav, 2011).

The goal of increasing matriculation eligibility is reflected, *inter alia*, in the expansion of a wide selection of tracks for matriculation within the framework of the school and in the alternative frameworks. Indeed, a significant change in the rates of eligibility for matriculation is evident (Cohen-Navot et al., 2012). Consequently, the educational system operates with a corrective policy that allows equal rights for all students. As a result of this policy, the Shachar Division (the Education and Welfare Services Division) has developed programs for schools that design organizational, pedagogical, social and budgetary tools to address the needs of the students at risk. The "Towards Matriculation" track is the most common in the formal education system and is intended for youth who have been identified as youth at risk of dropping out or have difficulties in learning. "MABAR" classes are part of the academic track, while "Etgar" and "Ometz" belong to the technological tracks (Education and Welfare Services, 2011). Furthermore, every school that has been authorized to operate the "Towards Matriculation" classes must operate a professional body, which accompanies the school's management and the teaching staff and assists them in aspects resulting from the alteration of underachievers to achievement-oriented students. School principals appoint the school coordinators who will implement the project's regulations (Education and Welfare Services, 2011).

Within the framework of the school there are many programs of correct intervention against dropout, aimed at changing the school climate. On the other hand, there are programs whose target audience is different and that focus on students at risk. These programs provide supplementary inputs for students, so that they will overcome

the gaps they have accumulated over the years. An example of such programs is the "Towards Matriculation" programs, which provide increased learning to students who have failed. Through these programs, an educational design was established, that meets all students in a heterogeneous and uniform way (Cohen-Navot, 2011).

In the search for educational alternatives in the formal framework, Feuerstein's mediating learning theory is adopted as a basis for educational intervention. According to this approach, through cognition, a person can change himself, learn to restrain, control emotions and motivate action. However, in order to bring about change, a mediating process is supposed to take place between the Mediating Agent and the world through the Mediator, who has knowledge, experience and intentions. The Mediator mediates between the individual and the world making it more understandable and meaningful. In the search for educational alternatives within the formal framework, Feuerstein's mediating learning theory is adopted as a basis for educational intervention (Volansky & Rimon, 2011)

There are many patterns of action in which the pedagogic staff must actively intervene in solving the problem of youth dropout at risk. A representative model for such intervention programs is a model that emphasizes the uniqueness of physical education as a supportive context for the acquisition and strengthening of learning skills, social skills, and emotional capacity. Supporters of this approach argue that understanding the variables associated with acquiring desirable behavior and preserving and eliminating unwanted behavior is the basis for any educational intervention program. A gradual change in the interaction between the behavior of the individual and people, objects and events in his environment is the basis for change and development at any age. There are those who argue that through physical education, students experience situations that are "a reflection of life," in which diverse and changing events are presented in a short period of time with boundaries and laws.

A different aspect that is used to support youth at risk who are prone to dropping out is the MELA program: A different learning space is defined in this program: a physical and permanent learning space within the school, in which a team works to

establish a committed and permanent relationship with the students, thereby opening an opportunity for learning. The student is able to have a good learning experience and of a sense of belonging to the framework. The main and innovative change in this program is the very existence of a staff within the school whose professional training is in active engagement with the covert and overt dropout populations (Lahav, 2011).

As part of this model, there is a strengthening of the trend of integrating the professional work of youth promotion units within the school. The idea is that the school's arena will constitute a significant educational and social center for the child, which is at the center of the educational-therapeutic intervention that combines the school, family and the community. In the number of local authorities who were instructed to intervene according to the above models, there were significant achievements in the ratio and achievements of the students (Shemesh, 2013). An example of a model that emphasizes the importance of integration between the community and the school is the community focused program. The program is a three-year program and its target audience is "Etgar" students. The main recommendation of the program is that in every primary school, Etgar students will attend an after-school educational framework that includes the school staff, community leaders and parents. The school is open to various activities, both educational and social. The perception that increasing the social belonging of students to the educational framework in particular and society at large will significantly reduce the dropout rate from the various schools. (Biderman & Navon, 2011).

Another program is based on a trend of cooperation and integration between the different bodies of the education system and the various non-profit organizations, called "Muses". This is a model program for an elementary school, intended only for youth at risk and distress, who are motivated and interested in art. The "Muses" school is a learning center, where each student receives a personal program, which includes individual, group and parent support from professionals. The concept is that the youth will also be integrated into voluntary community activities of their choice. The Muses curriculum includes theoretical studies for matriculation, art studies and business skills,

which will be taught by community experts. The Muses school provides an alternative solution for youth at risk, who do not easily integrate into the formal educational frameworks and thus receive a proper response to their special needs (Wasserman & Nitzani, 2013).

This section may be summed by stating that in the past decade the Ministry of Education in particular and the government of Israel in general are trying to find creative solutions to the problem of dropping out. Alongside the improvement of teaching through targeted teacher courses, a number of government programs were also established, focusing mainly on the dropout of youth at risk.

As part of the government's efforts to reduce dropout rates, a special program called "The National Program for the Treatment of Youth at Risk" was established, which is in fact the government's most important and productive program in the past decade. However, this plan is implemented only in half of the cities of Israel. An examination found that of the approximately 180,000 adolescents at risk aged 17-12, about 80,000 (close to 50%) do not receive a therapeutic educational solution, and a huge number of youth fall between the cracks. Because of their problematic situation, they turn to vandalism and other disturbances and make it difficult for teachers, and deteriorate the education system, causing a two-tier education system in Israel - an education system for the rich and an education system for the poor (Miller, 2011).

Israel has a large educational inequality while individuals from different socioeconomic backgrounds get different educational resources. Needless to say that this difference is the largest among the countries examined (Chiu, & Chow, 2015). This causes institutional inequalities between the various schools even in the same city (such as the city of Tel Aviv and the differences in the schools in Ramat Aviv and the schools in the southern part of the city). Educational gaps will determine the future of Israel in the next generations. The young generation, which does not receive an appropriate level of education, will out into the streets and take out its frustration (Shemesh, 2013). Despite the many projects addressing the issue of dropout, the Ministry of Education is still not coping properly with youth at risk and cannot prevent their dropping out of the

educational frameworks. The programs of offer are inconsistent and full of internal contradictions.

Youths at-risk are youths who come from disadvantaged neighborhoods that are exposed to violence and different sources of crime. Generally these distressed youths come from homes from low socioeconomic backgrounds, such as immigrants, disadvantaged neighborhoods, parents with limitations, single-parent families, and so on. The students who come to the residential school are youths who did not succeed in acclimating in the regular education system or who exhibited negative behavior that may lead to belonging to the circle of crime. Consequently, when these young people have free time that is not defined in activity, the tendency to undertake negative actions is high. Therefore, in the residential school frameworks, there is a clear schedule for the entire day, and in addition the free time without supervision given to the children is limited and defined. In the framework of the studies there is no “free hour”, as there is in most of the frameworks in Israel and around the world, since roaming without action leads generally to pranks that constitute offenses. For instance, to go on the electric scooter of the village and to take it for a spin – when they do not have a license and in essence are breaking into a vehicle.

The importance of the residential system is the educational and value-oriented aspect and not only the academic aspect. The students need fundamental values of right and wrong, since they are exposed to behavior that is not appropriate for an enlightened person in society. For instance, in terms of language, their speech is full of cursing and swearing, and it is not clear to them what is problematic with this. In addition, there is a culture of spitting, like in the home neighborhood, and this is not appropriate in polite society. Therefore, the role of the staff is to mediate the values expected of them. They do not know the rules of etiquette and the social codes expected of ordinary citizens, and hence alongside the studies and the goal to succeed in completing twelve years of study with a high school matriculation certificate that gives entry into the world of work, it is necessary to instill values such as volunteering, helping others, and mutual assistance.

In essence, it is necessary to help these children transition from a situation of surviving to a situation of existence and giving. A child who is accustomed to doing anything in order to survive will stop at nothing. The residential school enables the child to stop fighting for his survival and to begin to work on the development of his personality. Because the child receives three meals a day, a safe roof over his head, and an emotional response, the child after the stage of acclimatization can begin to work on the self. Maslow's hierarchy (pyramid) of needs is relevant to the at-risk child in all areas of life.

The teacher's work in the youth villages extends beyond the academic aspect: the teacher must serve as a significant adult in the child's life. The motto that accompanies the educator in the youth villages is "a child needs an adult who believes in him". Every teacher who works in the youth village very quickly comes to understand that to help the child succeed to learn, the teacher must help the child overcome the difficulties that cause the child not to be available for learning. A child who knows that there is no food at home for the younger siblings will find it difficult to focus on the lesson. It is important to emphasize that the teacher is not expected to solve the problem but that sometimes listening is half of the way to the solution. A teacher who is aware of the situation can and needs to turn to the social worker who is responsible for the child, who is a part of the staff of workers in the village. Therefore, cooperation among all the factors is most essential. To provide a holistic and best response for the child, the communication among all the involved factors is the key to the achievement of the goal.

In the educational perception, the school is composed of three main components: the teachers, the students, and the parents. In the youth villages, for the most part the parents constitute a quiet factor. One of the prominent aspects is the lack of the parents' involvement. There are parents who seldom come and are minimally involved in the child's life. For the most part, some of the teacher's effort is to create the parents' interest in the child. Sometimes there are parents who are interested in being involved but the relationship with the child is not good because of the existing family complexity. In the work in the youth village, it is necessary to be very cautious with sentences pertaining to

the parents. For instance, a teacher cannot tell a child “I will call your mother” but “I will speak with the parents”, because of the complexity that exists – there are students who do not have a mother or a father in the picture, for various reasons. Because of the complexity, the teacher meets at least once every two weeks with the social worker and with the instructors who constitute the parents when the child is staying in the residential school. There are also parents who do not come to the parents’ day and then the instructor will attend instead. Today while in many schools the talk is of exaggerated parental involvement, in the youth villages the parents’ involvement is minimal. Today the phenomenon of the outside student who studies in the school but does not sleep in the residential hall helps with the issue of the parents’ involvement, since the encounter between these two population contributes to both sides.

More importantly, in recent years, the budget of the Ministry of Education in general and of the Shachar Division (Education and Welfare Services) has been cut (a reduction of 17% from 2012 to 2007), the number of children at risk increased by 129% in these years to 327,000. The Unit for the Advancement of Youth, which deals with youth at risk, does not cope with the full extent of the problem and treats 18,500 children, who constitute only 5% of the youth at risk of dropping out of school (Motola, 2010). One of the most common frameworks for treating youth at risk who drop out of the regular education framework is the boarding school. On the rehabilitation potential of the boarding school for at-risk youth, I will expand on the next section.

3. Boarding Schools in Israel

3.1 Boarding Schools in Israel

Boarding School Education- Review and Data

The term "boarding school" refers to institutions in which people live most of the year under one central authority, and the interpersonal relationships between them are not family ties. The purpose of boarding school is to influence in a specific direction or to cause a change in the participants or students (Wazner, 1993 Kashti, and Manor, 1989,

Dagan, 1997). The boarding school is perceived as a powerful environment since it encourages students to internalize clear and understandable norms and behaviors and to adapt to them by continually exposing students to their influences. A boarding school is a general name for all agricultural schools, institutions for adolescent children, youth villages and other out-of-home arrangements dealing with education or care.

The commonality of these frameworks is the regular activity of multi-disciplinary staff members with the aim of directing, influencing or initiating changes in the students or the residents. The boarding schooling system is more prevalent in Israel than in other countries. Moreover, Israel is one of the countries where the percentage of adolescents who are educated in boarding schools is the highest in the world. In the early 1980s, the "golden era" of boarding school education in Israel, about 20% of all students in secondary education were educated in boarding schools. These are very high rates in comparison to other countries. In Britain, which has a long-standing tradition of boarding school education, the percentage of adolescents studying in boarding schools does not reach 2%, Hungary is less than 1%, and in Finland, about half a percent only (as of the 1990s) (Gropper, 1992).

Studies conducted in the United States, England, and Australia among boarding school for youth at risk graduates with challenging family backgrounds indicate that the situation of these young people is characterized by high instability and problems compared to the general population. In a comprehensive study, 810 young people in the US were interviewed between the ages of 18-24 during 2.5-4 years after leaving the out-of-home setting (Cook, 1994). The findings of the study showed that young people are characterized by low job stability, lower completed education level compared with the general population, and high adolescent parenting rates among girls - variables that predict future instability in various areas of life. Moreover, these young people are more dependent on social housing and suffer more from poverty than their age-group. These findings were also reinforced by other studies that found that the most common form of residence among these young people was with relatives, rather than independently on their own (Biehal & Wade, 1996).

In a study conducted in Israel, Schiff and Benbenishty (2006) interviewed 66 adolescents who were asked to assess their skills and abilities in aspects such as studies, army, work, independent living, relationships, and more. The findings of the study suggest that the youth underestimated their readiness for independent living in all aspects related to studies, army, and errands. On the other hand, they found relative confidence in their skills related to relationships with the opposite sex, household management, the ability to avoid risky behaviors, and the ability to take personal care. The studies show that adolescents who were educated in educational boarding schools experience more meaningful challenges during their maturation, and studies in Israel showed that these youths experience success in most indicators of development.

The population of youth villages and educational boarding schools includes youth who are in an identity crisis even before they reach boarding school (Levy, 2000). Usually, they do not live in peace with their surroundings. The scene of their friction changes from time to time and is alternately their home or the school. This crisis is exacerbated when the routine of the life of the boarding school, which is different from the routine of family life, obliges them to change their habits, and ways of thinking too fast and too intensely, due to the cultural gap. Today, it is customary to classify boarding schools in Israel into four main categories: educational, rehabilitative, therapeutic and post-hospitalization settings, according to the populations:

- **Educational boarding schools** - for students with normative functioning or with slight developmental damage who have a high potential to advance their situation. However, over time, following the demographic and educational changes, like immigration to Israel, the proportion of students arriving from disadvantaged backgrounds increased (Benvenisti & Zeira, 2008).
- **Rehabilitative boarding schools** - for students with learning disabilities and/or a significant learning gap and/or emotional deprivation, which were diagnosed as having the potential for healthy development.
- **Therapeutic boarding schools** - for youth who are dysfunctional in many areas due to an organic, behavioral, emotional impairment or a combination between them and the need for special education frameworks.

- **Post-hospitalization boarding schools** - for youth after psychiatric hospitalization or as an alternative to hospitalization and prevention. They accept endemic populations with complex problems and severe behavioral disorders that are not accepted into the therapeutic boarding schools (Zivan, 2013).

This division was originally designed to define budgeting levels according to the characteristics of the population of the students in the boarding schools. Thus, the educational boarding schools are defined as supervised and affiliated with the Ministry of Education, while the rest of the boarding schools are funded and supervised by the Ministry of Social Affairs. The children and youth referred or enrolled in the framework of the boarding school are adapted to the framework according to their age and needs. Today, a wide range of population segments attend boarding schools, including children and youth with low socioeconomic background, mentally challenged youth who lack emotional stability, and need a closed and protected framework, and those who wish to grow and develop in a specific "targeted environment": agricultural education, religious, pre-military education, and more. (Zivan, 2013).

In Israel, boarding schools maintain a high level of applicants over the years, compared to other countries (Romy & Shemeda 2007). Israel's boarding school education system has undergone revolutionary structural and organizational changes in accordance with the goals set and the social changes. The boarding schools in Israel are highly respected by national and international experts, and its achievements in rehabilitating young people and promoting them in society, are well known. Boarding school education in Israel was and continues to have greater weight and scope than in other countries, whether for reasons stemming from the Jewish tradition or due to the special needs of a multi-generational immigration society. This system has accumulated considerable experience and shaped an ethos and unique educational patterns that have been built for more than a century while continuously adapting and renewing (Anglin, 2014).

Today, the influence of the boarding schools is expressed in two primary aspects (Hershkovic, 2002):

1. The student's separation from society and the community: An educational boarding school is a place where adolescents spend most of their time until their maturity and recruitment into the IDF (Israel Defense Forces), with relative detachment from the local community and the social environment. The prolonged stay in one relatively closed environment leads to selective exposure of norms and values, which the boarding school can instill in the students in educational ways. The "exclusion" of these adolescents from the local community prevents them from degenerating into their society, from becoming a burden on society, and especially prevents the need to deal with them. Another approach claims that the local society's lack of competence or will to deal with the problems of those adolescents leads the society to "push" them away to boarding schools.
2. The educational influence of the boarding school: This effect is derived from the educational activities that affect all aspects of the adolescent's life. The physical and organizational structure of the boarding school creates conditions and an environment that nurtures and educates in accordance with the ideals and educational and social activities that take place within it.

Table Number 3: Students Staying in Boarding Schools in Israel

Class	2007					
	Total	Jewish Education				Arab Education
		Total	Public	Public-Religious	Ultra-Orthodox	Total
Total Grades 1-12	55,928	52,255	14,160	18,609	19,306	2,308
1-6	3,673	2,917	1,749	684	484	756
1	336	229	121	61	47	107
2	396	309	168	92	49	87
3	575	449	287	96	66	126
4	677	518	313	130	75	159
5	811	670	404	144	122	141
6	878	742	456	161	125	136
7-12	50,710	49,158	12,411	17,925	18,822	1,552
7	2,497	2,096	1,017	731	348	401
8	2,936	2,566	1,203	1,002	361	370
9	10,929	10,475	2,103	4,203	4,169	454
10	11,669	11,573	2,740	3,926	4,907	96
11	12,108	12,027	2,787	4,093	5,147	81
12	10,571	10,421	2,561	3,970	3,890	150

Source: Children in Israel- Annual Statistics (2009), "Children in Boarding Schools (p.97), The Committee for Child Safety

3.2 Historic Development of the Boarding School System in Israel

The idea of the boarding school and education in an educational framework outside the home existed in early times when the yeshivas were established as a "present exile to a place of Torah" (Shnivar, 2010). This principle has been prevalent among the religious community to this very day. In recent generations this approach has expanded to

girls' education through the establishment of the "Ulpana" system. Furthermore, during the Jewish settlement before the establishment of the State of Israel, joining the kibbutz movement or learning agriculture abroad in special camps, was a desirable stage in the process of realizing the pioneering Zionist ideology. Thus, out-of-home frameworks were perceived not only as special treatment frameworks intended for orphans, children with retardation or juvenile delinquency, but rather as yeshivas or preparation of fulfilling the pioneering vision (Bar Lev, Kedem, 1989).

The following is a brief overview of the development of boarding schools in Israel from the 1920s to the present: the different characteristics of the boarding schools, the type of students attending, the central values, as well as the principal components of boarding schools.

The 1920-1940: The period prior to the establishment of the State. From the end of the 1920s, the boarding school in Israel served as a training organization. The youth were divided according to age groups and assignments. Membership in the collective became an elite track in which there was an ideological preference for turning the educated into "pioneers" and "fulfillers," rather than training them for a specific professional role. During this period the youth were considered "the new Jew" an individual of strength and health, who is working the land, defending himself, and fighting offenders. The new Jew was establishing a new ideology, a new Hebrew culture and language, and paving the way for the people that to follow. At that time, the boarding schools were elites, natural habitats in Israeli society and served the upper class (Zilberstein, 2010).

The 1940-1950: In the early days of the state, in the 1940s and early 1950s, the boarding school institutions in Israel served as a central means of absorbing and educating young immigrants to Israel, most of them were Holocaust survivors from Europe. The officials involved in the absorption process, the counselors, the educational staff, and the school provided immigrants with the patterns of behavior prevalent in the new society. The gathering of the diaspora, and the encounter of the immigrant youth with the culture and social arrangements that were instituted in the Jewish settlements in

the country at that time created many difficulties and conflicts in the boarding school system.

Nonetheless, the absorption and acclimatization of the new immigrants in the youth villages and youth groups in the kibbutzim assisted in their integration as part of the Israeli national identity. The boarding schools emphasized the group rather than on the individual. This trend was a reflection of the prevalent cultural values, and the schools even worked to promote and design these values. Every immigrant who applied to the boarding school was accepted. The boarding schools operated with a clear social ideology to promote educational models and aspirations in Israeli society (unlike today) (Davidowitz, Suan, Rosenzweig, & Lerner, 2016).

With the establishment of the State of Israel, four main types of boarding schools were formed. These have developed over the years in their size, the variety of goals and patterns of organization, and became educational frameworks acceptable to broad social strata: traditional and high school yeshivas, agricultural schools and youth movements in the kibbutzim, youth villages for immigrant children, and technical, military or naval schools (Shinover, 2010).

The 1950-1960: In 1953, the Knesset passed the Law for Public Education. In recognition of the various ethnic and religious groups, the law enables individuals to choose their preferred form of schooling for their children. The Jewish population has the choice of co-ed state schools, state-religious schools (some of which are co-ed, others separate for boys and girls, which add religious studies to the state-school curriculum), and ultra-orthodox (Haredi) schools, all of which are separate for boys and girls (Grupper, 2013). After the establishment of the state, the youth villages were changing. The population of the villages became different, from a community composed of mostly European-born pupils or sons of European immigrants, to immigrants from Islamic countries. Subsequently, a different educational pattern emerged emphasizing practical and achievable values over the "pioneering" value. Due to cultural differences, the youth were struggling to accept, adapt and internalize social values, and norms of behavior that the youth village society tried to instill. This transformation and the contemporary

educational perception of those youngsters as "novice" in the society, most boarding schools were providing them with low chances of "advancing" on the social ladder.

Consequently, new definitions in relation to boarding school population emerged: "cultural deficiency," "weakened" and "in need of improvement" (the last one is now prohibited from use). At the end of the 1950s, some rural schools and youth villages were facing a crisis- Their educational programs were outdated and irrelevant, and it seemed that people came to them when there was no other choice. The structure of the youth villages became more institutionalized following the establishment of the Ministry of Public Education, and the content changed from focusing on the pioneering model to professional specific values (Elia 2006).

The 1960-1990: the boarding schools served the entire population, youth from well-to-do families and, as well as, families in economic crisis, all were educated in one heterogeneous boarding school. The established families provided a role model. Many changes took place during those years. The main trends that led to these changes are:

- Many of the applicants had low academic achievements, and most of them came from low socioeconomic status. Thus, the polarization of the boarding schools increased. Heterogeneous population (mainly secondary yeshivas), alongside a growing population of low-achieving students. Those enrolling in boarding schools were doing this due to lack of choice, as they were rejected by the local educational authorities and organizations.
- "Integration into the Community": Some of the youth villages became regional schools. This inclusion made it difficult to realize the educational potential of the boarding school, which, as part of its goals, stressed the student was cut off from society to create an "ideal society" based on the educational principles of the youth village.
- The number of resources available to the boarding schools decreased, along with an increase in the expenditure and the nurturing of students from the challenged backgrounds and learning difficulties.

- The instructors or educators, as they are now called, were not skilled enough, and did not have the proper conditions to fulfill their complex duties.

Changes in the State of Israel led to two major trends in the structure of the boarding school. First, due to a decline in the scope of immigration, the absorption of new immigrant children, mainly from the Arab countries, was reduced to the boarding school education system. Second, as the situation of the disadvantaged populations worsened, the “Youth Aliyah,” which is the most significant agency for boarding schools in Israel, decided on special programs for absorbing the needy in its’ affiliated educational boarding schools (HaCohen, 2011).

Since the beginning of the sixties, many studies were conducted to examine the success rates of Israeli boarding school graduates in comparison to other populations. It was found that the boarding school youth had acquired higher education levels and academic professions, and even served in critical positions in the army and private and public organizations (Ariel and Milstein 2006).

Today, the State of Israel operates a wide variety of boarding schools serving different populations in Israeli society. The main boarding schools currently are the youth villages, mainly for low-income young boys and girls from low socioeconomic status. Also, there are agricultural and military boarding schools, and boarding schools for gifted students. Among the religious population, high-school yeshivot are for boys and “Ulpanot” are for girls. Unlike the religious sector, the regular boarding schools are mainly for the low or unusually high socioeconomic class. The Ulpanot and the agricultural schools also include preparatory courses for matriculation exams and their population comes from the upper socioeconomic level (Shinover 2010).

3.3 Characteristics of Youth Villages in Israel

One of the most pressing social problems facing Israel today is the sharp increase in the number of youth at risk. The Jewish Agency, to address this issue, repurposed four of their Youth Aliyah Villages that once housed refugees who arrived in Israel alone. These invaluable facilities provide at-risk youths with a positive, growth-based,

environment where children removed from their homes, can receive the therapeutic intervention needed to heal and flourish. Today, The Jewish Agency's Youth Villages provide highly cost-effective boarding school settings for several hundred youth with severe emotional, behavioral and family problems. Intensive educational, clinical and social work services help 12 to 18-year-olds succeed in and complete high school and enter national service army with their peers. Empirical evidence has shown that youth villages have a great potential for enhancing immigrant youth's absorption and for facilitating their integration in the host society (Benbenisty & Zeira, 2008). The youth village attempts to serve both educational needs and provide rehabilitation for those requiring it by creating a stimulating environment that can empower each young person (Grupper, 2008). In this kind of residential school, there is a tendency to bridge the gap and find appropriate educational and rehabilitative solutions for a large range of young people. Among the young people who are being educated in youth villages are new immigrants who are in the midst of their cross-cultural transition process, children and youth who are in need because of family and social problems, young people seeking a second chance after having failed in local school, and young persons who have gone through an emotional crisis.

In the past, the boarding schools and the youth villages were sponsored by Youth Aliyah. At a later stage, some were taken over by the Jewish Agency, and some of them came under the auspices of WIZO or Na'amat. Today, all youth villages are under the auspices of the Administrative Division of Settlement and Education, Youth Aliya in the Ministry of Education. Naale groups (youth immigrating before parents) are now sponsored by the Association for the Advancement of Education (Zivan, 2013).

The following picture shows an example of the youth village structure. As can be shown, the village has several low buildings which are used for studying, residence, football area and roads which connect between the different parts.

Illustration Number 1: Common Map of an Ordinary Youth Village



Development of the Youth Aliyah

This movement began a rescue and education project for youth and children from Germany, later spreading to other countries. The idea of organizing a youth immigration was raised for the first time by Rocha Freier in 1932, against the backdrop of the plight of Jewish youth in Germany, which was thrown out of their framework. She intended to concentrate this youth, and bring them to Israel, to provide them with agricultural education and vocational training in the context of working settlements, especially in kibbutzim (Yitzhaki 2004).

At first, the Youth Aliyah was operated by the Association for Jewish Youth and the Committee for Cooperation in the Aliyah of Children and Youth. After the rise of the Nazis to power in Germany, the Youth Aliyah Bureau was established within the framework of the Jewish Agency in Jerusalem. The bureau was headed by Henrietta Szold, founder of Hadassah in the United States. The organization bore the financial burden of the Youth Aliyah project. On February 19, 1934, the first youth group from

Germany immigrated to Israel, with immigration permits obtained for this purpose from the Mandatory government. Since the establishment of the State, the role of Youth Aliyah has been to integrate immigrant youth with the children of the country who needed a residential arrangement for social, economic or educational reasons.

Youth Aliyah is the leading organization in the network of youth villages and educational boarding schools that have expanded over the years. Youth Aliyah is more than 70 years old, and its graduates number close to half a million. Its leading role lies in the development of the professional services for institutions, teams, and students in the network of youth villages and educational boarding schools. From the establishment of the State of Israel and to this day, the system of boarding schools has been exceptionally expanded. Youth villages and educational boarding schools are a unique residential model in Israel. The uniqueness of the youth villages lies in the integration of a boarding school and a regular school out of an educational perspective that focuses on the contribution to Israeli society while providing ongoing care for the students (Gropper, 1992).

Education and Rehabilitation in the Youth Village

In Israel, there are about 60 youth villages that differ from one another according to the adolescent population, the physical size of the village and resources. The youth village is the leading educational boarding school model in Israel. This is an original creation of the Israeli educational system that does not exist in other parts of the world. The inspiration for its implementation is derived from the kibbutz model and the educational ideas developed by the kibbutz movement. The main concepts underlying this residential model are:

- Creating a social framework capable of accommodating and educating youth from different cultural backgrounds, whose common denominator is the need for an out-of-home residential framework.
- Creating a balance between education, the realization of social goals, and the personal fulfillment of the individual.

- Creating an educating community that treats and presents the participants with normative educational challenges, which enable them to take part in managing their daily routine.

One of youth villages aims is integration, which implies adjustment of both newcomers and natives. Although newcomers will have to do most of the adjusting, some changes on the part of the host culture will be required. Integration implies a multicultural society that considers the contribution of minority groups to be no less valuable than that of the majority members (Eisikovits, 1995a). Therefore, the norms and habits of a host society with an integration orientation cannot remain unchanged after the many new members it absorbed have added their imported cultural input (Gropper, 2013).

The Population of Applicants to the Youth Village

Today, youth from varied backgrounds are being educated in villages. Some are seeking a different educational opportunity, which is not always given to them in their place of residence. Others are looking for a second chance after having failed within the community. There are youngsters who seek a solution to personal, familial or socioeconomic distress. These youths are joined by immigrant youth, and in recent years, non-Jewish refugees (refugees from Eritrea, for example). In some of the youth villages that have become regional schools, a large number of external students (students from nearby communities) have joined. They may be the majority at school. Placement to boarding schools is voluntary, typically initiated by the parents. It is usually perceived as a valid response and does not label the educational and personal needs of many children from the social and geographic margins of Israel (Levy, 2000).

Since the 1990s the youth villages have specialized in absorbing immigrants mainly from the former Soviet Union (FSU) and Ethiopia (Zeira & Benbenishti, 2011).

Grupper (2013) argues that the fact that young people live together and are supervised 24 hours a day in a well-designed environment is a very powerful stimulation for them to achieve behavioral changes. This is especially true for detached youth. However, these behavioral changes are achieved through endless discussions and open

negotiations between young people and staff members and by modeling on the part of the staff, not by authoritative discipline. This implies that the relationships between youth and adults are symmetric, rather than the kind of relationship developed in programs operating under the “medical model”. This kind of environment is particularly important for migrant young people who are looking for clues to overcome their marginal status which is the starting point in their cross-cultural transitional process.

The Physical Structure of the Youth Villages

Youth Villages in Israel were established in the past century, usually in isolated or remote places from urban areas. In some cases, the decision of the founders was aimed at the establishment of an additional Jewish community. The youth villages were built in the form of a "closed economy," meaning that all the needs of the villagers are provided internally: Food, laundry services, playhouses, farm, and school. The uniqueness of this structure is that it entrusts the education and treatment of adolescents to faculty members who come in direct contact with them and belong to the various branches of the village. In this approach, also functionaries without daily exposure to children have a significant impact on the educational process at the youth village. (Gropper 2007, the teacher's book, WIZO Nahalat Yehuda 2017).

The Organizational Structure of the Youth Village

According to the literature, and in one line with my personal experience in youth villages, for an orderly functioning of the youth village, several key positions were established (Grupper, 2013):

The **Boarding School Director**: responsible for the boarding school at the youth village; the educational program; the management and training of the educators; and the quality of life and individual welfare of the students in the boarding school. The director of the boarding school is subordinate to the village managing director and works in parallel, and in cooperation with the school principal and the farm manager. The boarding director is a member of the youth village management and represents the boarding school (Zivan, 2013). The functions and powers of the director of the boarding school:

- Responsible for the proper work of all the participants in the educational work at the boarding school and for guiding them and coordinating their relationship.
- Responsible for coordination and liaison between all parties in the boarding school and the village authorities (principal, caretaker of the central house, boarding school staff, therapeutic staff, and more).
- Leads, supervises, guides, advises and directs boarding school educators, coordinates the staff meetings.
- Responsible for in-service as well as outside training of the professional staff at the boarding school.
- Formulates the educational program at the boarding school, in cooperation with the coordinator of the intermediate education unit (local educational center). and is responsible for its implementation.
- Participates in the process of receiving new students and the planning of the integration procedures.
- Has the authority to decide on the suspension of students and is involved in determining to remove a student from the village.
- Holds individual responsibility for students without a family.
- The director of the boarding school is responsible to report to the parents and maintain contact with them, and report to the supervisor of the boarding school in exceptional cases.
- Responsible for preventing dropout.

The **Central Housekeeper:** Nurtures the boarding school and its regulations. Participates in designing daily routine in the boarding school and is responsible for the training of the educational staff in all matters related to the welfare of the students and the quality of life at the boarding school.

The role and authority of the central housekeeper:

- A partner in the meetings and decision-making in everything related to the daily life of the students and the quality of life in the boarding school.

- Responsible for the functioning and supervision of the various welfare services (dining room, laundry, clinic).
- Responsible for managing the procurement and maintenance of the logistics and warehouse systems of the boarding school.
- Responsible for planning and implementing the cultivation and aesthetics of the village, with an emphasis on the interior design of the dormitory buildings, the maintenance, and acquisition of new equipment.
- Responsible for the designing and arranging the dining room, atmosphere, arrangements, and laws.
- Takes an active part in the planning of holidays and significant events.
- Responsible for the nutrition committee, which consists of the director of the boarding school, the director of the kitchen, the nurse, and student representatives.
- Responsible for the clinic services. Coordinates the medical aspect and is responsible for the health of the children in the village.

The **Regular Attendance Officer:** Responsible for the students who are at risk of dropping out. The primary function is to reduce the percentage of students who drop out.

Primary areas of responsibility and assignments:

- Maintenance of ongoing contact with the educational and therapeutic staff throughout the year to identify students at risk of dropping out and determining ways of intervention.
- Contact the family of the students at risk of dropping and involving them in the therapeutic process, if relevant.
- A partner in the process of deciding on sending away students. Handling the transfer, should such a decision be taken.
- Provides ongoing reporting and updates to the relevant educational/therapeutic factors, on the problems of a student who is at risk of dropping out.
- Receiving ongoing reports from the staff of the boarding school regarding difficulties in absorbing or integrating students.
- In most villages serves as manager of the learning center during afternoon hours.

The boarding school staff: This team includes a social worker, school counselor, psychologist, psychiatrist (if any). The therapeutic staff works in collaboration with the boarding school and the school staff. The specialists are also guiding the educational teams in solving conflicts and communication problems in the educational staff. Main roles:

- Individual therapy and psychological counselling for students.
- Therapeutic counseling for the educational staff regarding mental health issues of the students.
- Diagnosis or referral to tests or diagnoses outside the village.
- Contact with therapeutic elements outside the boarding school (welfare officials, welfare offices, probation officers and more).
- Workshops on therapeutic subjects.
 - Involvement in the process of integrating a new student.
- Partner in coordination with the boarding school staff during house visits.
- Partner in the discussions and decisions regarding the permanent removal of a student from the youth village. Accompanies the students' transfer process in case of removal.

The **Coordinator of the Local Educational Center** (coordinator of the intermediate stage) is the head of the resource center at the youth village, and his role is to coordinate boarding school instruction. Administratively and organizationally subordinates to the director of the boarding school. Main functions:

- A central partner in the construction of the annual training program for boarding schools according to the age group and the unique needs of each group.
- Helps in the structuring and planning of the educational activities in the various groups and is responsible for coordinating projects and cultural days throughout the year.
- Guides and conducts workshops to train the various training teams in the field of educational and ethical activities.

- Responsible for the Resource Room, for collecting equipment and content, and for building an educational library that will serve the training teams in the construction of educational activities and programs.

Young Staff: This is an umbrella name for the teacher soldiers, the National Service workers, and Year of Service volunteers. The young team is divided among the children's groups and forms an integral part of the staff. There are several differences between the authority and role definition of the instructors and the young team. For example, it is forbidden for students to stay near the young staff quarters, as opposed to their ability to access the instructors' quarters when necessary. The definition, implementation, and scope of the role of the young staff are usually fulfilled according to the quality of the team and subject to the following guidelines:

- The young staff will work in coordination and are subject to the instructor, who will guide them.
- The young staff should avoid dealing with discipline and punishment of the students.
- Responsible for initiating "routine breaking" activities in the group and at the youth village.
- In addition to the ongoing work, the young staff will assist in teaching at the school, and helping students with difficulties.
- The young staff will usually assist with accompanying the students for medical treatment in the village and outside it.

Educator of the group at the boarding school (Gropper 2007, the teacher's book, WIZO Nahalat Yehuda 2017)

The instructor is an educator and a significant figure in the life of the students- a role model, helper, support provider who accompanies the child throughout his time at the youth village. This list of roles focuses on three key areas of the instructor's work:

- Concern for the safety of the child - the intention is to supervise the child's health and security and to provide appropriate treatment for his/her medical, physical and personal needs. Additionally, the instructor must be aware of the activities of

the child and his peer-group, so that these actions do not harm the community. This definition encompasses all the topics that address the material-existential needs of the students.

- Concern for the development of the students - the intention is to encourage the self-realization of the student. The instructor will do whatever it takes to ensure, accompany, help and promote the student, using the range of possibilities available in the youth village, to help the student fully realize his potential. The instructor also has the task of ensuring the student receives the proper support in accordance with his abilities, needs, skills, and inclinations, both at the school, as well as the agricultural activities and the social aspects.
- Education for the values of society and the values of the community in the youth village - Despite the concern of the instructor for the individual students and the recognition of his/her importance, the instructor is the agent of the society and is responsible for the acquisition and preservation of its values. For this reason, the instructor position has a dimension of supervision. This supervision is not in the sense of observing and supervising, but instead developing a commitment to the community in which we live and to its members (a group, a youth village, a state). The instructor maintains the safety and security of the student, make sure the students acquires the tools and skills that will serve him in the future, and also manages to instill in the students' commitment to the community.

After all this, comes the question – Is he the ideal instructor?

The authority and functions of the instructor– the individual care:

1. The instructor serves as a central point of contact for the students-

- Creates conditions and climate that enable the students to approach him in every matter. Talks with the students and listens to their requests at any time.
- Deals with practical solutions to the daily problems of students. Accompanies the process of handling their applications.
- Provides guidance and advice on various subjects that the students bring to him.

2. The instructor is responsible for the protection of the student, his health, and his welfare

- Maintains the personal safety of his students and protects them from violence, abuse, drugs, and more.
- Monitors the presence of his students in the place of education and reports on absences.
- Teaches pupils to consume proper nutrition and guides them to appropriate eating habits.
- Teaches his students personal hygiene habits and educates them to appropriate appearance.
- Distributes clothing and pocket money to the students while maintaining privacy.
- Determines, together with the students, the work procedures for cleaning their room.
- Encourages the students to decorate and nurture their room and helps them in doing so.
- Handles various issues related to the health of his students: referrals to medical treatments and accompanies the student to therapy when necessary.
- Provides guidance, through an external consultant when necessary, on personal hygiene and family-life preparatory education.

3. The instructor is responsible for promoting the student.

- Initiates regular personal conversations with his/her students in order to familiarize with them.
- Watching students' behavior while focusing on how the student handles different situations, locates the student's sources of energy, is alert to the his/her condition and can detect unusual problems.
- Consults with professionals in the village as well as other persons related to the students, and sometimes refers to them for treatment. During the treatment, the instructor is updated and receives feedback about the condition of the student.
- Contacts the families of the students for additional information and to encourage parent involvement in the student's development. Contact is made through letters, home visits, phone calls, and more.

- Participates as a senior partner in decisions regarding the fate of the students and his treatment.
 - Participates in individual and pedagogical committees at the school.
 - Monitors the student's educational situation and progress through contact with the class teacher and assists in his or her academic achievement.
4. The instructor provides a sense of belonging
- Attending to his students, conducting a dialogue with them, showing empathy, caring and friendship.
 - Gives the student positive reinforcement of his progress in various areas. Indicates important dates and achievements in the life of the student.
 - Helps the student maintain contact with the nuclear family and nurture this relationship through various means.
 - Participates with the students in performing various tasks: cleaning, decoration, volunteer work, and more.
 - Cultivates the group to provide a sense of belonging.
5. The instructor is responsible for developing and nurturing the student's autonomy
- Generates daily opportunities for personal experience with taking responsibility, exercising the ability to choose and judge by assigning tasks, defining tasks to be performed in accordance with the current caliber of the students, and to prevent frustration and enable trying and making mistakes.
 - Support independent initiatives of students and assist them in achieving those initiatives (as much as possible).
 - Allowing students to choose through selecting courses, choosing a part of the schedule, selecting content for activities, and so on.
 - Encourages critical thinking of the individual by creating a climate that legitimizes the raising of unacceptable questions (e.g., through dilemma discussions).
 - Distributes part of his powers and transfers responsibility to his students.
 - Instructs, directs and advises his students and tries to reduce, to the extent possible, the instruction and imposition of authority.
6. The instructor is responsible for transferring social norms and boundaries

- Establishes behavioral standards, following the criteria and limits created, and serves as a role model for identification.
- Sets clear boundaries, sometimes in cooperation with his students, and brings them to the attention of all the students from the time they are admitted to the village (it is recommended that the boundaries be more institutional rather than personal).
- Maintains the norms and limits set.
- Determines ways of responding, sometimes in collaboration with his students, and does not act out of spontaneity but consistently.

7. The instructor develops the student as an ethical person and a consumer of culture

- Introduces the students to the values of the Jewish tradition and conducts activities that strengthen the student's Jewish and national identity
- Opens his students to various social and pluralistic representations.
- Encourages his students to develop and consume unfamiliar areas of culture and knowledge.
- Communicates through conversations, various activities, and analysis of casual events, significant topics such as tolerance, human dignity, concern for others, non-violence, and more.
- Encourages philanthropy and volunteering.

The authority and functions of the instructor – Responsibility for the group

A. The instructor is responsible for forming the group as a value-based social unit

- Maintains a structured and consistent agenda for the group.
- Conducts various social activities for group formation, such as outdoor games, bonfires, hiking days, and more.
- Holds discussions regarding the daily life of the group.
- Conducts regular group discussions on various fundamental questions and values.
- Organizes group activities that contribute to the community.

B. The instructor is responsible for social discipline and proper social relations in his group

- Formulates group regulations with the students and supervises adherence.
- Alert to the social status of each member of the group and acts to create correct social balances in the group.
- Works to develop norms of mutual help between group members. Educates for acceptance and giving.
- Works to create an atmosphere of appropriate speech culture.

C. The instructor fosters independence and responsibility among the group.

- Enables experience in implementing a democratic process in the group.
- Helps the students in the organization of assignments and duties.
- Educates the students to respect the right of the majority and minority.

D. Cultivating a culture of housing, cleanliness, and aesthetics of the group's residence

- Encourages nurturing the club as a center for the group's social life.
- Initiating the decoration of the corridors by the students.
- Cultivates together with the students the environment of the group's building.
- The instructor organizes the group to maintain cleanliness in the toilets and showers, as well as all other areas shared by the students.
- Conducts competitions for the development of the building and the environment.
- Encourages the use of students' art for the decoration of the building.

E. Creating a supportive learning climate for the group

- The existence of a defined framework for the preparation of homework for the group and adherence to its presence.
- Organized learning areas.
- Encouraging students to help their fellow students.

The Role of the Educational Instructor

Figure Number 4: The Role of the Educational Instructor in the Boarding School



3.4 The Role of the Educational Instructor in the Youth Village in a Changing Reality

In the previous section, the role and authority of the instructor in the boarding school were presented on the background of the examination of the youth village as a reply for the educational rehabilitation, and treatment of adolescents. This multifaceted role holds responsibility for many areas and concern for all aspects of the life of the adolescent at the boarding school. In the 1950s and 1960s, the discourse of boarding school workers mainly focused on the therapeutic aspects and the professionals counselors (psychiatrist, psychologist, social worker and more) (Groper, 1992).

In recent decades, the awareness, understanding, and recognition of the importance and centrality of the role of the instructor have grown, especially in light of the understanding that his role and emotional and physical proximity to the student's life sphere make him the most significant figure for the students. The growing awareness of the importance of the role of the instructor has over time raised many issues and dilemmas. In this section, some of the most significant issues are briefly presented.

Instructor as a Profession

The instructor, in contrast to other professions, does not require therapeutic or educational education. The training that the educational instructor undergoes is based on the training and expert guidance of the therapeutic personnel during routine daily work. In Europe, for example, in the 1980s in France, Denmark, Germany, Poland and Hungary, all instructors and workers, directly involved with children and youth, had a legal obligation to undergo training and receive government certification and diplomas as a condition to work in the field (Gropper, 2012). These countries, unlike Israel, recognized the importance of training and the need to grant accreditation and license to those who work with children and adolescents.

Those who support the lack of professionalization approach argue two main arguments:

- The work of the instructor is based on three main components: providing warmth, spontaneity, and unconditional acceptance of all students.
- The proximity of age between the instructor and the students: Manning the job by a young person with enthusiasm, commitment and values holds potential for the realization of informal education.

Problems with setting limits and dealing with disciplinary issues: The characteristics of the students, in light of the development of the youth villages and boarding schools in recent decades, expose the educational instructor to many disciplinary encounters, through which the adolescent is shaped. Frequent transitions and especially the lack of professionalism create a problem of proficiency for contemporary instructors, which is perhaps the basis for the instructor's work in the framework of the school.

There are three standard styles of disciplinary approaches:

1. Treatment of disciplinary problems through the use of the aggressive authority: This style expresses an arbitrary and aggressive approach that intensifies the feelings of hostility and anger towards the adult world. In adolescents with a pattern of delinquent behavior, this method often causes the worsening of the trend, and the internalization of the perceptions that negative actions must take place without being caught. It is important to note that sometimes in the reality of the youth village it is necessary to make extreme and aggressive measures to maintain order, and to protect the safety of the students, since the boarding school is not a "democratic" system, and has rules, hierarchy, and limitations.
2. Ignoring discipline problems: Some instructors tend to avoid dealing with disciplinary issues in order not to confront adolescents. They try to approach the students and deepen their relationship at the expense of dealing with disciplinary problems.
3. Dealing with disciplinary issues and exercising rational authority using explanations and logical thinking: efficient use of this style transmits to the adolescent an educational message that behind inappropriate conduct there is a rationale that

forbids the same behavior. The response of providing explanations, along with setting clear boundaries, offers the student an opportunity to correct undesirable behaviors while understanding his mistake. The use of this method for lengthy mediation creates feelings of empathy in the adolescent, enabling the creation of the trust, which leads to growth and rehabilitation (Jacob, 2007).

The new instructors who lack guidance tend to act according to the first two approaches. Applying the first approach often attests to an instructor whose character is usually characterized by rigidity, conservatism, and lack of awareness of his weaknesses - lack of emotional and professional maturity. Using the second approach can attest to the instructor's distress, fear, and insecurity. The professional error in applying these two approaches holds severe consequences since such reactions can restore memories of the failed treatment of the community or the home, and therefore do not allow for the creation of a healing experience.

The Conflict between the Teacher and the Instructor

The tension and conflict between the boarding school instructor and the teacher in the school have always existed (Jacob, 2007). Part of that conflict stems, among other things, from the tension created by the status of these roles. The instructor, whose status has eroded over the years, is perceived as having a lower status than the teacher, since the instructor is usually younger, with lower education, and relatively low accumulated seniority. The connection between the boarding school and the school in the youth village is expressed through the tasks that the school staff exercises on the staff of the boarding school. Most of these tasks relate to disciplinary problems, or to the supervision of the students in the boarding school.

The central conflict in the relationship between the instructor and the teacher frequently relates to the gaps and inability of school teachers to contain and cope with disciplinary problems that occur in the school with the students of the boarding school. There is considerable importance in the connection and the reciprocal relations between the school and the boarding school, which form the center of the adolescent's life while

he is in the youth village. Ideological disagreements and inability to align the teamwork between the instructor and teacher generate inconsistency, which often accelerates the process of border checking for the adolescent.

Family Relations in Out-of-Home and Residential Settings

In the early years of the boarding schools, they were perceived as closed places (Shinover, 2010). The child who arrived at the boarding school automatically disconnected from the culture and practices of origin acquired a new life (re-socialization). Also, the youth homes did not develop an independent youth culture and were forced the norms and customs of the boarding school staff. Consequently, in the eyes of the boarding school staff, the parents were of no importance (Gropper 2007). At the time, the perception was that the family might be harmful to the child because of the parents' low ability, mainly if they came from Arabic countries. Accordingly, the state was perceived as the primary educator and not the parents. Over the years, an understanding has been formed of the importance of the relationship with the parents (Gropper 2012).

The boarding schools were comprehensive institutions that were responsible for all the needs of the students from the academic and educational needs to the physical demands. The staff focused on caring for the student, without relating to the family. The isolation of the boarding school and the dissociation of the student from the culture of origin allowed maximum exposure to the culture of equality, to the unique cultural climate of the boarding school, to the educational staff, and the different ecology of the agricultural institution. (Gropper 2007).

Until the 1980s the relationship with the family has not stood at the focal point of the boarding schools' staff. Moreover, many professionals in the boarding schools saw parents as a source of children's problems and therefore tended to view parents as a negative factor in the child's life. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, this concept changed as the recognition of the importance of parents and their involvement in their children's lives as an essential key to success grew. The Child and Youth Service Policy, which is

responsible for the treatment of children at risk in the Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs and Social Services, is reflected in the laws of the State of Israel and the Social Work Regulations. The policy states that the natural place of a child is within his family. A child needs a warm, caring and loving family framework where he belongs to and feels safe and secure (Dalia Lev Sadeh, 2016).

In every school, the issue of contact with parents and the surrounding community is crucial. In a school where the relationship with parents and the community is good, ongoing and dynamic, the potential for learning and educational activity increases. These interactions are even more critical in the case of boarding schools. The relationship with the parents in these institutions is critical on the one hand and challenging on the other hand, since the very act of leaving home can be perceived by the parents as a reduction of responsibility for their children (Zivan 2013).

Since 2015, a program called "Preserving and restoring family ties during an out-of-home arrangement" has been launched in Israel. The program is being undertaken in four boarding schools in which residents are children at risk taken out of their homes. The purpose of the project is to strengthen the connection between the children and the parents, in addition to sharing the relationship with the employees of the boarding school and reinforcing the parents' self-image and their ability to function as parents (Gropper, 2013).

Against this background, there is a significant change in the attitude of the boarding school toward the parents of the students. Parents are more involved in their children's lives, invited to village evenings, Saturdays and holidays, organized joint summer camps for parents and children, more extended vacations and parents' visits on a regular basis. This trend is increasing around the world (Buhler-Nieder Berger, 1999).

The findings have shown that the youth villages are a substantial place for the development of youth at risk who have dropped out of regular educational frameworks. At the same time, the instructor has a vital role to play in educating children to values and in turning them into normative people who can contribute to society.

Research Questions and Research Hypotheses

1. Research Questions

- Does the burnout of teachers who work with youths at risk lead to their dropping out from the education system?
- How do teacher who teach youths at risk perceive the teaching profession and their role as teachers?
- What is the teachers' attitude towards the boarding school education setting in which they work?
- Do the teachers experience burnout and at what level?
- In their opinion, what are the factors that cause burnout and can they be prevented?

2. Research Hypotheses

- As there are more factors of burnout in the teacher, the teacher's desire to drop out of teaching is higher.
- A relationship will be found between the teacher's age and the professional burnout.
- A relationship will be found between the support factors and the burnout among teachers.
- A relationship will be found between the perception of efficacy in teaching and the perception of the teacher-student connection.
- The main factors of burnout will be the management and the number of work hours.

Research Methodology

In the current research study, the mixed method approach will be used. Next, I will elaborate about the quantitative approach, the qualitative approach and the combination between two, namely, mixed method approach. Previous studies which explored dropout among youth at risk used mixed method (for example Mahoney, 2014; McCabe et al., 2018). The quantitative is essential in order to establish valid statistical relationships between demographic and psychological factors that are associated with burnout. This method will also enable to predict how the improvement in specific factors could reduce the level of burnout among teachers in youth villages. In addition, the study will use qualitative research method in order to deeply explore the subjective perception of teachers in youth villages. Specifically, by in-depth interviews, the study will describe how teachers perceive their teaching experience, which difficulties they have and how they view the educational process in the youth villages.

Mixed methods research is a design for collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative or data in a single study to understand a research problem. Creswell (2009) emphasizes that in the mixed research design, the investigator collects both forms of data at the same time during the study and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results. There is a growing understanding that the combination of those two techniques might serve as an added value to the research, in other words it might enable to build a more comprehensive model and as a result to achieve better understanding about specific phenomenon. The idea is very clear and simple accordingly qualitative data is necessary in order to understand why and how several processes take place, while numerical data provide a clear description of events and processes (Creswell et al., 2007).

The mixed methods approach is a way to come up with creative alternatives to traditional or more monolithic ways to conceive and implement evaluation. It is likely that these alternatives will not represent radical shifts in the short run. However, they are a genuine effort to be reflexive and more critical of the evaluation practice and ideally,

more useful and accountable to broader audiences. It suggests that the dichotomy of quantitative versus qualitative might not be as incompatible as purists from both sides have argued. Moreover, studies using mixed-method have shown that integration of both methods within the same study can be seen as complementary to each other (Creswell, 2009).

It is important to note that as part of the qualitative method, I already conducted participant observations, meaning, gathering data by observing the various activities in youth villages. These activities were conversations of teachers with students, social activities of the students, meetings between parents and teachers and others.

1. Quantitative Method

1.1 What Is the Quantitative Method?

The quantitative method is based on the positivist approach that states that science must rely on objectivity. Furthermore, positivism requires the independence of the conclusions of the study at the point of origin of the researcher, as well as the examination the researcher's hypotheses by collecting observational data.

Therefore, quantitative research has several central characteristics:

1. A scientific research of society should be limited to gathering information about phenomena that can be objectively predicted.
2. Moreover, positivists believed that the social world could be classified objectively. Applying these classifications will allow sets of observed social facts to be counted and thus statistics to be generated. An example is found in Durkheim's study ("Suicide," 1897), which collected data on social facts such as suicides rates in different religions.
3. Searching empirical systematicness which correlates between different social facts. A correlation is a tendency of two things or more that can be found together and may relate to the power of their relationship.

4. Search for causal relationships if there is a strong correlation between two or more types of social phenomena. In this case, the positivist sociologist may suspect that one of the phenomena causes the others to take place. Positivists believe that a multivariate analysis can establish causal connections between two or more variables. If these findings were examined in a variety of contexts, researchers could be confident that they have achieved the ultimate goal of positivism: defining the laws of human behavior (Babbie, 2013).

Table Number 4: The Principles of Positivism

Principle	Meaning
Naturalism	The principles of natural sciences should be used for social sciences.
Phenomenalism	Only observed phenomena provide valid information.
Nominalism	Words with scientific meaning have one fixed meaning. The existence of a word does not indicate the existence of what it describes.
Atomism	Things can be investigated by reducing them to their smallest parts (and the sum is the sum of parts).
Scientific laws	The purpose of science is to create general rules (which are used for such as prediction).
Facts and values	Facts are searchable. Values have no meaning to science.

Cloud Source (1993)

The goal in quantitative research is deduction from the general to the individual. Therefore, quantitative research focuses on the examination of the reality of existing theories in private cases. Attention is devoted to facts based on the underlying assumption that there is only one reality. The hypothesis is examined, and the result is the main issue. In qualitative research the approach is inductive, concluding from the individual to the general. The theory is established from the details. Theory anchored in reality or field is a

critical concept in qualitative research. The assumption is that the same reality can have different aspects because it can be interpreted differently. The hypothesis does not exist formally, and the researcher is expected to approach the reality examined as *Tabula Rasa* with the goal to understand processes in depth. In qualitative research, the result not the main thing (Babbie, 2013).

The quantitative research design is structured and cannot be changed during the study. Qualitative research, however, is more open and flexible. It is continuously subject to change until the researcher feels that the research question has been exhausted.

The data in a quantitative study are measurable while in qualitative research they are descriptive. Quantitative **data processing** is statistical, whereas in qualitative research data processing is done through analysis of the collected content rather than analytical methods.

The sample in a quantitative study is extensive and representative because one of the objectives of this study is to include its findings on the relevant population. Qualitative research cannot be done on a large sample, and therefore it cannot be generalized. The samples are small and may even be on one person. Thus, they are also unrepresentative.

The variables in the quantitative study are separated, and an attempt is made to find a connection between them. In qualitative research, however, it is impossible to separate variables, and the observation is comprehensive.

Quantitative **research methods** are closed (closed interview, experiments, questionnaires) and in qualitative research, the methods are open (open interview, open observation, analysis of various documents and records). The most important research tool is the researcher himself.

Positivism's is based on four main aspects: (1) The scientific research of a society should be limited to collection of information concerning phenomena which may be objectively observed. (2) Relying upon quantitative and statistical data. The positivists

believed the social world may be objectively categorized. The employment of those categorizations will allow counting sets of observed social facts, thus establishing statistics. (3) Searching for empirical consistencies, which are correlations between various social facts. Correlation is defined as the tendency of two items or more, which may be found to be simultaneously, referring to their relationship's intensity. (4) Search for causal connection if a strong correlation between two types or more of social phenomena exists. In this case, the positivist sociologist might suspect that one of the phenomena causes all others occur. Positivists believe that a multi-variate analysis may establish causal relationships between two variables or more. If those variables have been examined at a variety of contexts, then researchers may be assured they have achieved positivism's ultimate goal, namely, portraying human behavior constancy (Charmaz, & Thornberg, 2020).

In sum, the positivist paradigm that guides the quantitative approach is based on the assumption that social reality has an objective ontological structure and that people respond to this environment. Quantitative research involves counting and measuring events and performing statistical analysis of numerical data. The assumption behind the positivist paradigm is that there is an objective truth in the world that can be measured and scientifically explained. The main concerns of the quantitative paradigm are that measurement is reliable, legal and includes a precise prediction of cause and effect (Kavoura, & Bitsani, 2014). Quantitative research is deductive and specific and is based on the formulation of empirical hypotheses, which are investigated empirically based on a distinctive set of data. Scientific explanations are devoid of values; The researcher's values, biases, and subjective preferences have no place in a quantitative approach. Researchers can present the communication process as concrete and tangible and can be analyzed without addressing people involved in communication (Kavoura, & Bitsani, 2014). Since quantitative research is deductive, it proceeds from theory to the appropriate body of data. The positivist approach seeks to confirm or disprove the hypotheses developed in theory while aspiring to include them on the entire population.

Therefore, the quantitative research process is linear, structured and detailed (Sabra Ben Yehoshua, 1997):

1. Defining the research problem
2. Formulation of hypotheses
3. Setting operative definitions (identifying variables, sample, etc.). The sample is large, random and representative. The variables are isolated, controlled and controllable.
4. Planning the research tools (questionnaires, exams, surveys, structured interviews, checklists, score scales, etc.). Use of experimental techniques, structured to track the activation of the treatment.
5. Data collection (the data are quantitative, variables that can be operated and measured)
6. Data analysis (Statistical Analysis)
7. Drawing conclusions

1.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of the Quantitative Approach

The quantitative approach has several significant advantages (Lee & Cassell, 2013):

1. Presenting the research problem under particular and defined conditions.
2. Clearly and accurately investigating the correlation between the dependent and independent variables.
3. Tracking the original set of research objectives, reaching more objective conclusions, examining hypotheses and determining causality issues.
4. Achieving high levels of reliable of data collected from controlled observations, laboratory experiments, mass surveys, or other forms of research manipulation.
5. Elimination or reduction of subjective judgment.
6. Enables the research to be carried out from a long-term perspective.

Along with the advantages, there are also some drawbacks to the quantitative approach (Lee & Cassell, 2013):

- It is not possible to provide the researcher with the context of the situation in which the phenomenon is being investigated.

- Inability to control the environment in which respondents provide the answers to survey questions.
- Results are limited according to the original research proposal due to the type of closed questions and structured format.
- Does not encourage an ongoing and developing investigation of a research phenomenon.

1.3 Use of Statistical Instruments in Quantitative Research

The primary tools with which data analysis is performed in quantitative research are analytical instruments that attempt to establish relationships between variables. In quantitative research, there are two levels of definitions for the measurement of the variables - the theoretical level and the operational level. Theoretical level (nominal definition) is a verbal description of the variables (what will be measured). An operational level (observational definition) defines how to measure the variables (actually measured). A gap between the theoretical and the operational levels is called the operationalization gap. The more significant the gap, the fewer conclusions are drawn. One of the major problems in conducting research is the difficulty of matching the two levels. Exhaustion exists when the nominal definition does succeed in containing all the elements in reality that are relevant to the research question. The inclusion of all possible aspects of the variable in the study. Exclusivity exists when the nominal definition does not contain elements from reality that do not belong to the research question (Lee & Cassell, 2013).

Sampling

To obtain observations for quantitative research, there are various methods for sampling the study population.

A. The **probability sampling** - three conditions necessary for probability sampling (Altmann, 1974):

1. All items have a **known probability** of being selected for a sample. Hence, we need to know the size of the population and make it possible to sample.

2. **No** item has a **definite chance** of being selected for the sample: the probability is known and equal.
3. Nothing is **excluded from the possibility of being elected**.

The sampling frame includes all the items from which the sample was taken. It is usually smaller than the population studied, and the statistical abstraction only applies to the sample.

1. **Simple random sampling:** All items have a probability that is included in the sample.
2. **Systematic sampling:** This is especially useful in situations where the sampling frame or the sample itself is substantial.
3. **Multi-layer sampling:** Sampling of the population according to the proportionate relations between the layers in it.
4. **Cluster sampling method:** Sampling according to clusters (groups) that exist in the population and it is necessary to represent all of them.

B. The non-probabilistic sampling method:

1. Snowball Sample: Designed to solve problems of locating and communicating in specific populations. A friend brings a friend.
2. A sample of volunteers: Most people have an interest or a background in the research.
3. The quota method: Usually used when there is no registration database of the population, a random search of the sample from the population (search in a particular neighborhood) (Gabor, 2007).

1.4 The Quantitative Research Method in This Study

In this study, the quantitative research method used is based on the assumption that investigating the reasons for teacher burnout has a numerical component that can be included in a broad sample of teachers. Relying on statistical methods suggested by quantitative research, a clear relationship is evident between teachers' duties, support cycles, and demographic characteristics and burnout. The snowball technique, in which

questionnaires were sent to teachers at the school using the method of "friend brings a friend", was applied. Thus, representation of as many teachers as possible could be assured. The quantitative data were collected using the following questionnaires:

- **Support factors** - To evaluate the available support factors for teachers in the youth villages, a questionnaire containing 7 items for self-reporting was used, each presented a factor that might be a support factor for the teacher (e.g., principal / peer / supervisor). For each item, participants were asked to rate the level of assistance they received during their work on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (very low) to 5 (very high). The final index was calculated as the average rating of the items that make up the questionnaire, with a high value indicating that there were a large number of support factors in the workplace. Internal consistency is fair (Cronbach's alpha, 0.69).
- **Factors leading to leaving the teaching profession** - In order to assess the factors that may lead to retirement from the teaching profession, as well as their extent, participants were given a questionnaire containing 28 items for self-reporting, each presenting a possible reason for retirement from the profession ("load of assignments", "Low student appreciation" and "lack of professional development "). In relation to each statement, participants were asked to rate the importance of the cause of retirement from the profession in their opinion on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (very low) to 5 (very high). The final index was calculated as the average rating of the items that make up the questionnaire. Internal consistency was high (Cronbach's alpha 0.93).
- **Teacher-student relations:** In order to assess teacher-student relationships, a questionnaire was used including 7 self-reporting statements. Each statement describes how a teacher-student relationship is conducted (e.g., "I try to talk to each of my students personally, at least once a day"). For each item, the participants were asked to rate the degree of agreement based on the Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The final index was calculated as the average rating of the items that make up the questionnaire, with a high value

indicating the teacher's close relationship with his students. Internal consistency was high (Cronbach's alpha 0.70).

- **Ability to teach students with special needs** - In order to assess the teaching ability of teachers with regard to students with special needs, a questionnaire containing 16 items for self-reporting was presented, each item presenting a certain type of students (e.g., "students with attention deficit disorders", "do not speak the spoken language at school"). For each item, the participants were asked to rate the extent to which they think they are able to cope with students with special needs based on the Likert scale, ranging from 1 (unsuccessful) to 4 (with great success). The final index was calculated as the average rating of the items that make up the questionnaire, with a high value indicating high efficacy. Internal consistency was found high (Cronbach's alpha 0.80).
- In order to assess **teachers' burnout**, a questionnaire was used containing 14 self-report items that show different conditions of burnout in relation to the teaching profession (e.g., "I feel that teaching is exhausting me", "I feel that my expectations of teaching do not come true." For each item, subjects were asked to rate the degree of agreement with the above on the Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The final index was calculated as the average rating of the items that make up the questionnaire, with a high value indicating a high degree of wear. Internal consistency in this study and was found high (Cronbach's alpha 0.90).

2. Qualitative Research Method

2.1 What Is Qualitative Research?

Qualitative research methods represent a fundamentally different research paradigm than quantitative research methods. According to Shkedi (2004), a paradigm is a worldview, a general and broad perspective on phenomena that aims to explain phenomena that are viewed comprehensively, with a certain degree of simplification and focus on the specific details. The central assumption of the qualitative research method is

that the research truth lies to no small extent in the way people construct their subjective reality through their thoughts, feelings, and behavior (Denzin, 1995, in Shkedi, 2004).

The goals of qualitative research are documentation and an attempt to understand the unique and subjective world of the interviewee. Research methods tend to interpret human behaviors, beliefs, and cognition in their social context, with a greater focus on a more in-depth understanding of processes than on results at a defined time. It is a study designed to describe and document a given situation without interfering with it, a review of phenomena that cannot be easily quantified and measured (such as emotions or interactions between people). The social context is of significance, and the interpretation of the qualitative data must be made in this regard by a researcher who knows the society and culture on which the research is conducted. The primary research tool is the researcher himself, and qualitative research is, therefore, a subjective study.

In qualitative research the analysis process is spiral. The research begins with the choice of the subject, from which research questions are defined, and sets out to collect data. It is possible that in the course of the data collection process the researcher will decide to change the research question or focus the research in another direction. This spiral can take several cycles so that qualitative research can take a long time. The significant difference between this study and quantitative research is that the researcher must look back all the time to examine the process.

2.2 Types of Qualitative Research

There are several types of qualitative research methods (Ezzy, 2013):

- **Phenomenological research** focuses on the study of the essence of the human experience. The phenomenon is the object of the investigation. The data collection process is focused on in-depth interviews and collecting personal diaries. The researcher gathers information from those who have experienced the experience personally while striving to explore its meaning in their daily lives.
- **Narrative research** is based on the participants' life stories and insights.

- A **case study** is the documentation of an event, one person or a group of people throughout a process.
- **Anthropological research** is an attempt to document and understand the culture of a particular society. The research focuses on the documentation and interpretation of cultures. Instead of exploring people, ethnography learns from people. Ethnographic research is appropriate when learning about the behavior of a group with a common culture.
- A theory **anchored in the field** is the construction of an approach that answers the research question from the researcher's interaction with the world of the interviewee. The goal is to build a logical argument based on the data in the field. The previous theoretical background helps the researcher interpret his findings, but does not dictate the research questions and interpretation of the results.
- **Action research** is often performed by educators and people engaged in therapeutic subjects. This is a circular process whose purpose is to examine reality and make improvements and reexamination. The process begins with the identification of a practical problem in the researcher's work world. The researcher tries to understand the source of the problem and define the problem through research whose result is a theory anchored in the field. The insights resulting from the study lead the researcher to introduce a change in the system and to examine whether it was useful.

2.3 Methods of Data Collection in Qualitative Research

The methodology of qualitative research, that is, the way in which the research data is collected, analyzed and presented, depends on the researcher and may vary from researcher to researcher. One way to collect data for qualitative research is through in-depth interviews, which in many cases are the primary but not necessarily the primary source of information. The purpose of in-depth interviews is not only to find answers to questions or to test hypotheses. At the root of the in-depth interview is the desire to understand the experience of other people and the meaning they attribute to this experience. The interview provides access to the cultural contexts of people's behavior,

thus providing researchers with a way to understand the significance of this practice (Seidman, 1991, in Shkedi, 2004).

One of the most common ways to collect qualitative information is interviews. An interview is a conversation in which the interviewer asks the interviewee questions to collect data while documenting the answers. The interview can be done face to face or through media. There are different types of interview (structured interview, semi-structured interview, or unstructured interview). In a structured interview, the interviewer is faithful to the order of questions and their formulation and does not change them due to stimuli obtained during the interview. The advantages of such an interview are that it enables uniformity in the collection of information from the interviewee, it is less time-consuming, data analysis is relatively simple and tends to be objective. In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer follows a questionnaire that contains some specific questions but may change the order of the questions and add accordingly. In an unstructured interview, the interviewer asks, according to general guidelines and responses from the interviewee, which determine how the interview will develop. The interviewer determines the order of the questions and their formulation according to the situation and individual judgment. In-depth interviews are divided into the following three categories:

- The **structured interview**, the researcher must be faithful to formulate and arrange the questions. The interviewer does not change the order of questions following stimuli obtained during the interview. This type of formal interview is sometimes necessary to ensure the uniformity of interview subjects. Consistency is achieved through the use of general and standard questions. The questionnaire that guides this interview is called a structured questionnaire.
- **The open interview**, the researcher, does not come to an interview with pre-prepared questions, but begins with a general question and then follows the interaction. In this interview, the responses of the interviewee determine how the interview will develop. The researcher determines the order of the questions according to the situation. This kind of interview is more like a conversation than a

structured interview. The researcher focuses on some general topics to help the interviewees expose their story and present its meaning. The Questionnaire of this interview is called an unstructured questionnaire (open).

- The semi-structured interview is indexed to some pre-determined questions, but may change and add additional questions, follow-up questions, depending on the development of the interview. The semi-structured interview is the most common type of interview, an interview that combines both the flexibility of the open interview and the framework of the structured interview.

In an in-depth semi-structured interview, one can point to several main types of questions, such as descriptive questions in which respondents are asked to tell their stories. The researcher expects a response to an open, focused, inviting description based on experience or clarification of cultural terms. There are also questions of meaning based on reports of interviewees who are asked to clarify and explain the meanings and logic behind their descriptions. Moreover, the semi-structured interview entails the use of comparative questions that invite additional reference by respondents to descriptions and meanings they have raised. Finally, there are questions of completion, in which the interviewer returns to issues addressed by the interviewees to complete details that were not sufficiently clarified during the interview (Shkedi, 2004).

In-depth interviews are usually based on a case study, in which observation of human activity takes place at a particular time and place. In contrast to studies based on many examples, the study of a case study focuses on a single case in depth and over time. A case study is often used as an exploratory observation - that is, it is used for initial knowledge of a phenomenon and for hypothesizing that can be tested in later studies (Ezzy, 2013).

To construct an interview that will comprehensively examine the research questions, there are several criteria for creating questions:

- **Relevance** refers to the validity of the content and the measurement structure of questions in the questionnaire. Questions must be relevant to the research question.

- **Absence of overlap:** Any question that does not add information is superfluous. However, some overlap is desirable in order to examine the validity of the questionnaire.
- **Exhaustive:** The inclusion of questions relating to all aspects that the researcher believes are relevant to the research.

The following structure of questions may be pointed to:

1. **Open Question:** The interviewee can answer freely. The interviewer does not limit the respondent to the questions formulated, but the aspects that the researcher wishes to receive from the respondents' answers are not always evident, and the interviewee tends to skip open questions.
2. **Closed question:** points the interviewee in the direction of the answer, as it raises in the mind of the interviewee the most evident replies, thus sparing the interviewee from the effort of thinking about a response. Closed questions provide the researcher with the most relevant answers, and ease the process of analysis and coding of the questionnaire. However, sometimes the option of closed question is not suitable for the interviewee.
3. **Direct question:** refers to the interviewee, approaches, values and more.
4. **Projection question:** Such as the Rorschach test.
5. **Conditional question:** A question that relates only to some of the interviewees, and therefore, in order not to tire the rest, may be skipped.

There are seven stages of planning and conducting an in-depth interview, as follows:

1. **Thematizing** - What is the purpose of using an interview in this study? What is the aim?
2. **Designing** - Preparing the interview guide that includes a detail page, questions, and lists.
3. **Interviewing** - presenting the researcher and research to the interviewee, questions, and answers according to the interviewer's guide while listening actively, ending the interview.

4. **Transcribing** - creating written text of the interview, and incorporating additional impressions.
5. **Analyzing** - searching for themes (topics, categories), similarities and patterns, in order to give meaning to information.
6. **Verifying** - Testing the reliability of the analysis.
7. **Publication** - Publication of the findings.

The interview guide is an interviewer's instrument, built according to his / her needs and according to the characteristics of the research. Each guide contains three parts: The first part will include relevant socio-demographic details, details of the interview, such as the date, place, time, and exceptional circumstances in which the interview was conducted. The second part will include interview questions and follow-up questions with a place to list notes and thoughts. In the third section, feelings, interpretations and other comments will be recorded at the end of the interview (Shkedi, 2004). The interview will begin with an inviting preliminary question. The remaining questions will include six types: descriptive questions (what, how, where), meaning questions (why, what did they mean), comparative questions, completion questions, contrasting questions, and stimulating questions.

Alongside the interview, which is the most accepted method, there are other ways to collect data in qualitative research:

- **A document** is a non-intervening tool for measuring data based on records from various sources, such as a meeting protocol, journal, administrative records, reports, video recordings, television shows, photos, and archive items.
- **Observation** is a tool for collecting data based on a systematic recording of events, behaviors, and physical details in a defined research environment. Data collection is by visual means. In a structured observation, the researcher determines in advance what behaviors and phenomena to observe. On this basis, a standard viewing page is prepared in which the frequency of the behaviors or phenomena in a unit of time is noted. This tool is suitable for use in the quantitative approach. In an unstructured observation (open observation), the

researcher applies direct observation to document all observable behaviors as they occur without having to plan what to expect. This tool is suitable for use in the qualitative approach.

Qualitative research is a naturalistic and interpretive study that strives to understand the meaning people give to phenomena (actions, decisions, beliefs, and values) in the context of their social world. Observation of natural conditions is conducted through meticulous registration in a natural and everyday environment. The advantage of this type of observation is the description of the behavior in real time. The downside is that the observation does not explain why a specific behavior appears. Also, a positive correlation between two phenomena does not necessarily indicate that one is the cause of the other. At the time of the observation, it is crucial to remain observant and to listen to interviewees in their natural environment, to understand how they interpret the world. The data cannot be controlled or restricted, yet researchers must aspire to accept complexity. The environment should not be shaped, but somewhat naturalistic. The more common approach in qualitative research is constructivist, as opposed to the more common positivist approach in quantitative research. The positivist approach argues that an objective position is required and that objectivity and subjective must be separated by the use of standard, standardized tools such as tests. The constructivist approach, on the other hand, holds that the researcher and the phenomenon under investigation cannot be separated, and the researcher is part of the occurrence. However, it is essential to understand the world of the interviewee and to write texts that closely reflect their experience (Shkedi, 2004).

Observations can be diagnosed by the following parameters: the researcher's role in the research field, the purpose of the observation, the stage and the level of design of the study. As for the part of the researcher, the researcher may decide the level of involvement. The highest level of distance is the level of "perfect observer" when the researcher does not interfere at all with what is happening but rather serves as a kind of "camera." Regarding the level of participation, the researcher can choose between "the observer as a participant" and "the participant as an observer," depending on the level of

participation. The highest level of participation is the "perfect participant" when the researcher participates fully. Participatory observation is an observation in which the researcher participates actively in the daily life of the interviewee as a visible or covert observer. In an unobserved observation, the researcher attempts to watch the interviewee without being noticed and getting in contact (Shkedi, 2004).

The manner of observation depends on the purpose of the observation. The stage in the study determines whether the observation is descriptive, focused or selective. The level of the study design influences the nature of the observation - a structured observation or an open observation (ethnographic). In participatory observation, the observer participates in the daily life of the researched society. The researcher engages on the one hand and observes on the other. The goal is to accumulate experience and knowledge. Observation requires learning of language and culture through the prolonged stay. The conditions for such an observation are suitable, observable research question, a possible approach to the researcher, and a sufficiently limited phenomenon. The challenges of observation are initial contact, field management, analysis, writing, representation and unique ethical issues.

Principles in Qualitative Data Analysis

There are several essential principles in the analysis of qualitative data:

A. Contiguity

The "constant comparison" is the central analysis strategy of "field anchored theory." The components of text are encoded into categories by comparison and identification of meanings and patterns. Studies emerging from the basic paradigm, and especially from the narrative approach, tend to favor holistic analysis strategies (Corbin, Strauss, & Strauss, 2014). The inter-textual encounter is often created in research and is unique to it. It is not part of the reality of the participants' life and of the interpersonal encounter they experience. Therefore, it allows expanding and enriching the understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

B. Theoretical Sensitivity

The "field anchored theory" characterizes the researcher in the quality or tendency of theoretical sensitivity. The researcher brings to the interpretive analysis frameworks, concepts, knowledge, and experience that are part of the individual professional positioning. The theoretical sensitivity also develops during the study, in the encounter with the interviewees, and in the study of the data and reading in the literature relevant to the study. Based on the literature meanings and concepts are proposed and examined. Conceptualization and development of theory are not always presented as the goal of qualitative research. However, theoretical sensitivity distinguishes the researcher's interpretation from the interpretation of non-researcher, as it emphasizes that the analysis process cannot rely solely on personal experience and a private worldview. The researcher's perspective and horizons of understanding must also derive from the relevant disciplines, from the interpretative frameworks, and from the conceptualization of the scientific world. The theoretical sensitivity must also be understood as political and ethical sensitivity. The researcher must be sensitive to the value-based assumptions underlying individual research perspective and the social value implications of the researcher's interpretation (Corbin, Strauss, & Strauss, 2014).

C. Continuity and Multiplicity

The "field-anchored theory" shapes a long process of analysis. This is an evolving process, with the intensity of interpretation and abstraction increasing at every stage. The method makes it possible to re-examine the analyzed product to improve it. Additional data collected, meanings revealed, and ideas for conceptualization bring the researcher back to previous stages of the process, or further the research. At the same time, the emphasis is placed on the difference between interviewees. The researcher is called upon to decipher the many understandings that arise from the data, especially the conditions and circumstances that created them (Corbin, Strauss, & Strauss, 2014).

The qualitative analysis should be characterized by repeated processes of reading and providing meaning. The development of the analysis is not necessarily controlled, and

must not necessarily follow structured steps and a hierarchy until saturation. However, the analysis should be characterized as "walk and repeat." The interpretive "walk and repeat" is required in order to allow the researcher to stay with the texts and to delve deeper into them. It also contains the observation of texts from different angles. The interpretive multiplicity necessitates that the process of analysis is preserved in a variety of "voices" of the interviewees. The researcher is required to pave his interpretation on a variety of interpretative and theoretical frameworks.

D. Reflectiveness

The qualitative researcher must be aware of the process of analysis (Anney, 2014), and identify from what perspective the texts are analyzed. What is the researcher's position vis-à-vis the reality under investigation? How prior "baggage" the researcher carries affects the investigation? Josselson and Hopkins (2015) highlight the difficulty of finding out how the researcher's self and private worlds are relevant to research and interpretation. Moreover, they note, the challenge to know how the relevant aspects did affect interpretation. The researcher must account for his analysis decisions.

2.4 Qualitative Research Methods in the Present Research Study

The present research study used qualitative research methods, when thirty teachers who teach in different youth villages around Israel were interviewed. Of the thirty respondents, 64.5% were women and the rest were men. 80.6% are married, while 12.9% are single and the rest are divorced. The birth year of the respondents ranges from 1957 to 1993. 16.1% of the respondents reported that they work in a full-time position, and the remainder reported that they work in a two-thirds and more position. The respondents work in seven youth villages – Kanot, Ben Shemen, HaKfar HaYarok, Hadassim, Ayanot, and Hadassah Neurim. The respondents' experience ranges from 3 to 36 years.

3. Comparison between Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods

The following table summarizes the comparison between the two research methods - quantitative and qualitative.

Table Number 5: Comparison between the Two Research Methods

	Quantitative Research	Qualitative Research
Purpose	1. Testing existing theories 2. Finding a relationship between variables 3. Presentation of facts 4. Confirmation or refutation of hypotheses	1. Developing awareness and understanding of concepts 2. Description of different aspects of reality 3. Constructing a theory anchored in reality through comparisons and resistance, based on data collected in the study
Research Design	The research design is structured and detailed, indicating in advance the details of implementation.	The research system is flexible and general, indicating trends of progress.
Data	Quantitative variables that can be operated and measured.	Descriptive variables such as personal documents, documents, protocols, field lists, photographs, recordings.
Data Analysis	Statistical data analysis	Processing based on analysis of all data collected.
Sample	The sample is large and defined, with a control group, random and representative.	The sample is small and non-representative and may be unique.
Variables	The variables are separate and controllable.	No separation between variables.
Research Methods	Experimental techniques - like a built-in observation to track the impact of experimental manipulations.	An open and inclusive research method.
Research Instruments	Experiments, studies, surveys, questionnaires, structured interviews.	Analysis of documents and documentation, the researcher himself.

As written, in this study I used qualitative research methods.

4. Validity, Reliability, and Generalization

4.1 Validity

This study combines quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative research method is relatively easy to validate and is based mainly on quantitative measures and questionnaires that have already been applied in previous studies. In contrast, qualitative research is more difficult to validate as it relies on the subjective interpretation of the researcher (Hitchcock & Newman, 2013).

Alongside the theory regarding the validity, there are the following three operative definitions:

1. **Should be criterion validity or Predictive validity:** refers to the situation in which the researcher wishes to develop measurements that distinguish between measures, in order to predict one variable with the other variable. The psychometric exam, for example, is a predictor of scholastic success. There are three validation methods dependent on criterion:
 - a. Postdictive Validity: The criterion is measured before the predictor.
 - b. Concurrent validity: the predictor and criterion data are collected at the same time.
 - c. Predictive validity: the criterion is measured after the predictor.
2. **Content validity:** Refers to the extent to which measurement represents all parts of the measured concept. To ensure that content is valid, a good analysis of the content world is required, a representative collection of items from this content world is needed; Good construction (order questions, for example) of the measuring instrument (questionnaire/test).
3. **Construct validity:** Refers to the relationship between the theoretical term (nominal) and the observational term. In case of a new concept, the question arises whether the concept exists and whether it is the right way to measure it. There are four ways to test validity structure:
 - a. Correlations with related variables: testing correlations of the same concept with similar concepts.

- b. Convergent validity: Measurement the same concept in different ways. If the correlations obtained are similar, the validity of the structure is confirmed.
- c. Discriminant validity: testing correlations with unrelated concepts. If the correlations are low, it may be suggested that this is a new concept.
- d. Differences between groups: The researcher will examine the extent to which differences between different groups are revealed at the level of the concept of the new term. If the researcher argues that there is a difference in this sense between the two groups, he must compare them.

This study meets these criteria, as both qualitative and quantitative aim at answering the same research questions. The quantitative research method collects data using questionnaires and performs appropriate statistical analyzes. Also, the qualitative research method gathers teachers' perspective through their observation of their experience at school.

4.2 Reliability

In its traditional sense, reliability is the ability to repeat the study and arrive with a similar method to an identical or similar result. If the research is reliable, other researchers using the same processes may achieve the same results. Reliability is the process by which the research yields the same results regardless of when or where it is conducted. The term "reliability" was proposed as a measure for the planning and implementation of qualitative research, and qualitative evaluation of other researchers (Shkedi, 2004).

Additionally, reliability is the way we treat, collect, analyze, and report on data. The most important idea is that the stages of the study should be transparent, meaning that readers should be aware of all the steps and all the problems and methodologies need to be clarified. The researcher should then reveal precisely how the research was conducted and how decisions were made so that the reader may judge the quality of the study and examine the researcher's actions and reasoning (Josselson & Hopkins, 2015).

In quantitative research, there are several ways to calculate reliability. There are four operational definitions of reliability:

1. Test-retest reliability: Conducting the same test more than one time and comparing the results. The disadvantage is that the first test can affect the results of the re-test, and if there is a flaw in the questions, the re-test does not reveal the weakness.
2. Parallel form of reliability: is examined by passing parallel versions of the same test. It is critical to ensure that both versions meet the same feature and have identical statistical properties (the same scale).
3. Internal consistency reliability: is examined by calculating the correlation between all the questions in order to ensure that they relate to the same content world. The disadvantage is that the method does not allow for measuring external influences.
4. Inter-rater reliability: Examined using a questionnaire by some judges, suitable for qualitative tests.

The choice of reliability depends on the purpose and type of test. To examine the extent to which the participants change their mind, test-retest will be applied. A test designed to be homogenous will be tested for internal consistency reliability. In this study, the reliability of the measures was confirmed in several ways:

1. Reliability of the quantitative tools was calculated using Cronbach's alpha index.
2. The interviews were cross-referenced for similar categories.
3. The interviews included parallel questions with each answer to the questions enabling follow-up and comparison to the other interviews.
4. To increase the reliability of the data, the researcher complied with the three conditions set by Shkedi (2004):
 - A. Creating a database - The research data was stored on the computer and removable disk, as well as hard copy including all sources of information.
 - B. All analysis documents including all stages of the analysis are kept, as well as each of the analysis categories, so that other researchers can reconstruct the analysis process, thereby examining the reliability of the study.

- C. Presentation of evidence at the end of the study. The report provides many quotations on the relevant issues and indicates the circumstances under which the evidence was obtained. Thus, data was logically gathered to the research questions.

4.3 Generalization

The study is intended to enable generalization of conditions, places and other populations. To do so, the present study examined participants in a number of measurement issues, and interviews were conducted. At the same time, a generalization of research findings can be made subject to teacher characteristics.

5. Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues usually arise from the research process and should be addressed accordingly. The three main ethical issues are confidentiality, anonymity, and informed consent. Landau and Schaeffler (2007) noted a number of ethical principles, as follows:

1. Participation is voluntary - participants should not be forced to participate in research.
2. Informed consent - prior to participation, a person must sign an agreement form.
3. Prevention of injury - the researcher must ensure that the participants are not offended by the use of polite and respecting language and the expression of the questions is simple and clear manner.
4. Anonymity - the identity of the participants should be protected to protect them from any embarrassment or damage in light of the information collected.
5. Confidentiality - does not necessarily require anonymity, but preferably ensures that the data is safe and the identity of the participant is not disclosed.

In this study, all participants in the study joined voluntarily, and their identities were kept confidential throughout the study.

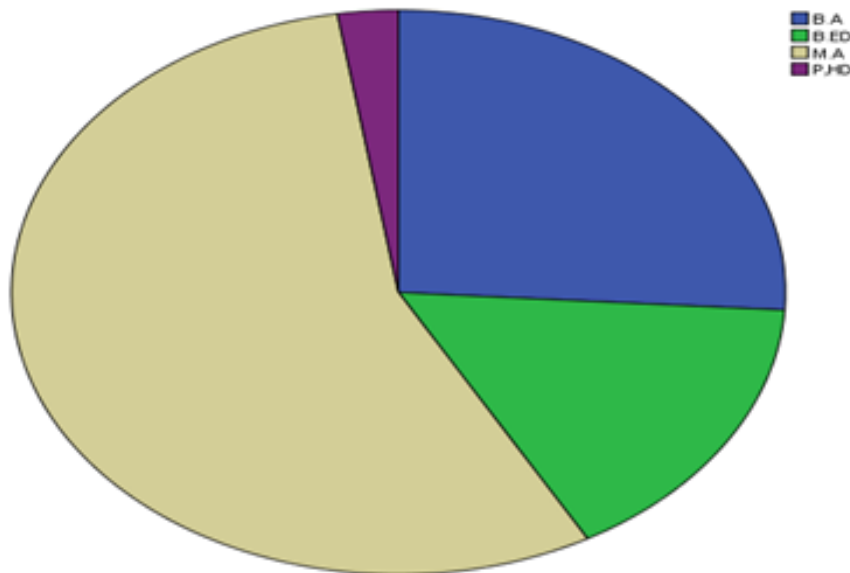
6. Research Study

6.1 Research Participants

A total of 277 teachers who work with youths at-risk in the youth villages in Israel participated in the present research study. The participants consisted of 86.2% women (N=237), and the age of the participants ranged from 25 to 65, with a mean of 42.93 years (SD=9.343). Most of the participants (N=216, 78%) were married, and their number of children ranged from 0 to 7 (Med=2).

In addition, the years of experience of the research participants in the teaching ranged from one year to four years, when the mean was 13.93 years (SD=10.02). Furthermore, most of the participants (N=244, 81%) reported that they work two-thirds of a position and above. As can be seen in figure number 5, the most common academic degree among the participants is the MA degree.

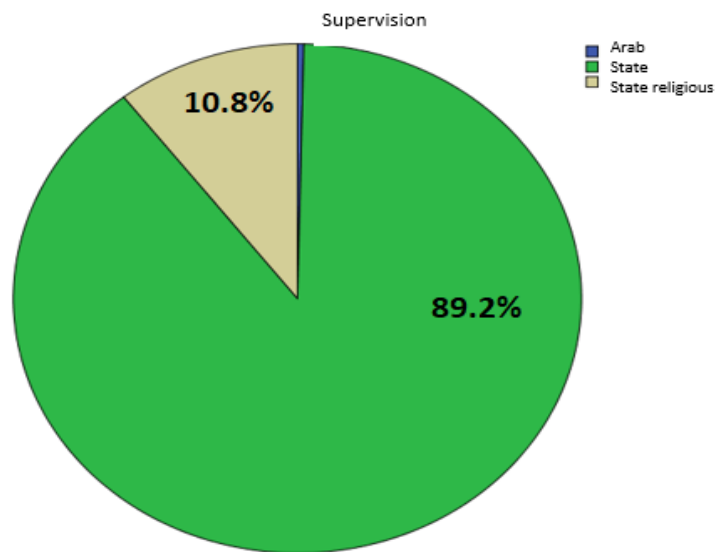
Figure Number 5: Level of Education among the Research Participants



All the participants in the research reported that they work in schools that belong to the Jewish sector, and the vast majority (N=247, 89.2%) reported that the school where

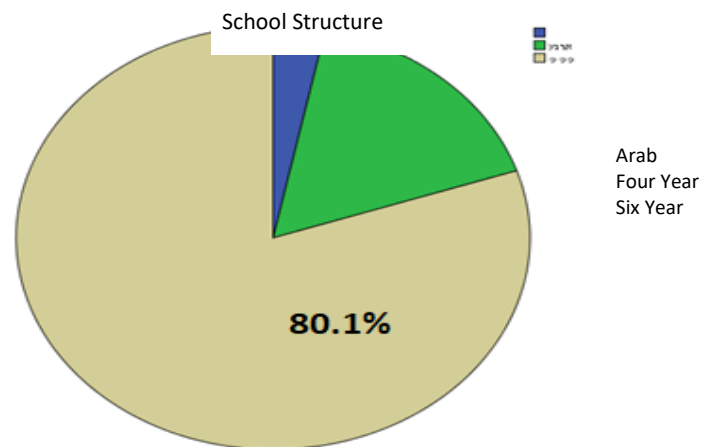
they work is under state supervision while 10.8% (N=29) stated that the school where they work is under state religious supervision. In addition, most of the participants (N=158, 57%) are workers in schools found in urban regions, while the rest are workers in schools found in rural regions (see Figure Number 6).

Figure Number 6: Type of Supervision of the School where the Research Participants Teach



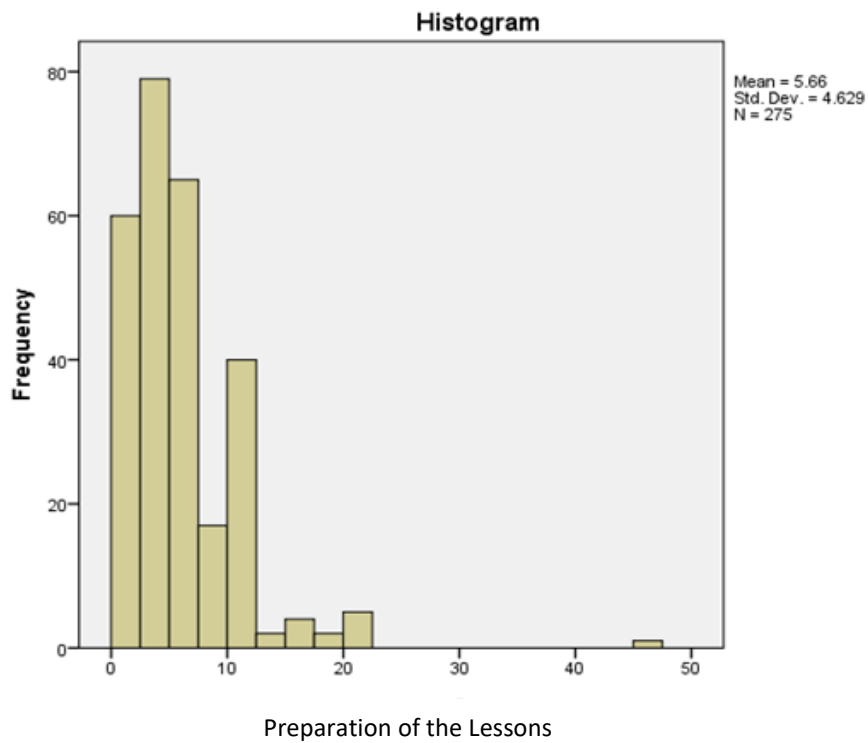
Most of the respondents (80.1%, N=222) work in schools that operate in a six-year format (as opposed to a four-year format), as presented in the following figure.

Figure Number 7: Structure of the School Where the Research Participants Teach



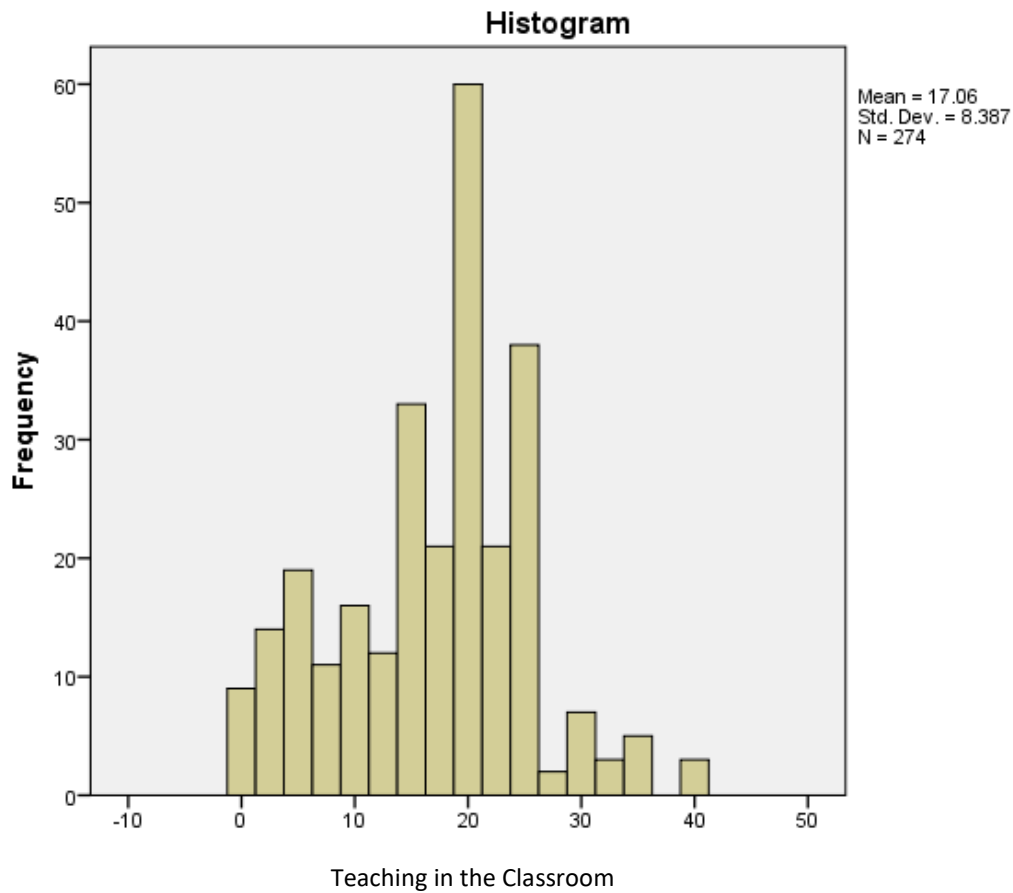
According to the participants' reports, the number of students in the schools where the participants work ranges from 20 to 2,200 students, when the mean is 617.43. In addition, the mean time that the respondents dedicate to the preparation of lessons ranges from less than an hour a week to 45 hours a week, when the mean is 5.66 (SD=4.629) (see Figure Number 8).

Figure Number 8: Number of Hours a Week Dedicated to the Preparation of Lesson
among the Respondents



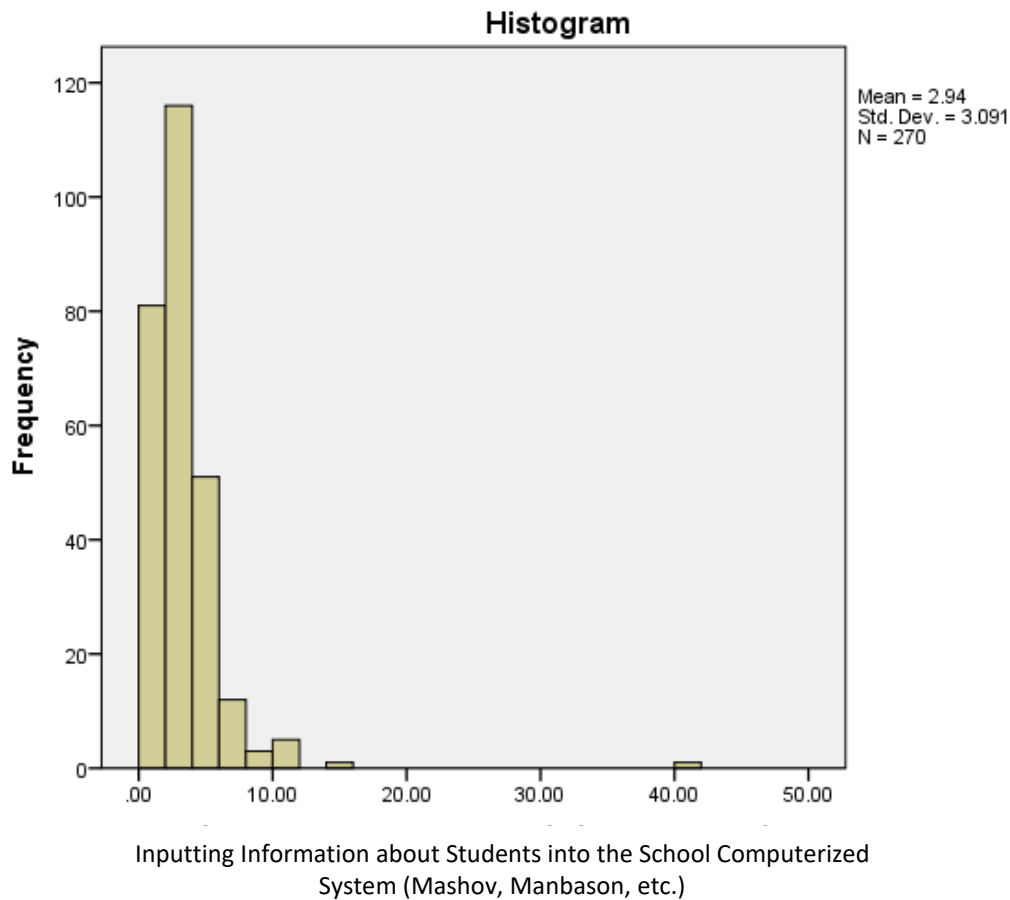
The time dedicated to the teaching in the classroom ranged between one hour a week and forty hours a week, with a mean of 12.59 (SD=10.635) while a relatively normal distribution was found (see Figure Number 9).

Figure Number 9: Number of Hours a Week Dedicated to Teaching in the Classroom
among the Respondents



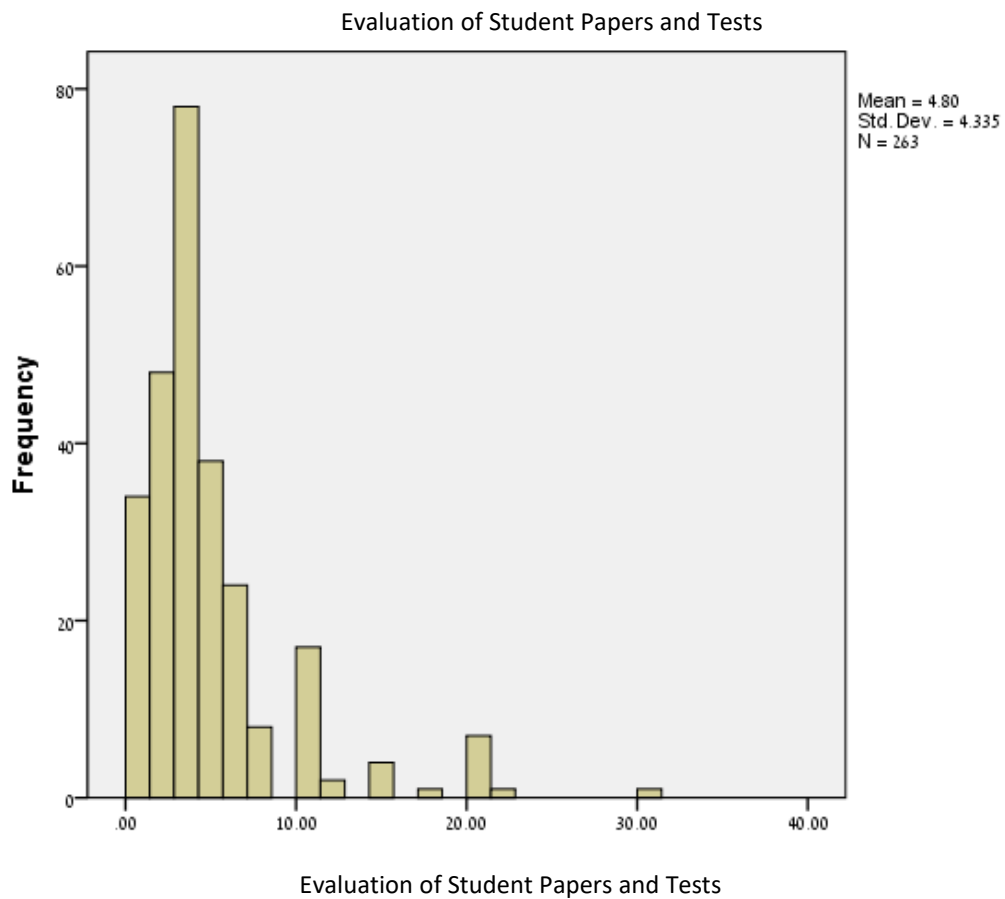
The time dedicated to the inputting of the information about the students into the computerized system of the school ranges from ten minutes to two hours a week, with a mean of 2.94 (SD=3.091) while a positively skewed distribution was found (high frequency of low values, and low frequency of high values).

Figure Number 10: Number of Hours a Week Dedicated to Inputting Student Information
among the Respondents



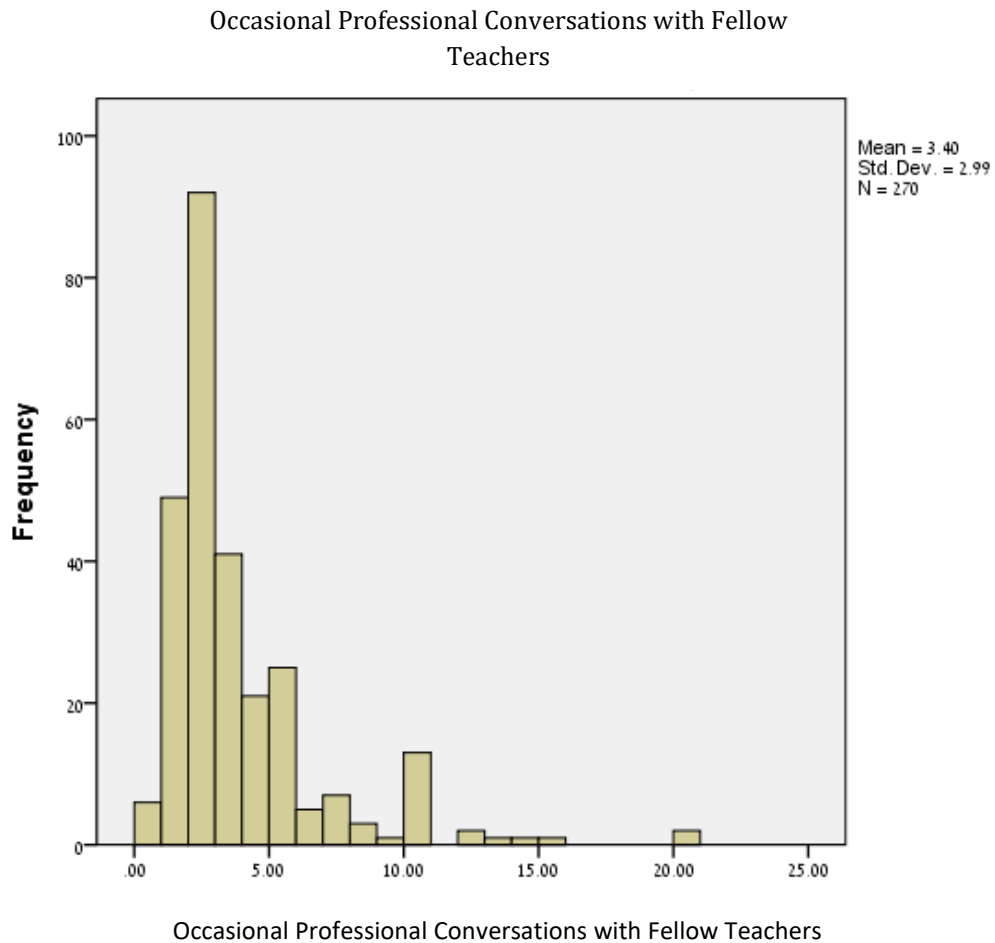
The time dedicated to the evaluation of the papers among the respondents ranges from zero (some of the respondents explicitly noted that they do not hold tests, for instance, since they are physical education teachers) to twenty, with a mean of 4.8 (SD=4.335) while a positively skewed distribution was found (high frequency of low values, and low frequency of high values) (see Figure Number 11).

Figure Number 11: Number of Hours a Week Dedicated to the Evaluation of Student Papers and Tests among the Respondents



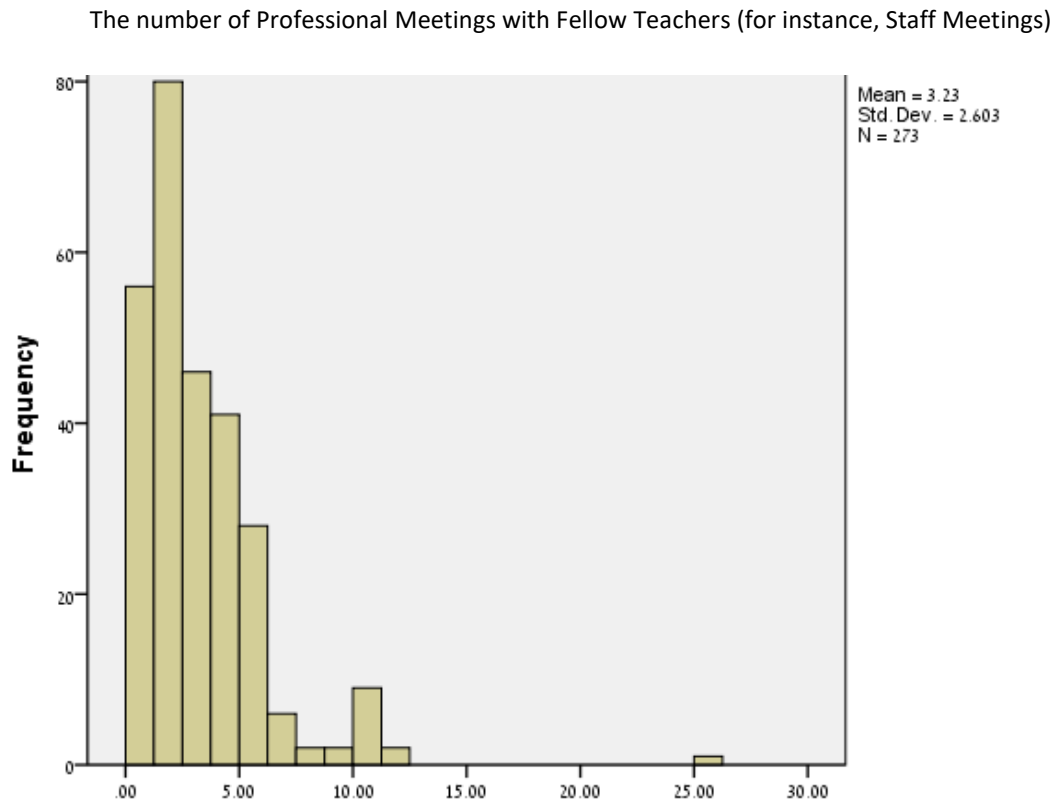
The time dedicated to occasional conversations with the fellow teachers ranges from zero to twenty, with a mean of 3.4 (SD=2.669) while a positively skewed distribution was found (high frequency of low values, and low frequency of high values) (see Figure Number 12).

Figure Number 12: Number of Hours a Week Dedicated to Occasional Professional Conversations with Fellow Teachers among the Respondents



The evaluation of the papers among the respondents is from 0 to 25, with a mean of 3.22 (SD=2.602) while a positively skewed distribution was found (high frequency of low values, and low frequency of high values) (see Figure Number 13).

Figure Number 13: Number of Hours a Week Dedicated to Professional Meetings with Fellow Teachers

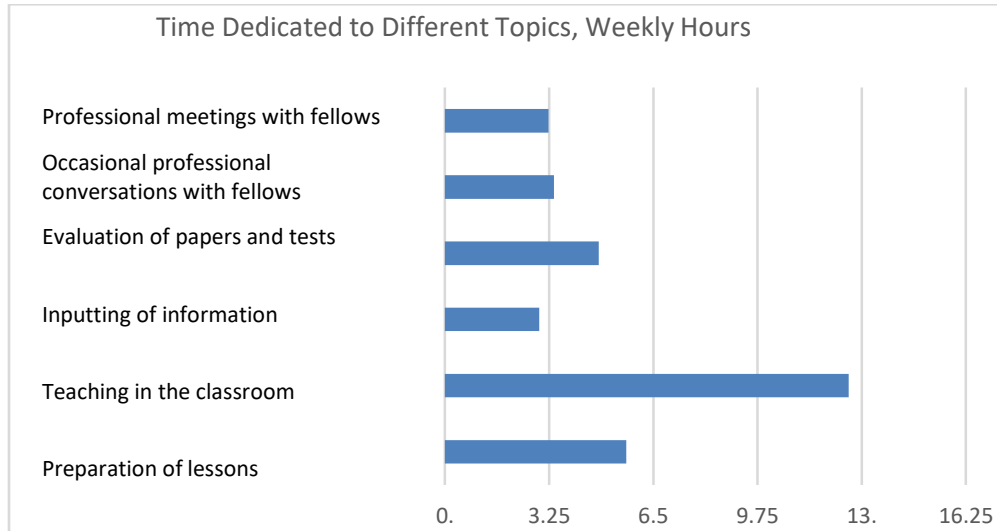


The number of Professional Meetings with Fellow Teachers (for instance, Staff Meetings)

It is important to note that for these variables some of the respondents provided answers of a range, regarding which the mean value was calculated. In addition, some of the variables provided a verbal response, such as “lots”, “smartschool”, and so on. In these cases the answer was changed into lack of value.

A comparison of the number of weekly hours dedicated by the respondents to different topics is presented in the following figure.

Figure Number 14: Comparison of the Time Dedicated by the Respondents to the Different Tasks in a Week



To conclude, the distribution of the demographic variables in the present research study is presented in the following table.

Table Number 6: Distribution of the Demographic Variables in the Present Research

Variable	Possibilities of Response	Percentage (%)	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
Sex	Man Woman	13.8% 86.2%		
Age			42.93	9.343
Family situation	Single Married Divorced Other	9.5% 82.4% 6.1% 1.9%		
Number of children			2.32	1.402
Experience			13.93	10.021
Education (academic degree)	BA BeD MA PHD	26% 15.9% 55.6% 2.5%		
School where you teach	Kanot Other	14.1% 85.9%		
Position percentage	Less than one-third One-third Two-thirds & more	1.4% 10.5% 88.1%		
Sector	Jewish	100%		
Supervision	State State religious	89.2% 10.8%		
Community characteristics	Urban Rural	57% 43%		
School structure	Four year Six year	19.9% 80.1%		
Overall number of students in the school			617.43	461.116

6.2 Research Instruments

- **Factors of support.** For the purpose of the evaluation of the factors of support available for the teachers, use was made of a questionnaire that consists of seven items of self-reporting, when each one of them presents a factor that may constitute a factor of support for the teacher (such as principal/colleagues/supervisor). Regarding each one of the items, the participants were asked to rank the degree of assistance they received from the same factor during their work on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (very little) to 5 (very greatly). The final index was calculated as the mean of the rankings of the items that comprise the questionnaire, when a high value indicates the great presence of support factors in the workplace. Reliability as an internal consistency for this index was examined in the present research study and was found to be moderate-high (Cronbach's alpha 0.67).
- **Burnout.** To evaluate the teachers' burnout, use was made of a questionnaire of consisting fourteen items for self-reporting that present different situations of burnout regarding the teaching profession (for instance, "I feel that teaching makes me tired", "I feel that my expectations from the teaching are not realized"). Regarding every item, the respondents were asked to rank the degree of agreement with it on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (definitely do not agree) to 4 (definitely agree). The final index was calculated as a means of the rankings of the items that compose the questionnaire, when a high value indicates a high degree of burnout. Reliability as internal consistency for this index was examined in the present research study and was found to be high (Cronbach's alpha, 0.871).
- **Factors of the departure from the teaching profession.** To evaluate what the factors that may cause the departure from the teaching are, as well as the scope of the factors, a questionnaire that consists of 28 items for self-reporting was distributed to the participants. Each one of them presents a possible reason for departure from the profession (for instance, "task load", "low

appreciation on the part of the students”, “lack of professional development”). Regarding every statement, the participants were asked to rank the degree of importance of the factor to the departure from the profession in their opinion according to a Likert scale ranging from 1 (very little) to 5 (very great). The final index was calculated as the mean of the rankings of the items that comprise the questionnaire. Reliability as internal consistency for the index was examined and found to be high (Cronbach’s alpha, 0.904).

- **Student-teacher relations.** To evaluate the teachers’ relations with their students, use was made of the questionnaire, which consists of seven statements for self-reporting. Every statement describes the way in which relations between the teacher and the student are held (for instance, “I try to speak with each one of my students personally, at least once a day”). Regarding every item, the respondents were asked to rank the degree of the agreement with the aforementioned according to a Likert scale ranging from 1 (definitely do not agree) to 4 (definitely agree). The final index was calculated as the mean of the rankings of the items that comprise the questionnaire, when a high value indicates the teacher’s close relationships with her students. Reliability as internal consistency for this index was examined and was found to be moderate-high (Cronbach’s alpha, 0.64).
- **Efficacy in teaching students with special needs.** For the purpose of the evaluation of the teachers’ teaching ability regarding the students with different needs, a questionnaire was distributed that was composed of sixteen items for self-reporting. Every item presents a certain type of students (for instance, “students with ADHD”, “students who themselves do not speak the language spoken in the school”). Regarding every item, the participants were asked to rank the degree to which they think that they succeed in coping with the type of students presented according to a Likert scale ranging from 1 (does not succeed at all) to 4 (very successful). The final index was calculated as the mean of the rankings of the items that comprise the questionnaire, when a

high value indicates high efficacy. Reliability as internal consistency for this index was examined in the present research study and was found to be high (Cronbach's alpha, 0.84).

6.3 Analysis of the Data

All the data collected in the present research study were processed using the SPSS software program version 23. The reliability of the research instrument was examined using internal consistency, when for every questionnaire Cronbach's alpha was calculated. The relevant items were reversed, and the reported indices of reliability are after improvement.

In the first stage, frequencies and percentages for the categorical variables were produced, and means and standard deviations were produced for the quantitative variables. Before the examination of the hypotheses, the relationships were examined between the different research indices using the Pearson correlations. In addition, the relationships between the research indices and the demographic variables were examined, when relationships with continuous variables were examined using Pearson correlations. Relationships with ordinal variables were examined using Spearman correlations, and relationships with categorical variables were examined using t-tests for independent samples. The alpha level of significance in all the tests was 5%.

Research Findings

1. Descriptive Statistics

The following table presents the means and standard deviations of the participants' rankings of the possible factors of their departure from the teaching profession.

Table Number 7: Means and Standard Deviations of the Rankings of the Factors of the Departure from the Teaching Profession, in Descending Order

Factor	Mean Ranking	Standard Deviation
Mental exhaustion	3.62	1.15
Salary level	3.49	1.18
Lack of support from role-holders	3.45	1.09
Health situation (mine or my family's)	3.44	1.23
Lack of fit between expectations from the profession and the reality	3.37	1.14
Number of learners in the classroom	3.37	1.18
Lack of support from the principal	3.36	1.17
Coping with discipline problems	3.38	1.14
Many work hours	3.37	1.14
Lack of professional development	3.27	1.21
Load of tasks	3.26	1.06
Physical exhaustion	3.25	1.18
Lack of self-realization	3.24	1.28
Lack of support from colleagues	3.19	1.10
Lack of paths of promotion	3.17	1.23
Difficulties in relations with students' parents	3.08	1.11
Lack of influence on the curriculum	3.04	1.08
Low appreciation from the students	3.17	1.11

Lack of fit between the curriculum and what is done in actuality	2.92	1.04
Desire to engage in another profession	2.85	1.23
High orientation of the teaching on the national/international tests	2.82	1.18
Distance from the workplace	2.77	1.15
Class management	2.73	0.99
Heterogeneity of the learners	2.72	0.97
Family reasons (marriage, birth, etc.)	2.7	1.16
Poor student achievements	2.59	1.03
For novice teachers: lack of accompanying mentor	2.04	1.69

As can be seen, the factors of the departure with the highest ranking means among the sample participants are mental exhaustion ($M=3.62$, $SD=1.15$), salary ($M=3.49$, $SD=1.18$), lack of support of the role-holders ($M=3.45$, $SD=1.09$), health situation ($M=3.44$, $SD=1.23$), and lack of fit between the expectations from the profession and the reality ($M=3.37$, $SD=1.14$).

In contrast, the factors that influence to a lower extent are the lack of an accompanying mentor for the novice teachers ($M=2.04$, $SD=1.69$), poor student achievements ($M=2.59$, $SD=1.03$), family reasons ($M=2.7$, $SD=1.16$), learner heterogeneity ($M=2.72$, $SD=0.97$), and class management ($M=2.73$, $SD=0.99$).

These factors are very familiar according to my own experience while the consultants that I work with also report that the lack of an accompanying mentor for the novice teachers is the most disturbing factor the increase their burnout and lead them to drop from teaching. In addition, academic reasons such as learner heterogeneity and class management also strongly influence them.

Therefore, the table indicates the importance of the salary and support from role-holders, as well as the teacher's degree of mental tiredness. In contrast, the influence of the students' successes on the teachers' departure was found to be low.

The following table presents the data of the descriptive statistics about the research indices. As can be seen, factors of the departure from the teaching profession ($M=3.12$, $SD=0.62$) and factors of the presence of support factors ($M=3.00$, $SD=0.59$) were ranked by the participants as highest on the average, when the possible range of the values for every such index is at the most 5. In contrast, the variable with the lowest mean value is efficacy in teaching ($M=2.91$, $SD=0.51$), when the possible range of values of this variables ranges from 1 to 4.

Table Number 8: Ranges of Values, Means, and Standard Deviations of the Main Research Indices

	Range of Values	Mean	Standard Deviation
Presence of Support Factors	1.43-5.0	3.00	0.59
Professional burnout	0.57-3.86	2.35	0.53
Factors of the departure from the teaching profession	0.0-4.81	3.12	0.62
Teacher-student relations	1.86-4.0	2.95	0.39
Efficacy in teaching	1.19-4.0	2.91	0.51

Note: For the indices of the presence of the support factors and factors for the departure from the teaching profession, the possible range of values is 1-5. For the rest of the indices, the possible range of values is 1-4.

The following table describes the values of the correlation according to Pearson correlation between the main research variables.

Table Number 9: Pearson Correlations between the Main Research Indices

	1	2	3	4
1 Presence of support factors				
2 Professional burnout	.042			
3 Factors of the departure from the teaching profession	.054	.238**		
4 Teacher-student relations	-.011	.096	-.037	
5 Efficacy in teaching	.052	.003	-.063	.473**

**p<.05. **p<.01 (2-tailed)*

As the previous table shows, a positive relationship was found between the factors of the departure from the teaching profession described in the questionnaire and the respondents' level of professional burnout ($r=.238$, $p<.001$). In addition, it was found that the teacher-student relations positively influence the teaching efficacy towards students with different needs ($r=.473$, $p<.001$).

The following figures present the relationships found.

Figure Number 15: Relationship between Professional Burnout and Factors in the
Departure from the Teaching Profession

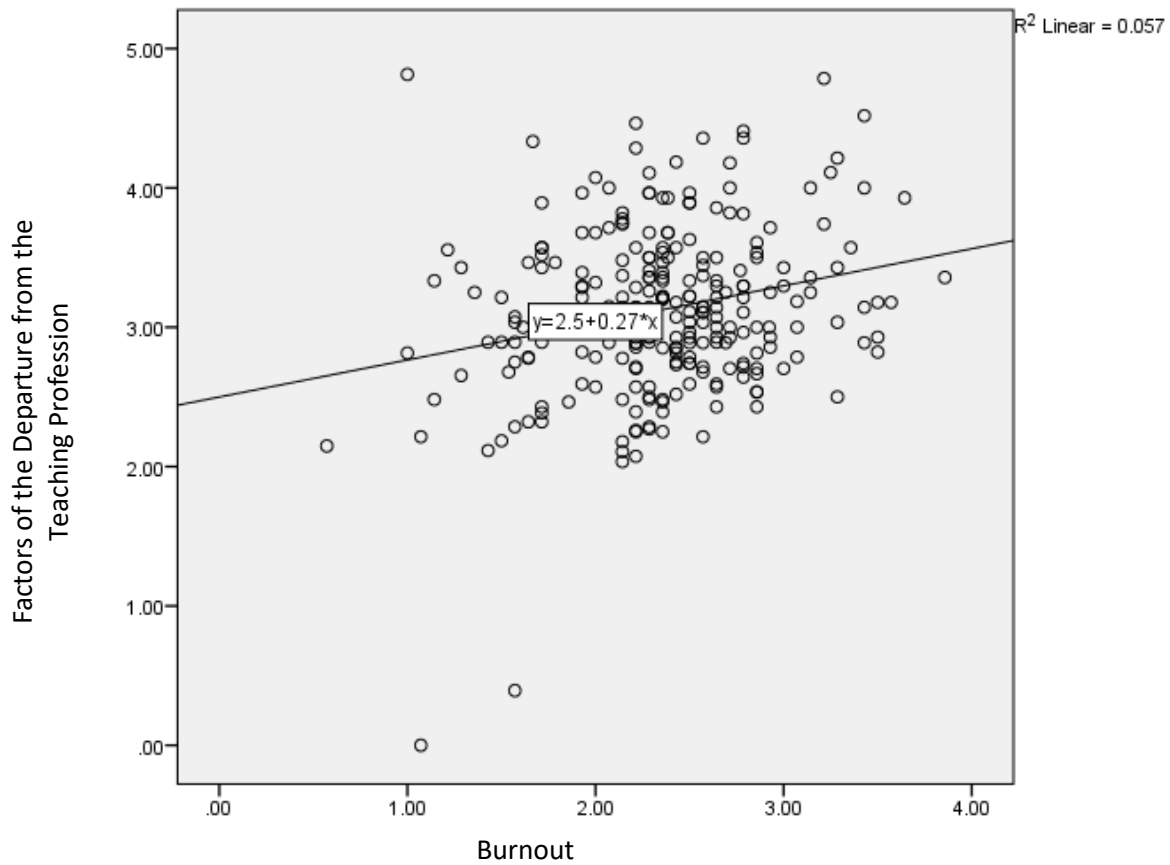


Figure number 15 shows that the mathematical model of the connections between the departure from the teaching profession and the factors of burnout is: $y = 2.5 + 0.27x$.

Figure Number 16: Relationship between Teacher-Student Relations and Efficacy in Teaching

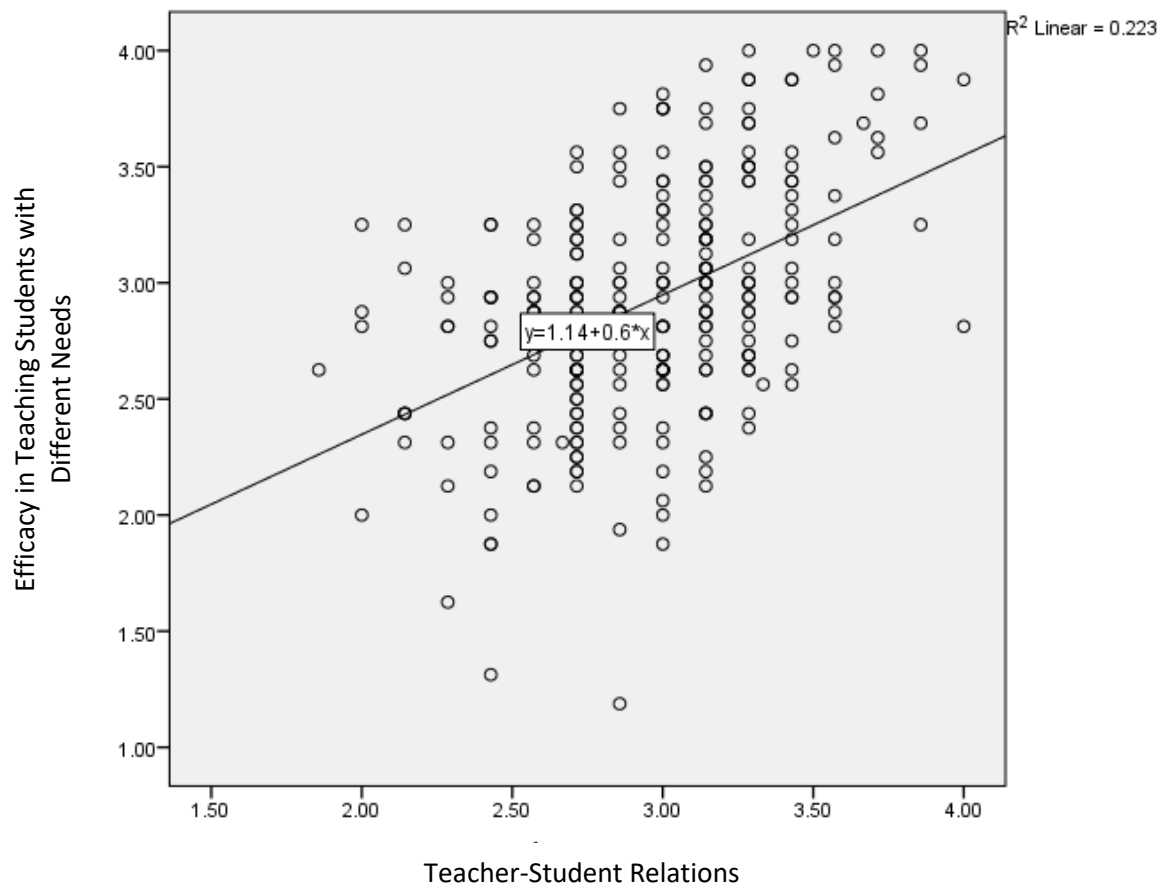


Figure number 15 and figure number 16 indicate that about burnout and factors of the departure from the teaching profession there is a concentration of data, or in other words, most of the respondents have a moderate level of burnout and rank the factors for the departure from the teaching profession as rather high. Regarding teacher-student relations and efficacy in teaching the picture is different. As figure number 16 shows, there are many differences between the respondents, when the respondents who rank the teacher-student relationships similarly rank rather differently the efficacy in their teaching.

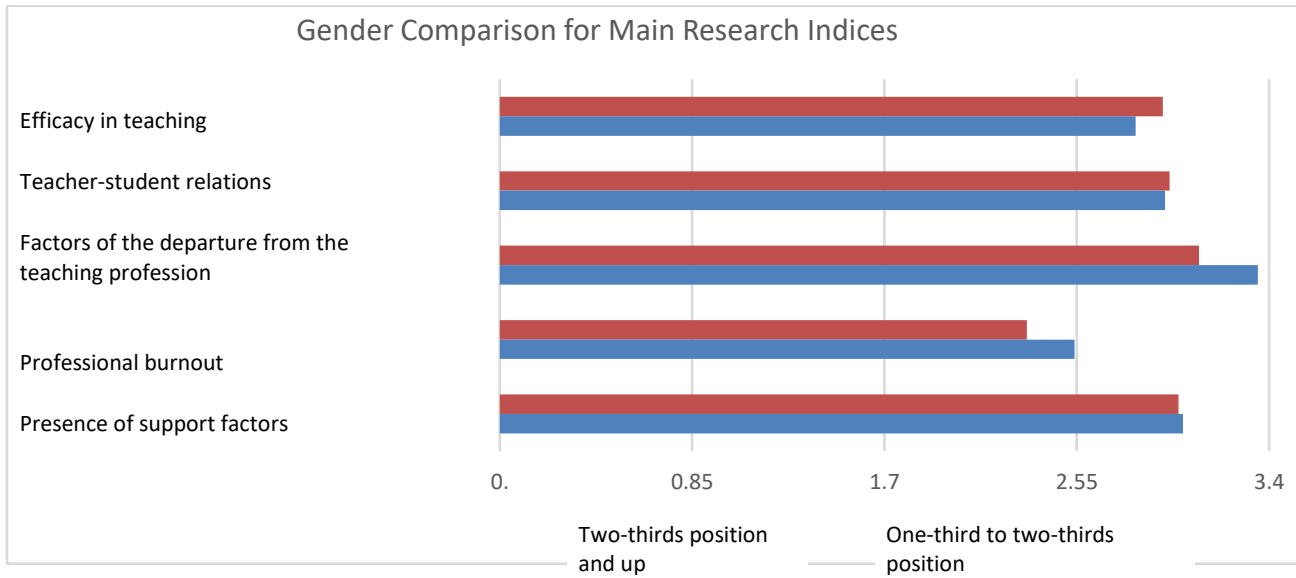
This result is in line with my professional experience, while better teacher-student relations are positively related with higher efficacy in teaching. Teachers that are satisfied with their relationships with students, feel much more competent to cope with problems.

Examination of the gender differences between the main research indices (see the following table) indicates that gender differences were not found regarding any one of the research variables. However, it should be noted that the most significant difference was found regarding the variable of “teacher student relations”, where the significance is .071 and the women respondents reported a more positive relationship than did the men respondents. However, as noted, the difference is not significant.

Table Number 10: Gender Differences in the Main Research Indices

	Gender	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Statistical Test	Significance
Presence of support factors	Man	2.92 (0.54)	t(267)=-0.904	.326
	Woman	3.02 (0.60)		
Professional burnout	Man	2.2 (0.57)	t(251)=-1.607	.096
	Woman	2.37 (0.53)		
Factors of the departure from the teaching profession	Man	3.13 (0.57)	t(272)=0.041	.888
	Woman	3.12 (0.60)		
Teacher-student relations	Man	2.82 (0.49)	t(268)=-2.253	.071
	Woman	2.97 (0.37)		
Efficacy in teaching	Man	2.84 (0.53)	t(273)=-0.93	.353
	Woman	2.92 (0.51)		

Figure Number 17: Gender Differences in the Main Research Indices



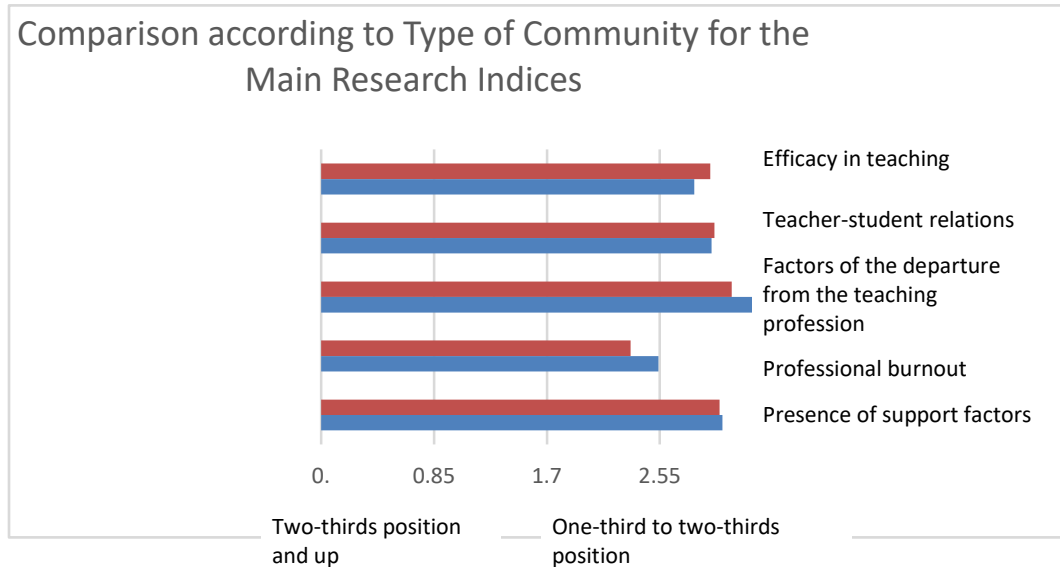
In terms of the differences between the respondents who teach in an urban community and the respondents who teach in a rural community (the following table), it was found that there is a difference regarding the presence of support factors, when the respondents from the rural communities reported higher presence ($M=3.13$, $SD=0.62$) than did respondents from the urban communities ($M=2.91$, $SD=0.56$). The significance of the difference is 0.2%, this means this is a very significant difference. Regarding other indices, a significant difference was not found.

The next table shows differences in the main research indices according to community type. Community types have to be part of every big study (Youngblood, Padgett & Winward, 1985). In the recent study the comparison is between rural and urban.

Table Number 11: Differences in the Main Research Indices according to Community Type

	Community Type	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Statistical Test	Significance
Presence of support factors	Rural	3.13 (0.62)	t(266)=3.065	.002
	Urban	2.91 (0.56)		
Professional burnout	Rural	2.29 (0.5)	t(249)=-1.3	.188
	Urban	2.39 (0.55)		
Factors of departure from the teaching profession	Rural	3.13 (0.67)	t(271)=0.3	.704
	Urban	3.11 (0.54)		
Teacher-student relations	Rural	2.97 (0.4)	t(267)=0.761	.447
	Urban	2.93 (0.38)		
Efficacy in teaching	Rural	2.94 (0.52)	t(272)=0.996	.335
	Urban	2.88 (0.5)		

Figure Number 18: Differences in the Central Research Indices according to the Community Character



The following table presents the relationships between the main indices in the research and the respondents' age, number of children, teaching experience, and academic education.

Table Number 12: Relationships between Demographic Characteristics and Main Research Indices

	Age	Number of Children	Teaching Experience	Academic Education ¹
Presence of support factors	.03	-.045	.039	.044
Professional burnout	-.024	-.034	-.001	-.046
Factors of departure from the teaching profession	-.13*	-.088	-.161**	.058
Teacher-student relations	-.071	.235**	-.042	-.094
Efficacy in teaching	-.10	.076	-.045	.007

¹Spearman's rho. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

As can be seen in the above table, the age of the participants was found to be negatively related with the index of the factors of departure from the teaching profession ($r = -.13$, $p = .032$) so that teachers who are older tend to attribute less importance to the factors of departure. It was further found that teachers with greater experience in teaching tend also to ascribe lower importance to the possible factors of departure ($r = -.161$, $p = .007$). It is necessary to pay attention that a relationship was not found between the respondents' age and their professional burnout, and in addition a relationship was not found between the respondents' age and the level of presence of the support factors.

The following figures present the differences that were found.

Figure Number 19: Relationship between Age and Factors of Departure from the Teaching Profession

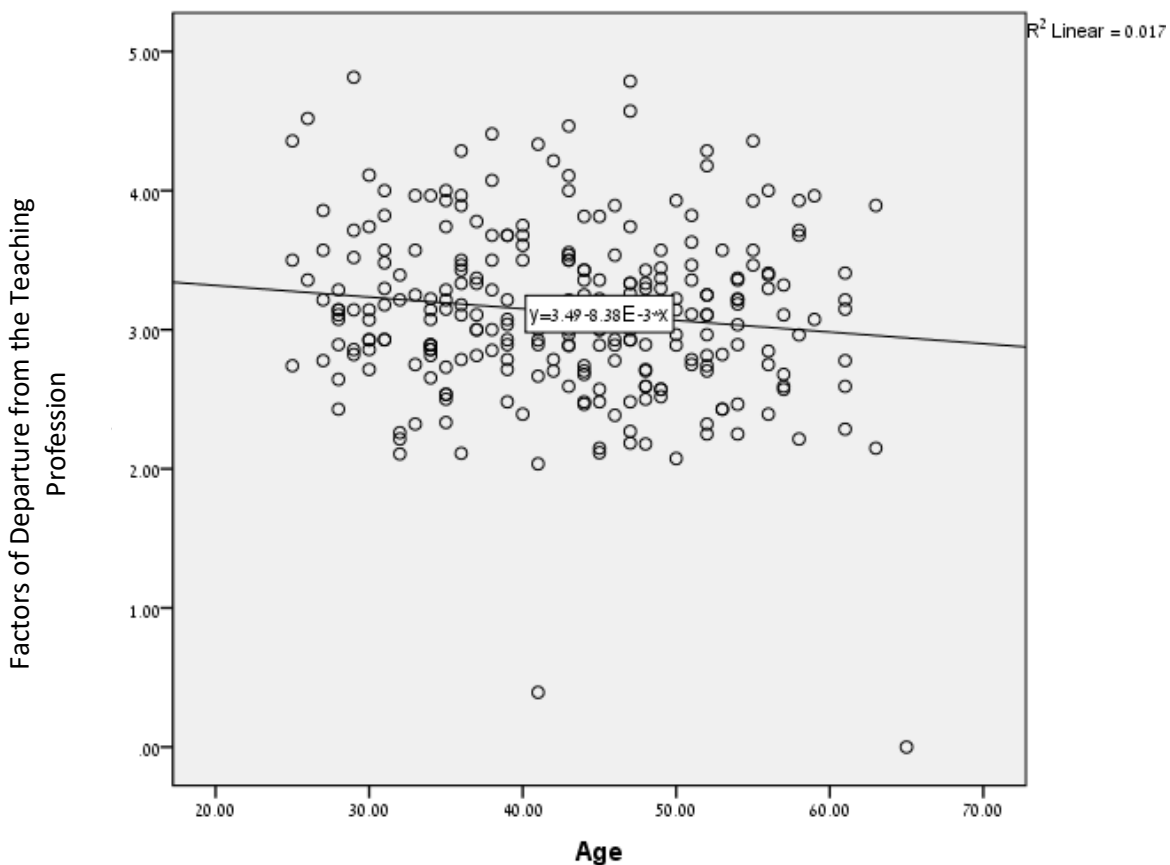
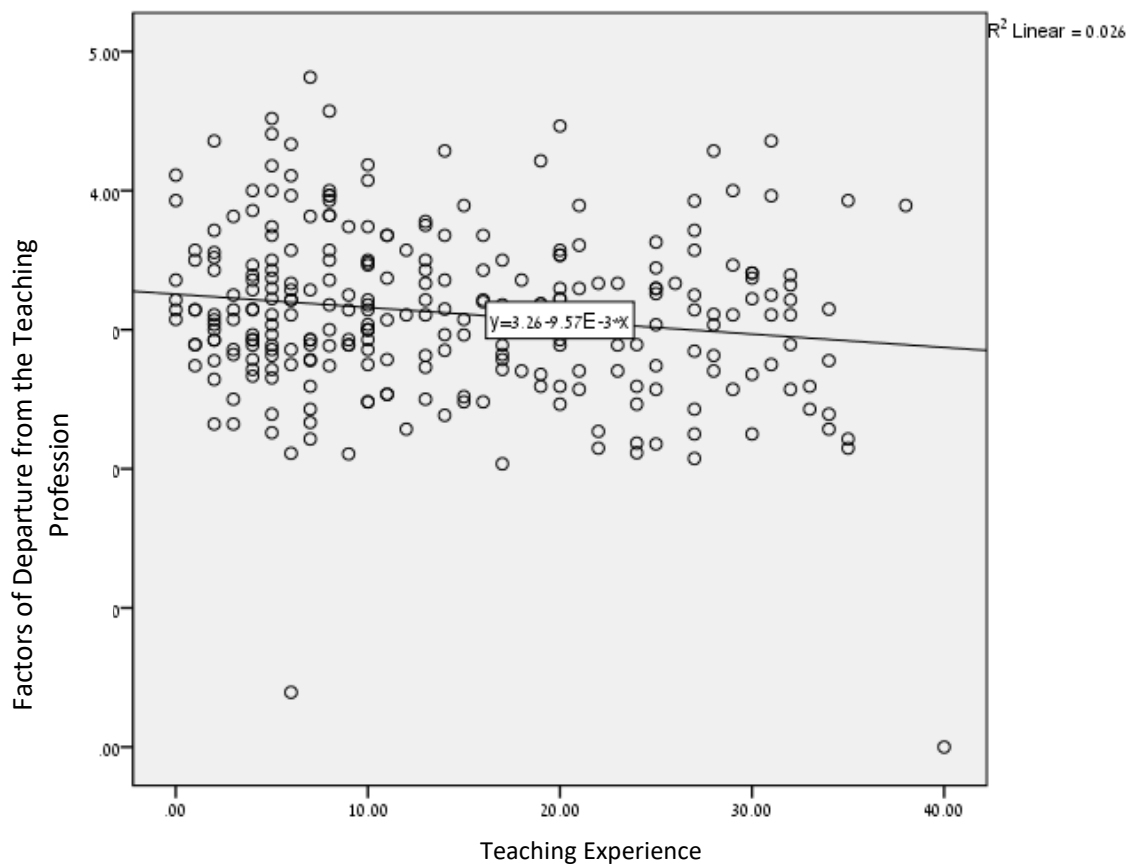


Figure Number 20: Relationship between Teaching Experience and Factors of Departure from the Teaching Profession



To examine the differences between main research indices among the respondents according to their family situation, Crosstabs test was performed. The results are presented in the following table, when the number in the parentheses addresses the percentage from the entire sample.

Table Number 13: Differences in the Main Research Indices according to the Respondents' Family Situation

	Family Situation				
Support factors	Single	Married	Divorced	Other	Total
0.0-1.99	0 (0%)	7(2.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	7(2.7%)
2.0-2.99	13(5.7%)	99 (38.6%)	(2.7%) 8	(1.5%) 4	(48%) 124
3.0-3.99	9(3.5%)	89 (34.7%)	6(2.3%)	1(0.4%)	105(41%)
4.0-5.0	3(1.1%)	15	2(0.8%)	0 (0%)	20(7.8%)
Total	(9.7%) 25	210 (82%)	(6.2%) 16	5(1.9%)	(100%) 256
Chi-squared test	4.92 (Sig=0.841)				

	Family Situation				
Burnout	Single	Married	Divorced	Other	Total
0.0-1.99	(2%) 5	(16.7%) 42	(2%) 5	(0%) 0	(20.6%) 52
2.0-2.99	(7.1%) 18	(56.3%) 142	(3.2%) 8	(1.6%) 4	(68.3%) 172
3.0-3.99	(0.8%) 2	(8.7%) 22	(1.2%) 3	(0.4%) 1	(11.1%) 28
Total	(9.9%) 25	(81.7%) 206	(6.3%) 16	(2%) 5	(100%) 252
Chi-squared test	4.312 (Sig=0.635)				

	Family Situation				
Factors of departure from teaching	Single	Married	Divorced	Other	Total
0.0-1.99	(0%) 0	(0.8%) 2	(0%) 0	(0%) 0	(0.8%) 2
2.0-2.99	(4.2%) 11	83 (31.8%)	(3.4%) 9	(0.8%) 2	(40.2%) 105
3.0-3.99	(4.6%) 12	117 (44.8%)	(2.3%) 6	(0%) 0	(51.7%) 135
4.0-5.0	(0.8%) 2	(5.4%) 14	(0.4%) 1	(0.8%) 2	(7.3%) 19
Total	(9.6%) 25	216 (82.8%)	(6.1%) 16	(1.5%) 4	(100%) 261
Chi-squared test	15.056 (Sig=0.089)				

	Family Situation				
Teacher-student relations	Single	Married	Divorced	Other	Total
0.0-1.99	(0.4%) 1	0%	(0%) 0	(0%) 0	(0.4%) 1
2.0-2.99	(5.4%) 14	87 (33.9%)	(3.5%) 9	4 (1.6%)	(44.4%) 114
3.0-3.99	(3.9%) 10	124 (48.2%)	(2.7%) 7	(0%) 0	(54.9%) 141
4.0-5.0	(0%) 0	(0.4%) 1	(0%) 0	(0%) 0	(0.4%)
Total	(9.7%) 25	212 (85.2%)	(6.2%) 16	4 (1.6%)	(100%) 257
Chi-squared test	18.155 (Sig=0.033)				

	Family Situation				
Teaching Efficacy	Single	Married	Divorced	Other	Total
0.0-1.99	(0%) 0	(2.7%) 7	(0%) 0	(0.4%) 1	(3.1%) 8
2.0-2.99	(6.5%) 17	112 (42.7%)	(3.8%) 10	(0.8%) 2	(53.8%) 141
3.0-3.99	(2.7%) 7	93 (35.5%)	(2.3%) 6	(0.8%) 2	(41.2%) 108
4.0-5.0	(0.4%) 1	(1.5%) 4	(0%)	(0%) 0	(1.9%) 5
Total	(9.5%) 25	216 (82.4%)	(6.1%) 16	(1.9%) 5	(100%) 262
Chi-squared test	9.74 (Sig=0.372)				

It was found that only regarding the teacher-student relations was there a difference between the respondents according to their family situation, so that among the married respondents the number of those who gave a value between 2.0 and 2.9 is slightly higher than expected and the number of those who gave a value between 3.0 and 3.99 is lower than expected, when among the divorced respondents the picture was reversed.

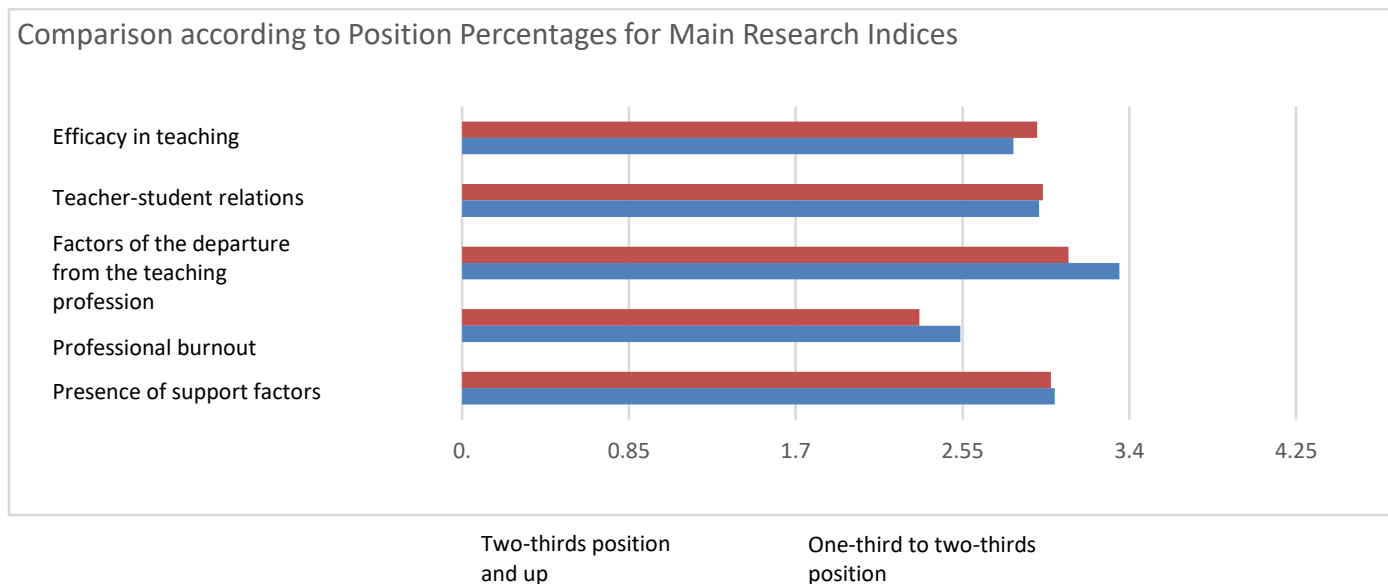
In terms of the differences between teachers with different percentages of positions (one-third to two-third / two-thirds and up) regarding the research indices (the following table), workers with the higher percentages of position tend to be on the average with many and more meaningful factors of the departure from the profession in comparison to the workers with lower percentages of position ($t(250)=2.04$, $p=.046$) and tend to have higher burnout ($t(272)=2.95$, $p=.022$).

Table Number 14: Differences between Teachers with Different Position Percentages
regarding the Main Research Indices

	Position Percentages	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Statistical Test	Significance
Presence of support factors	One-third to two-thirds	3.02 (0.54)	t(267)=0.16	.87
	Two-thirds and up	3.0 (0.60)		
Professional burnout	One-third to two-thirds	2.54 (0.64)	t(250)=2.04	.046
	Two-thirds and up	2.33 (0.61)		
Factors of the departure from the teaching profession	One-third to two-thirds	3.35 (0.70)	t(272)= 2.95	.022
	Two-thirds and up	3.09 (0.58)		
Teacher-student relations	One-third to two-thirds	2.94 (0.38)	t(268)=-0.21	.828
	Two-thirds and up	2.96 (0.39)		
Efficacy in teaching	One-third to two-thirds	2.81 (0.45)	t(273)=-1.219	.224
	Two-thirds and up	2.93 (0.52)		

The following figure presents differences between the participants who hold different percentages of position regarding the research indices.

Figure Number 21: Differences between Teachers with Different Position Percentages regarding the Main Research Indices



Regarding the relationship between the number of weekly hours the respondents dedicate and the select topics examined in the research, it was found that the number of hours dedicated in the class is negatively related with the presence of support factors ($r=-.121$, $p=.048$). In addition, a positive relationship was found between the number of hours dedicated to teaching in the class and professional burnout ($r=.131$, $p=.037$). The findings indicate that the teachers who invest greater time in actual teaching are more burned out and less enjoy support factors.

The correlations of the variables that address the total hours a week the respondents dedicate to different occupations and the main research indices are presented in the following.

Table Number 15: Relationships between the Time Invested in Different Tasks and the Main Research Indices

	Teaching in the Class	Inputting Information	Meetings with Colleagues	Preparing Lessons
Presence of support factors	-.121*	-.019	-.023	-.049
Professional burnout	.131*	-.099	-.048	-.007
Factors of departure from the teaching profession	.076	-.008	-.057	.049
Teacher-student relations	.004	-.0062	.058	.053
Teaching efficacy	-.077	-.012	.11	.005

* $p < .05$.

2. Examination of the Hypotheses

1. The teachers who work with youths at-risk in Israel suffer from professional burnout.

To examine this hypothesis, T-test for a single sample was performed, when the examined value is 2.5, which is at the middle of the scale of the questions that address this topic. The findings are presented in the following table.

Table Number 16: Findings of the T-test for a Single Sample on the Topic of Burnout

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-test Value	Significance
Burnout	2.35	0.53	-4.21	<0.001

The findings of the test indicate that the value of the variable ($M=2.35$, $SD=0.53$) indicate that it is possible to argue significantly ($t(253)=-4.215$, $p<0.001$) since the value of the variable is higher than the middle of the scale. Therefore, it is possible to maintain that the respondents suffer from professional burnout.

2. Teacher burnout is related to age and gender. The burnout is related to the teacher's level of professional competence.

As can be seen in table number 9 and table number 11, significant relationships were not found between the teachers' gender and age and degree of burnout. In addition, as can also be seen in table number 11, a relationship was not found between the teacher's degree of academic education and their degree of burnout. Hence, it is possible to determine that this hypothesis was not confirmed.

3. Negative relationships will be found between the presence of support factors for the teachers and burnout.

For the purpose of the examination of this hypothesis, a model of hierarchical regression was constructed, in which the dependent variable was the degree of burnout. In the first stage, the variables of age, gender, and teaching experience were inserted, so as to neutralize their possible influence. It should be noted that to insert the variable of "gender" into the model, an indicator model was made "is the respondent a man" with possibilities of response "1", which means yes, and "0", which means no. In the next stage, the index of the presence of factors of support was inserted.

Table Number 17: Hierarchical Regression for the Prediction of Teacher Burnout Using
the Presence of Support Factors

		B	SE (B)	Beta
<i>Stage 1</i>	Age	-0.002	.006	-.305
	Gender (is a man?)	-0.14	.107	-1.353
	Teaching experience	0.001	.005	-.175
F(3,253)=0.728, p=.536; R ² =0.09				
<i>Stage 2</i>	Age	-0.002	0.01	-.04
	Gender (is a man?)	-0.136	0.006	-.083
	Teaching experience	0.001	0.005	.02
	Presence of support factors	-0.35	0.059	.039
$\Delta F(1,252)=6.12, p=.065; \Delta R^2=0.01$				

As can be seen in table number 17, in the first stage it was found that not one of the factors is significant. In addition, the model as a whole was not significant. In the second stage, when the factor that addresses the presence of support factors was added, the model remains not significant, as is each one of its factors. Therefore, this hypothesis was not confirmed.

4. Positive relationships will be found between factors of the departure from the teaching profession and burnout.

For the examination of this hypothesis, a model of hierarchical regression was constructed, in which the dependent variable was the degree of burnout. In the first stage, the variables of age, gender, and teaching experience were inserted into the model, so as to neutralize their possible influence. In the next stage, the index of the factors of the departure from the teaching profession was inserted.

Table Number 18: Hierarchical Regression for the Prediction of the Teacher Burnout
Using Factors of the Departure from the Teaching Profession

		B	SE (B)	Beta
<i>Stage 1</i>	Age	-0.002	.006	-.305
	Gender (is man?)	-0.14	.107	-1.353
	Teaching experience	0.001	.005	-.175
F(3,253)=0.728, p=.536; R ² =0.09				
<i>Stage 2</i>	Age	-0.002	0.01	-.04
	Gender (is man?)	-0.136	0.006	-.084
	Teaching experience	0.003	0.005	.062
	Factors of leaving the profession	0.205	0.058	.225**
$\Delta F(1,252)=3.733, p=.006; \Delta R^2=0.058$				

***-pvalue<0.01*

As the results of the analysis show, in the first stage it was found that not one of the factors is significant. In addition, the model as a whole is not significant ($F(3,253)=0.728, p=.536$). The addition of the variable of “factors of the departure from the profession” caused the model to be generally significant, or in addition the factor itself is significant ($Beta=.225, p<.001$). In other words, it is possible to conclude from the model that the factors of the departure from the profession that were presented in the relevant questionnaire have a positive relationship with the respondents’ level of burnout. It is important to note that the low value of R^2 indicates that the model has a very low percentage of explained variance, about 5.8%, or in other words, using this model it is not possible to predict the values of burnout among the respondents, although it is significant. Therefore, the findings support this research hypothesis.

5. Negative relationships will be found between the teacher-student relations and burnout.

For the purpose of the examination of this research hypothesis, a model of hierarchical regression was built, in which the dependent variable was the degree of burnout. In the first stage, the variables of age, gender (is a man?), and teaching experience were inserted into the model, so as to neutralize their possible influence. In the next stage, the index of teacher-student relations was inserted into the model.

Table Number 19: Hierarchical Regression for the Prediction of the Teacher Burnout
Using Teacher-Student Relations

		B	SE (B)	Beta
<i>Stage 1</i>	Age	-0.002	.006	-.305
	Gender (is a man?)	-0.14	.107	-1.353
	Teaching experience	0.001	.005	-.175
$F(3,253)=0.728, p=.536; R^2=0.09$				
<i>Stage 2</i>	Age	-0.002	0.01	-.04
	Gender (is a man?)	-0.136	0.006	-.084
	Teaching experience	0.002	0.005	.062
	Teacher-student relations	0.164	0.091	.116
$\Delta F(1,252)=1.328, p=.26; \Delta R^2=0.022$				

As the results of the analysis indicate, in the first stage it was found that not one of the factors is significant and in addition the model as a whole was not significant ($F(3,253)=0.728, p=.536$). The addition of the variable of teacher-student relations did not cause the model to be significant ($\Delta F(1,252)=1.328, p=.26$). Furthermore, the factor of teacher-student relations was also not significant. Therefore, the second stage of the model indicates that there is no significant relationship between teacher-student relations

and the degree of burnout from the profession. Hence, it became clear that the hypothesis examined is incorrect in this case.

6. Negative relationships will be found between efficacy in teaching and burnout.

For the purpose of the examination of this hypothesis, a model of hierarchical regression was built, in which the dependent variable is the degree of burnout. In the first stage, the variables of age, gender (is a man?), and teaching experience were inserted into the model, so as to neutralize their possible influence. In the next stage, the index of efficacy in teaching was inserted into the model.

Table Number 20: Hierarchical Regression for the Prediction of the Teacher Burnout
Using Teacher-Student Relations

		B	SE (B)	Beta
<i>Stage 1</i>	Age	-0.002	.006	-.305
	Gender (is a man?)	-0.14	.107	-1.353
	Teaching experience	0.001	.005	-.175
$F(3,253)=0.728, p=.536; R^2=0.09$				
<i>Stage 2</i>	Age	-0.002	0.01	-.04
	Gender (is a man?)	-0.136	0.006	-.084
	Teaching experience	0.002	0.005	.062
	Efficacy in teaching	0.007	0.068	.007
$\Delta F(1,252)=0.547, p=.7; \Delta R^2=0.009$				

As the results of the analysis indicate, in the first stage it was found that not one of the factors is significant. In addition, the model as a whole is not significant ($F(3,253)=0.728, p=.536$). The addition of the variable, efficacy in teaching, did not cause the model to be significant ($\Delta F(1,252)=0.547, p=.7$). Furthermore, the factor of efficacy in teaching also is not significant ($Beta=-.007, p=.803$).

Therefore, as can be seen in the second stage of the model, it was found that there is no significant relationship between the degree of efficacy in teaching and the degree of burnout from the profession. Hence, it became clear that the hypothesis that was examined was incorrect in this case.

3. Additional Hypotheses

1. The presence of support factors and efficacy in teaching will be positively related to teacher-student relations.

For the purpose of the examination of this hypothesis, a model of hierarchical regression was built, in which the dependent variable was teacher-student relations. In the first stage, the variable of academic education was inserted into the model, so as to neutralize its influence. In the second stage, the indices of the presence of factors of support and efficacy in teaching were inserted into the model. The results obtained are presented in the following table.

Table Number 21: Hierarchical Regression for the Prediction of Teacher-Student Relations through the Presence of Factors of Support and Efficacy in Teaching

		B	SE (B)	Beta
<i>Stage 1</i>	Academic education	-0.04	0.027	-.091
$F(1,257)=2.257, p=.134; R^2=0.008$				
<i>Stage 2</i>	Academic education	-0.03	0.02	-.086
	Presence of support factors	-0.03	0.03	-.045
	Efficacy in teaching	0.37	0.04	.484**
$\Delta F(2,253)=27.793, p<.001; \Delta R^2=0.24$				

** $p<.01$

As the results of the examination performed indicate, in the first stage the existence of a positive relationship between academic education and teacher-student relations was not found. In addition, the model in general was not found to be significant.

In the second stage of the model, it was found that after deducting the effect of the variable of academic education, the joint contribution of the indices of the presence of the support factors and efficacy in teaching to the teacher-student relations was found to be significant ($\Delta F(2,253)=4.841$, $p<.001$). However, while the unique contribution of the index of efficacy in teaching was found to be significant in the model (Beta=.484, $p<.001$), the contribution of the index of the presence of support factors was not found to be significant (Beta=-.045, $p=.403$).

2. Teacher-student relations and efficacy in teaching will negatively predict the factors of the departure from the teaching profession.

For the purpose of the examination of this hypothesis, a model of hierarchical regression was built, in which the dependent variable was factors of the departure from the teaching profession. In the first stage, the variable of position percentages was inserted into the model to neutralize its influence. In the second stage, the indices of teacher-student relations and efficacy in teaching were inserted together into the model. The results obtained are presented in the following table.

Table Number 22: Hierarchical Regression for the Prediction of Factors for the Departure from the Teaching Profession Using Teacher-Student Relations and Efficacy in Teaching

		B	SE (B)	Beta
<i>Stage 1</i>	Position Percentages	-0.26	0.11	-.13*
F(1,257)=5.268, p=.002; R ² =0.019				
<i>Stage 2</i>	Position percentages	-0.26	0.11	-.14*
	Teacher-student relations	-0.02	0.1	-.013
	Efficacy in teaching	-0.04	0.08	-.03
ΔF(2,254)=2.054, p=.107; ΔR ² =0.023				

*p<.05

As the results of the examination performed indicate, in the first stage it was found that there is a negative relationship between the position percentages that the teacher holds and the factors for the departure from the profession (Beta=-.13, p=.022), so that teachers who hold higher position percentages tend to have lower levels of reasons for the departure from the profession.

In the second stage, it was found that even after deducting the influence of the variable of position percentages, the joint contribution of the indices of teacher-student relations and efficacy in teaching to the prediction of the departure from the teaching profession was not found to be significant (ΔF(2,254)=2.054, p=.107). Accordingly, the unique contribution of the indices of student-teacher relations (Beta=.013, p=.856) and efficacy in teaching (Beta=-.03, p=.751) was found not significant.

3. Differences will be found between men and women in the degree of investment in the tasks of “duties and assignments”.

For the purpose of the examination of this hypothesis, t-tests for independent samples were performed, in which the independent variable was gender and the dependent variables were the time dedicated a week (in hours) for the performance of duties and assignments derived from the teaching role. A significant gender difference was not found for any one of the tasks examined.

4. Differences will be found between respondents from an urban community and respondents from a rural community in the degree of investment in tasks of “duties and assignments”.

For the purpose of the examination of this hypothesis, t-tests for independent samples were performed, in which the independent variable was community type and the dependent variables were the time dedicated a week (in hours) for the performance of duties and assignments derived from the teaching role. A significant difference was found for one type of activity, as presented in the following table.

The next tables shows the differences in the weekly hours dedicated to different tasks according to community type.

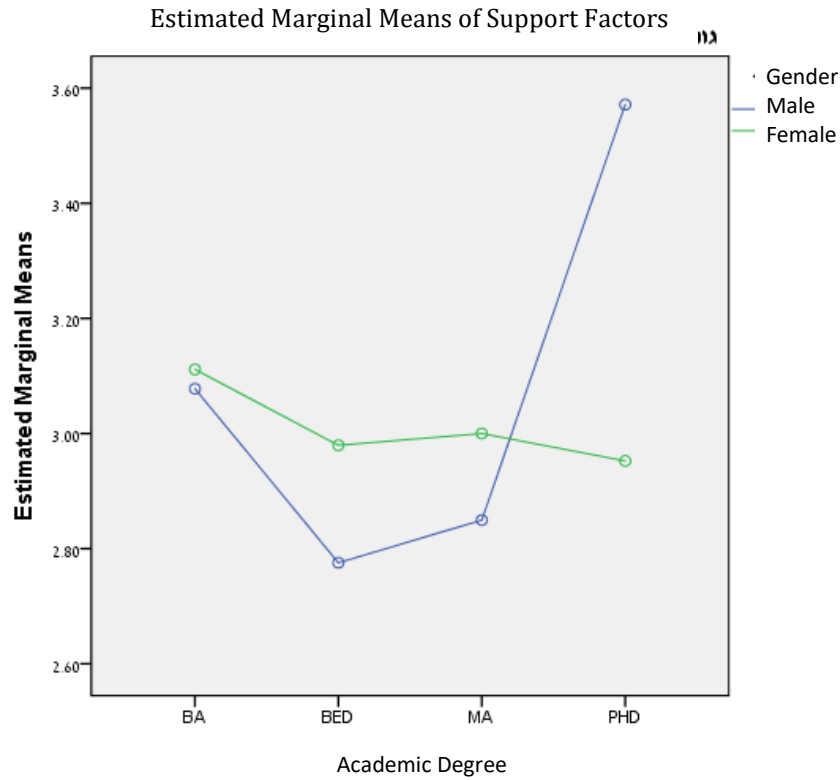
Table Number 23: Differences in the Weekly Hours Dedicated to Different Tasks
according to Community Type

	Community Type	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Statistical Test	Significance
Preparation of lessons	Rural	5.22 (3.6)	t(270)=-1.35	.17
	Urban	5.99 (5.27)		
Teaching in the classroom	Rural	16.23 (8.52)	t(269)=-1.44	.149
	Urban	17.21 (8.19)		
Inputting of information about the students	Rural	3.13 (0.67)	t(265)=-1.523	.129
	Urban	3.11 (0.54)		
Evaluation of papers	Rural	3.98 (2.72)	t(243.8)=-2.75	.006
	Urban	5.31 (4.99)		
Professional conversations with colleagues	Rural	3.23 (2.90)	t(265)=-0.668	.505
	Urban	3.4 (3.05)		
Professional meetings	Rural	2.93 (2.04)	t(268)=-1.667	.095
	Urban	3.46 (2.95)		

5. A joint influence of gender and education will be found on the support factors.

To examine the hypothesis, variance analysis test was performed with two independent variables, gender and academic degree. The model was not found to be significant ($F=0.757$, $p=.624$). So, the hypothesis should be rejected. The relevant figure is presented as follows.

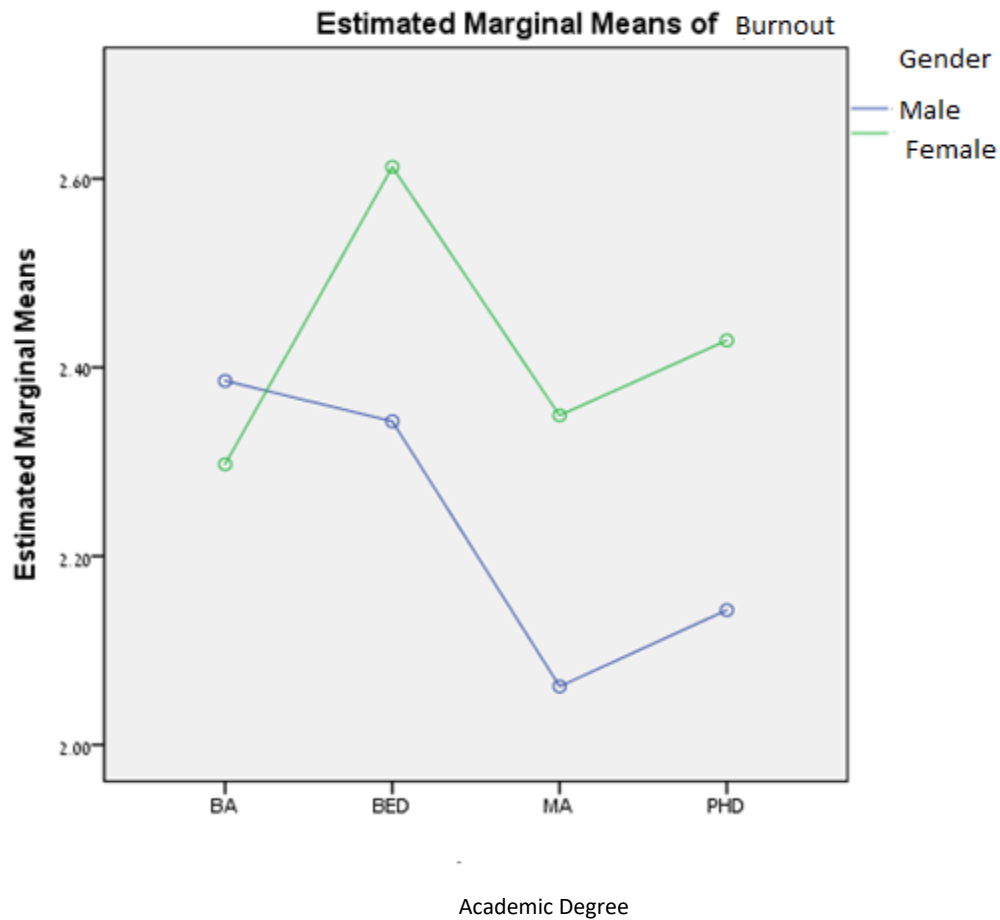
Figure Number 22: Joint Influence of Gender and Education on Support Factors



6. A joint influence of gender and education will be found on level of burnout.

To examine the hypothesis, variance analysis test was performed with two independent variables, gender and academic degree. The model was found close to significance ($F=1.962$, $p=.061$) both in the factor of education and in the factor of gender, and in the interaction between them significance was not found. The relevant figure is presented as follows.

Figure Number 23: Joint Influence of Gender and Education on Burnout



4. Summary of the Findings

First, it was found that the factors ranked by mean as having greater influence on the departure of the teachers are mental exhaustion, salary sum, lack of support on the part of the role-holders, health situation of the teachers, and lack of fit between the expectations from the profession and the reality. In addition, it was found that the factors that influence to the least extent on the teachers' departure are lack of supporting mentor for the novice teachers, poor student achievements, family reasons, heterogeneity of the learners, and class management.

In the continuation, it was found that there is a positive relationship between the factors of the departure from the teaching profession as described in the questionnaire and the respondents' level of professional burnout. In addition, it was found that the student-teacher relations influence positively the efficacy in teaching towards students with special needs.

Furthermore, gender differences were not found between the respondents in the research indices. Likewise, a difference between respondents from a community with a rural character and respondents from a community with an urban background was not found regarding the presence of support factors, when respondents with a community of a rural background reported many more support factors. In addition, a difference was found in the description of the teacher-student relations between variables with a different status when divorced respondents reported better relations than did married respondents.

Moreover, the participants' age was found to have a negative relationship with the index of factors to the departure of teaching profession, so that the teachers who are older tend to attribute less importance to the factors of departure. It was further found that teachers with greater experience in teaching tend also to ascribe lower importance to the possible factors of the departure. It is necessary to emphasize, as aforementioned, that a relationship was not found between the respondents' age and their professional burnout. In addition, a relationship was not found between the respondents' age and the level of presence of the support factors. Likewise, it was found that teachers who invest greater time in teaching in actuality are more burned out and less enjoy support factors.

Examination of the hypotheses found that on the basis of the present sample it is possible to argue that the teachers who work with youths at-risk in Israel suffer from professional burnout. In addition, it was found that the factors of the departure from the profession presented in the relevant questionnaire with a positive relationship with the respondents' level of burnout. A shared influence of gender, age, and teaching experience on the research variables was not found.

Examination of the additional hypotheses found that the unique contribution of the index of efficacy in the teaching has influence on the burnout. In addition, it was found that the time that the teachers from the urban community and the teachers from the rural community invest in the evaluation of papers is different, when the respondents from the urban community spend more time on this.

Examination of additional models found that joint influence of gender and education wasn't found on level of burnout. Moreover, joint influence of gender and education wasn't found on the support factors.

Qualitative Analysis

A total of 31 respondents participated in the research study, of which 64.5% are women and the rest are men. 80.6% are married, while 12.9% are single and the rest are divorced. The birth year of the respondents ranges from 1957 to 1993. 16.1% of the respondents reported that they work in a full-time position, and the remainder reported that they work in a two-thirds and more position. The respondents work in seven youth villages – Kanot, Ben Shemen, HaKfar HaYarok, Hadassim, Ayanot, and Hadassah Neurim. The respondents' experience ranges from 3 to 36 years.

1. Daily Routine of the Respondents

The daily routine of the respondents is different. Most of them come to the school at a regular hour: "I begin at eight o'clock. I teach between five and eight hours a day." (Interview 1); "I come in the morning, generally I do not have a lesson in the morning so I drink coffee, sit and talk a bit with teachers, ten minutes before the start of the lesson I prepare for the lesson" (Interview 23); "I come in the morning, prepare coffee, talk a bit with my work colleagues, and from there go to teach" (Interview 29). Others reports lessons outside of the school, given their subject: "I teach biology and agriculture, so that I most of the day am outside. I enjoy sitting with the children and talking with them and therefore for most of the hours I am found outside of the classroom. I do not have free or individualized hours. From the morning to the end of the work day I teach frontally and formally and sometimes also not formally" (Interview 28). In general, it is possible to summarize and say that most of the respondents have a regular work routine, which includes coming to the school at a certain hour, getting updated on what is happening, and making the final preparations for the lesson, after which they then teach at the regular hours.

2. Status of Teachers in Israel

The respondents were divided in their opinion about the status of teachers in Israel. 56.6% of the respondents maintained that the status of teachers in Israel is low.

25.8% of the respondents held that the status of teachers in Israel is intermediate, when it is important to note that some of the teachers who asserted that the teacher has an intermediate status did not describe this in a positive manner. Thus, for example, “a status that does not convey prestige, primarily women and not men” (Interview 27); “In general, the status of the teacher in Israel is steadily being eroded in the eyes of the public, although the government and the Ministry of Education are putting forth considerable effort to reward the teachers. But it is impossible to make such a generalization, it really depends on the regions of residence and type of education – urban, settlement, boarding school, and so on.” (Interview 17). In addition, some of the respondents divided the teacher’s status according to the teachers’ viewpoint and the rest of the public’s viewpoint: “In their own viewpoint, it is high, in society it is low” (Interview 20). 12.9% of the respondents maintained that the teachers’ status in Israel is average and above, high, or very high.

The respondents did not often comment on this question, but in general it can be seen that the respondents believe that the status of teachers in Israel is low, or lower than what is desired and what is correct in their opinion.

3. Satisfaction with the Job

In contrast to the previous question, it is very important to emphasize the finding according to which all the respondents reported that they are very satisfied with their work. Many respondents described for this question: “I get up with a smile to go to the school, enjoy the work with much love, the environment is a good and supportive environment” (Interview 28); “I am very satisfied with my job. The job has tremendous satisfaction from the students. I like to work more with the students than with the parents and the staff. All the students who say ‘I am stupid, and nothing will come from me’ and in the end they succeed – this is satisfaction” (Interview 20); “The work with youths at risk is work with special youths. The work inspires in me Zionism in its purpose and gives me satisfaction” (Interview 1); “The village that sees the child at the center and provides an answer for the child and the teacher, a place that provides personal growth for the teacher and lets you go wild in thoughts and does not stop you” (Interview 3). In

other words, it is possible to see from the respondents' descriptions that they are very satisfied with their work, when the reason for this includes their professional success. The respondents are satisfied that they succeed in causing the youths to understand, to know, and they feel that they are a positive influence on the youths. An exceptional answer was provided by a respondent who mentioned that she "is not satisfied with my job, I feel that I do not have the time for anything, I do not succeed in providing a solution, not for my students and not for the teachers who need me. Everything is very pressured and busy." (Interview 19)

4. Causes of Burnout

Regarding the causes of burnout, the respondents did not provide uniform answers. However, it is prominent in the analysis of their responses that they describe the problems of the synchronization of the system as influencing the teacher's burnout: "The synchronization of systems between the kitchen, the residence, the people of the villages, and so on" (Interview 9); "Work with the boarding school is difficult work, the lack of synchronization, different motives than in the school" (Interview 20); "Lack of synchronization causes burnout among the teachers" (Interview 25). Lack of synchronization was described by some of the respondents also as frequent changes that come from "above", from the education system: "new reforms and new programs that are released and make the work difficult" (Interview 8).

In addition, the multiplicity of roles was also mentioned. "The multiplicity of roles – does good and does not good. When there are no defined roles, then this contributes to burnout and also when there is no correct relationship between them" (Interview 19), "The multiplicity of roles – in my opinion it increases the burnout because you need to engage with many factors" (Interview 9). It is important to nevertheless note that some of the respondents maintained that the multiplicity of roles is positive: "The multiplicity of roles contributes to good educational activity" (Interview 1).

In general, it is necessary to note that the decisive majority of the respondents did not note factors that address the students but rather factors that address the education system in general and the coordination between teachers. In other words, the respondents hold for the most part that the students do not cause the teacher's burnout, and this statement is commensurate with the respondents' high satisfaction with their job.

In addition, it is important to note that all the respondents described that they know teachers who suffer from burnout. "Yes, I know a burned-out teacher. The work is not rewarding and they did not enjoy the work" (Interview 25); "I know a burned-out teacher. Crazy load and clerical work that is only steadily gaining momentum. Many roles and the new Courage to Change Reform." (Interview 27); "Certainly I know a burned-out teacher. Burnout exists because he came with a different dream, with a different belief, and the difficult work with these students did not realize the dreams for him and therefore he is burned-out mentally" (Interview 2). It is important to emphasize that not one of the respondents argued that he did not know a burned-out teacher.

5. Tips for Work in a Youth Village

All the respondents provided personal advice for workers in the youth village, the advice differed in phrasing but the reference to the students as worthy recurred a number of times. "To speak on their level, not to speak from 'up high', not with excessive arrogance, to speak only the truth, children like only the truth" (Interview 2); "It is very important to rise up with the students, to speak to them as equals" (Interview 7); "Everything on a personal basis, to create a personal relationship, to have full trust in the students, to cause them to understand that you want what is good for them" (Interview 9); "Not to be condescending but to give them the place they deserve" (Interview 31). In addition, advice to be humane was repeated: "Be a simple person, work from the heart, to succeed without pretentiousness and unnecessary arrogance" (Interview 14); "The method of carrot and stick – on the one hand to embrace the student and empower him, but on the other hand to set clear boundaries" (Interview 4). In addition, it was recommended to invest in conversations: "Many personal conversations, considerable

reinforcement, much display of empathy. To speak with them as equals and to share with them your difficulties that you are also like them, human” (Interview 15).

It is important to note that the respondents described their ability to deal with students with different characteristics as high or very high. Most of them did not provide details, but a few, like interviewee 20, added that “I have a good ability to deal with challenging students” (Interview 20).

6. Values as a Teacher

The respondents described the teachers’ values differently, but in most of them it was prominent that the teacher must constitute a personal example “Personal example, love of the country, love of humankind, giving, and curiosity” (Interview 8), “Personal example and compassion” (Interview 9); believe in the students “To believe in the students and to show them that they will know that you believe in them and then they will do the work for you. High motivation, emotions” (Interview 2), “To believe in the children to know to get from every child the maximum that he can as much as possible” (Interview 2); and be giving “giving as a supreme value” (Interview 8). In general, it is possible to summarize and see from the respondents’ results that in their opinion the teacher must have great belief in humanity in general and in the students in particular. In addition, he is required to believe in his power to positively influence the students and he must believe that this can be done through the view of the students as equals and the presentation of a personal example.

7. Respondents’ Burnout according to a Scale

The respondents were asked to rank their degree of burnout from 1 (minimum burnout) to 10 (maximum burnout). The respondents for the most part reported a low degree of burnout, when the mean is 3.06³. In addition, the highest degree of burnout is 7,

³ For this calculation, the respondent’s answer of ‘6-7’ was changed to 6.5

reported by one respondent, who was not satisfied with her job. The respondent noted that “I feel burned out. I want to give and to give and in actuality nothing is working out for me” (Interview 19).

8. Recommendation for Teachers to Work in a Youth Village

Most of the respondents noted that the work in the youth village does not suit every teacher; rather only the teachers who are built for this in terms of their abilities: “I would recommend only to teachers who understand that this is different work, a teacher who knows to teach and who has a ‘social bug’” (Interview 4); “I would recommend only to a teacher who has the traits suited to work with such youths” (Interview 5); “Only suitable teachers” (Interview 26). Other respondents would recommend to all teachers to work in youth villages. It is important to note that their opinion is in the minority: “I would recommend since this is a place like a home for the students, in this place the students appreciate the teacher and there is a possibility of working and changing in the student things in comparison to other schools” (Interview 7); “Very much. I would recommend to teachers since this is work that involves the soul, it is possible to make a great change in students. The teacher is meaningful there and regardless of the role every teacher simply can make a change in the child” (Interview 14). It is important to note that even the teacher who described herself as burned out and not satisfied with her job recommended that all teachers work in a youth village. “I would recommend since this is a place like a home for the students, in this place the students appreciate the teacher and it is possible to work and to change among the students things in comparison to other schools” (Interview 19).

9. Causes of Leaving the Profession

The respondents were unanimous that the load and lack of conditions significantly affected the teachers and caused some of them to leave the field of teaching: “Factors for leaving the profession – load, crowded systems, lack of self-fulfillment” (Interview 7); “Lack of physical conditions, crowded systems” (Interview 13); “Lack of interest in the

profession, physical conditions” (Interview 21); “Load and money and exhaustion” (Interview 19).

Three respondents noted violence among the other reasons for leaving the profession: “Lack of interest in the profession, lack of professional advancement, violence” (Interview 12); “Lack of interest in the profession, lack of professional advancement, violence” (Interview 14); “Money, violence, physical and mental exhaustion, lack of professional advancement” (Interview 21). Hence, it is possible to conclude that most of the respondents described in actuality that the students are not to blame for the teachers’ departure from the field of teaching. Rather the responsible party is mainly the education system, which does not provide appropriate conditions and a possibility for self-fulfillment, in addition also the teacher’s general status has an impact on this.

Discussion and Conclusions

The present research addresses the phenomenon of the burnout of the teachers in Israel in general and in the youth villages in particular. Teachers in youth villages are widely exposed for burnout since they cope with youth at risk, which challenge their psychological resources in a way that demands from them more than they can provide. Therefore, this process leads to difficulties for teachers in adopting coping strategies that would assist them to handle their profession. Burnout is defined as continuous emotional pressures and depletion of the employee's coping resources that occur as a result of a prolonged exposure to pressures at work and in life (Shirom, 1994). I chose to focus on the educational youth villages that work with youths at-risk. The research study was undertaken in a mixed methods research of quantitative research and qualitative research. It was important to me to examine the level of burnout of the teachers in actuality in the youth villages and to see the factors of burnout in the teachers' eyes and whether this is commensurate with the professional literature that belongs to the regular education system.

In Israel there are about sixty (60) youth villages that are distinct from one another according to the population of the adolescents, the physical size of the village, and the resources at its disposal. The youth village is the leading prototype of the model of the educational boarding school in Israel. This is an original creation of the Israeli educational system, which does not exist in other places in the world. The inspiration for its implementation is taken from the model of the kibbutz and from the educational ideas that were developed in the kibbutz's movement. The main ideas at the basis of this boarding school model are:

1. The creation of a social framework that can include and educate the youths who come from a different cultural background, when their common denominator is the need for a residential, outside of the home framework.
2. The creation of balance between education and the realization of social objectives abilities and personal capabilities that fulfill the individual's self-realization.

3. The creation of an educating community, which cares for and presents the students with normative educational challenges for those their age, which enable the youths to act and be partners in the management of their life routine (Gropper, 2004).

The main question was whether the burnout of the teachers in the youth villages causes them to drop out from the education system. According to the results presented in this study, the different factors of the departure from the profession are the significant factor of the dropping out from the education system. This result is in line with previous studies that showed teachers with high burnout has higher probability to dropout from the education system. For example, Gray and Taie (2015) reported that, among all beginning teachers in the United States from 2007 to 2008, 17% left the profession during their first 5 years. In addition, Evans and Williams (1989) found that the majority (80%) of male teachers in the United Kingdom were thinking of quitting their profession. More recently, Mäkelä et al. (2014a) found that 39% of Finnish PE teachers were considering leaving the teaching profession, even though their profession is highly regarded in Finland, while Mäkelä and Whipp (2015) reported that 40% of Australian PE teachers intended to leave the profession.

Several studies have also found that burnout significantly mediates the relationship between various job stressors and work withdrawal behavior (Richards et al., 2016). Thus, stress could accentuate psychological depletion (teacher emotional exhaustion), causing counterproductive work behavior in teachers' turnover, absenteeism, and poor work quality. Studies demonstrated that employees' emotional exhaustion significantly mediated the relationship between surface acting and turnover intention (Goodwin et al., 2011).

It is important to note that a significant factor was not found in a specific way but only on the general level. In addition, differences were not found between the different groups, such as age, teaching experience, and gender. It is possible to see that the findings are commensurate with the review of the literature, as can be seen that one-third of the new teachers drop out at the end of their third year and about 15% drop out already in their first year (Sperling, 2015). In addition, according to the Central Bureau of

Statistics, it is possible to see that about 40% of the teachers drop out of the system within five years of their entry into the role. As Cooper and Marshall (1980) presented in their research, there are six factors of stress at work, and it can be seen that the accumulation of the factors are what cause the dropping out and not a specific factor that can be predicted. Apparently, it is necessary to find a balance between all the factors, and the focus on one specific topic is not sufficient.

In a broader context, teachers who experience higher levels of burnout tend to withdraw from student–teacher relationships and tend to feel inefficacious about their teaching tasks. As a result, they may face more problems in classroom management with regard to students’ behaviors. Burnout teachers might feel emotionally exhausted. Exhaustion or depersonalization might interfere with effectiveness. When a person feels exhausted or indifferent toward serving or helping people, it is difficult to gain a sense of accomplishment (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006).

The first hypothesis that belongs to the main research question is that the teachers who work with youths at-risk in Israel suffer from professional burnout. According to table number 11, the teachers in the research study suffer from burnout significantly; in other words, this hypothesis was confirmed. The first hypothesis addressed the basic assumption upon which the research was based, so that the basic assumption was confirmed, and therefore the data in the research enable us to draw conclusions about the coping with burnout and the attempt to prevent the dropping out of teachers in the continuation. According to Gavish and Friedman (2007), teachers feel difficult feelings of professional failure and erosion of the sense of professional efficacy, sometimes even before they began their position. In addition, Adoniou (2013) in his research study found that novice teachers considered leaving since they struggled to be the teachers they predicted that they would be. Another reason was the lack of fit between the supports offered to them and what they imagined about the teaching profession and what is considered good teaching.

The findings in this research which were found among teachers in youth villages, are in line with previous studies Burnout syndrome is frequently used in order to account

for physical and psychological issues related to human service professionals such as teachers, nurses, social workers, etc. Teaching is one of the most hotly-debated domains prone to burnout. According to a leading voice in teacher burnout research, teacher burnout is a multidimensional construct with three related constructs: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005).

Another question in the research study was whether teachers experience burnout and to what extent. In light of the first hypothesis, we see that the teachers do indeed experience burnout. The result is a mean of 2.5 on the scale of 5, but the burnout was found to be significant. The mean is the median on the scale, thus indicating relatively reasonable burnout. This can indicate that the teaching profession is fundamentally a profession that causes burnout and that it is necessary to strengthen the different factors so as to prevent this burnout from becoming the dropping out from the system. However, in the qualitative analysis it was found that the teachers indicate a low level of burnout (mean of 3.06 on a scale of 1-10) and satisfaction with work. These numbers seems to be very similar to Tatar & Horenczyk (2003) results, so the first conclusion about this is that teacher's burnout doesn't change too much by decades

Therefore, it was necessary to hypothesize that the burnout is associated with age, gender, or education level. For instance, as the teacher is older, her level of burnout is higher. In the research study, we found that there is no significant relationship between any one of the parameters and burnout. Thus, we did not succeed in confirming the hypothesis and even disconfirmed it. Table number 7 shows that teachers who are older tend to ascribe less importance to the factors of departure and that as the experience in teaching is greater, they attribute less importance to the possible factors of departure. It is possible to explain this finding in that the teachers with great experience represent exposure to previous experiences, which enable the individual to have a broader repertoire of better coping responses (Cherniss, 1980). In addition, a number of researchers indicated a relationship between the number of classes that the teacher teaches and the scope of her position in the school and her level of burnout (Benevene & Fiorilli, 2015; Fiorilli et al., 2015). In the Ministry of Education, there are teachers with

great experience, and from the age of fifty they are eligible for a benefit called age hours. This benefit grants the preservation of rights along with the reduction of the hours of learning in actuality and the reduction of the study classes and the shortening of the work day. It is possible that because of these conditions and the adjustment over the years to different principals, changing reforms, and many classes of students the experienced teachers have developed immunity to the different parameters of burnout. However, the experienced teachers also indicate the burnout as we saw in the previous hypothesis but apparently with them the consideration to leave the system early is smaller because of their closeness to the eligibility to go to pension with all the benefits. This component apparently is the most reasonable explanation that a negative relationship was found between the influence of the factors on the desire to drop out and burnout.

Another hypothesis we examined is whether there is a relationship between the different factors of support and burnout. We did not succeed in confirming the hypothesis, as table number 16 shows. Significant differences were not found that show a relationship between the factors of support. The lack of significance raises the following question. What is the factor that contributes to the prevention of burnout or in the continuation even the dropping out of teachers from teaching? If we address the four main factors of Friedman that lead to burnout and address the nature of the work, the lack of recognition and poor social support, the inadequate work conditions, and the personal characteristics and primarily to the two factors of the nature of the work and the social support, which were measured in factors of support, we would expect that there be influence on the index of teacher burnout. However, it is possible to understand that apparently it is difficult to significantly measure the main factor of each one of the four and that it is difficult to find significance only of some of them.

Burnout in teaching can derive from many factors, and therefore we hypothesized that in addition a positive relationship would be found between the factors of the departure from the teaching profession and burnout. In a research study, the teachers were asked to note on a Likert scale of 1-5 the different factors that are known in the research literature. It is possible to see according to table number 17 that indeed the different factors as a whole were found to be significantly and positively related to

burnout. However, a very low percentage of variance was found, and therefore it is not possible to find the essential factor that influences the teachers' burnout. The findings support the extensive review of the literature performed. In all of them, there is reference to different data that influence the burnout and not one of them succeeded in finding the most essential factor. It is very hard to isolate the central component that causes burnout and to neutralize it. However, there is no doubt that as researchers (Arviv-Eliashiv & Zimmerman, 2016; Prizker & Dorit, 2010) maintained, there are many different factors of the teachers' departure, including difficulties in the coping with the role requirements, multiplicity of the tasks, lack of professional support, school climate, and so on. In addition, the results of the qualitative research found overwhelmingly that the load and the lack of conditions significantly influence and even cause in part the departure from the field of teaching. In addition, there are teachers who noted the topic of violence, if this is towards the staff or towards the students, which belongs to the topic of the sense of protection in the work environment. The primary component that arose among the respondents is a component that belongs to the conditions of the system and the feeling of self-realization and does not belong at all to the students themselves. It is important to emphasize that these factors are about to be similar in Israel and other countries of Western world (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). As Studies in different cultures show that measures of teacher burnout predict both subjective and objective health as well as teachers' motivation and job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010), these results hat so often factors of teachers burnout seems to be same.

The third question in the research study was how do the teachers who teach youths at-risk perceive the teaching profession and their role as teachers. In the results of the interviews, it is possible to see that the teachers refer to the status of the teachers in Israel as a low-intermediate status. They do not see or think that there is prestige in the profession in society's eyes, , just like Bogler (2005) argues. The fact that in current research all teachers work at youth villages is important and show that there is no difference between auto-prestige of teachers profession at youth villages and other schools. However, in their personal perception they rank the importance of the teaching as a high status in society. It is possible to see therefore the hidden dissonance among the

teachers. They perceive their role as an important role in society while society conveys a different attitude. It is possible to see in their responses to satisfaction with work the importance they ascribe to the profession. They view as important the students' success, the promotion and help of the student in different areas. The residential schools in the research study are educational residential schools, thus indicating that these are students who were assessed as having normal functioning or slightly impaired development and have high potential to advance their situation. In recent years, they are characterized by a background of distress (low socio-economic group) (Benbenishty & Zaira, 2008).). It seems that this conclusion is global and right about most of the teachers in Western world.

The youth village model is based on the socializing power of a cohesive community, with kibbutz community life as its ideal. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory, according to which children's development is not influenced only by the microsystem, could serve to analyze and explain the elements of the youth village model. Hence, even more important are influences by persons acting on the macro-system level, and the development of a child is the end product of all these different activities. Indeed, in the youth village the entire environment participates in the educational process, including those who interact face-to-face with the child on the micro level and also those acting on the other ecological levels. The Israeli residential education system are organized in a relatively large network which allows each institution to act autonomously, while enabling the network as a whole to set general educational orientations and apply across-the-board policy changes. In this setting, the role of the teacher is extremely important and the relationship with every student is crucial. To enable every member of the community to feel at ease, the community is based on pluralistic and multicultural values. The youth population is composed of new immigrants from varied cultural backgrounds. Other members of the community are Israeli-born adolescents who come from the geographical and socio-cultural periphery. Creating a sense of belonging (Brendtro, Brokenleg, & Van Bockern, 1990) in such a community is possible only if staff members apply a true and genuine culturally pluralistic attitude, which can happen only if the prevailing atmosphere emphasizes the

importance of every individual finding their place in such a community. The teacher has to capture all this diversity and find the right approach to reach every child.

In addition to the questions that were asked, additional hypotheses were examined, and the examination of these hypotheses found that the unique contribution of the index of efficacy in teaching has impact on the burnout. This finding is commensurate with the assertions of researchers about the influence of the burnout on the dropping out (Ingersoll, 2001). It appears that when the teachers feel burnout they feel lack of efficacy in teaching, thus leading them to leave the practice of teaching.

Furthermore, it was found that the time that the teachers from an urban community and the teachers from a rural community invest in the evaluation of the papers is different, when the respondents from the urban community do this for a longer period of time. This is a topic that has not yet been researched in-depth, and therefore this is the primary finding on this topic.

The findings of this research stress the the importance of coping with teachers' stressors in order to reduce burnout and turnover intentions. These trends are familiar both in previous research and from my personal experience. For example, studies show that the first years in the teaching profession are important in determining whether a beginning teacher will remain in the profession and for his or her subsequent professional development (Rots, Aelterman, Vlerick, & Vermeulen., 2007). The first period as a teacher is demanding for most people. Such a demanding working situation may generate intentions to leave the teaching profession. Indeed, there are high levels of attrition among newcomers to school teaching in several countries (Ingersoll, et al., 2014).

From my professional experience, one of the ways to reduce turnover is to increase trust between teachers and manager. Teachers who trust their principal are less likely to have thoughts about leaving their profession or workplace. According to Bryk and Schneider (2002), relational trust in the context of schools is a mutual and multifaceted form of social exchange between individuals. This exchange-relation is characterized by respect, competence, personal regard for others, and integrity in order to

serve both personal and organizational aims. Even though the relation between a teacher and his or her principal is asymmetrical regarding power, there is still a mutual vulnerability. On the one hand, a teacher can undermine his or her school's goals and impede organizational development. On the other hand, the principal does make a number of decisions that affect teachers directly. This result emphasizes the importance of establishing professional and respectful relationships between principals and new employees.

In addition, burnout of teachers can be reduced through increasing affective commitment (Meyer et al., 1993), which predicts lower teachers' turnover intentions. This finding highlights how teachers' lack of feeling that they belong to their schools generates their intentions to leave their schools or the profession at large. Moreover, this finding underlines the power affective facets do have on individuals' intentions (Hong, 2010), as well as how important relationships are between employees and their schools for beginning teachers' professional commitment and growth. Similar to the aforementioned findings, this finding has implications for work climate, staff support, and human relations in schools. Especially in youth villages, where the work demands are very high, it is a major challenge for managers to develop high teachers' commitment.

Recommendations

To conclude, the current study examined the burnout phenomenon among teachers in youth villages in Israel. Results show that teachers in this setting are in high risk for burnout, mostly due to the intense relationship with students and the great demands they face. Following these results, I suggest for these policy recommendations to be implemented by policy makers.

First, due to high burnout among teachers, it is very important for educational staff to undergo workshops in which they will learn how to cope with professional and personal stressors. These workshops must be an integral part of their professional training in order to increase resilience.

Second, it is important that every beginning teacher will have a mentor (senior teacher) that could assist him/her in building the educational capacities.

Third, in order for teachers to feel less anxious, they must have a significant support network in their school. Hence, the manager and team leaders must have a continuous communication with teachers and assist them in every problem. In addition, this network has to assist teachers to build better communication with students and parents.

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Appendices

Appendix Number 1: Questionnaire

Research Questionnaire on the Burnout of Teaching Workers as a Factor Predicting Teacher Attrition

Personal and Occupational Factors and Ways of Coping in Work with Adolescents At-Risk in Youth Villages in Israel

My name is Vered Azulay, and in the framework of my doctoral studies at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, Poland I am performing a research study that examines the burnout of teachers in their work with at-risk youth.

I would be grateful if you could dedicate some of your time to answering this questionnaire. I believe that as a teacher you have valuable knowledge that can contribute to our understanding of the teacher's role, as well as the attitudes and approaches that guide you in your work.

The objective of the research study is to understand the motives behind teacher attrition and the ways of coping with this process. The answers to this questionnaire are anonymous and will be used solely for the purposes of research. Please answer the questions directly and as accurately as possible. The questionnaires are phrased in the masculine but are intended equally for women and men.

The hypothesized time of response to the questionnaire is fifteen minutes.

If you have any question about the questionnaire or about the research study, please contact me at: Veredn0@walla.com.

Thank you very much for your willingness to fill out the questionnaire and for devoting your time to this task.

Best regards,

Vered Azulay

Personal Information

1. Sex:
 - A. Male
 - B. Female
2. Gender:
 - A. Male
 - B. Female
 - C. Other
3. Status:
 - A. Married
 - B. Divorced
 - C. Other
4. Year of Birth: _____
5. Teaching Experience: _____
6. Academic degree:
 - A. B.A.
 - B. M.A
 - C. B.Ed.
 - D. Ph.D.
7. Youth Village Where You Work: _____
8. Percentage of Position in Teaching
 - A. Less than one-third of a position
 - B. One-third to two-thirds of a position (not including)
 - C. Two-thirds of a position and above

School Characteristics

Please circle the characteristics that suit the youth village where you work. If you work in a number of schools, then please address the youth village where you work the most hours.

1. Sector
 - A. Jewish
 - B. Arab
2. Supervision
 - A. State
 - B. State religious
 - C. Arab
3. Community Characteristics:
 - A. Rural
 - B. Urban

4. School Structure:
 - A. Four Year
 - B. Six Year
5. Total number of students in your school: _____

Role Description: Duties and Tasks

Please evaluate on the average how much time a week you spend on the following tasks.

1. Preparing lesson: _____
2. Teaching in the class: _____
3. Typing in information about the students in the school computerized system (Mashov⁴, etc.): _____
4. Assessment of student work and tests: _____
5. Occasional professional conversations with fellow teachers: _____
6. Professional meetings planned with fellow teachers (for example, staff meetings): _____
7. Performance of intervention actions regarding student discipline problems: _____
8. Meeting with a counselor / psychologist of a school: _____
9. Filling out official forms regarding students: _____
10. Participation in student enrichment activities in the school framework: _____
11. Organization of student enrichment activities in the school framework: _____
12. Participation in professional training: _____
13. Personal conversations with students: _____
14. Personal conversations with students' parents: _____
15. Online communication with the students' parents: _____
16. Home visits: _____

⁴ MASHOV is an acronym in Hebrew meaning Immediacy, Transparency, and Control. The Hebrew word means feedback. It is a system of Internet school management operating in many schools and education institutions in Israel.

Field of Teaching

1. Which aspects in your work with youths at-risk give you a sense of satisfaction?

2. Which aspects in your work with youths at-risk give you a sense of lack of satisfaction?

3. Why did you choose to work with youths at-risk?

4. To what extent during your work did you receive help from each one of the factors:

	Very Little	Little	Some	Greatly	Very Greatly	Not Relevant
Principal (village, boarding school, school)						
Role-holders (deputy, coordinator)						
Colleagues (Teaching Staff)						
Counselor						
Supervisor						
Tutor (as an Intern)						
Instructor						

5. Reasons for teacher attrition: Please note three main reasons that caused you to leave the teaching profession:

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

6. Teachers decide to leave the teaching profession for different reasons. The list before you presents a number of possibilities. Please note the extent to which each one of these reasons influenced your decision to leave the teaching profession.

	Very Little	Little	Some	Greatly	Very Greatly	Not Relevant
Burden of tasks						
Lack of support from the professional colleagues						
Lack of professional support in the school						
Distance from the workplace						
Coping with discipline problems						
Many work hours						
Lack of support from the principal						
Lack of support on the part of the role-holders						
Difficulties in relationships with the students' parents						
Salary						
Number of learners in the class						
Lack of self-fulfillment						
Lack of influence on the curriculum						
Low appreciation on the part of the students						
Mental exhaustion						
Lack of suitability between the expectations from the profession and the reality						
Health situation (mine or my family's)						

Heterogeneity of the learners						
Class management						
Desire to engage in another profession						
Physical exhaustion						
Lack of professional development						
Family reasons (marriage, birth, etc.)						
Lack of fit between the curriculum and what happens in actuality in the class						
Lack of channels of advancement						
Low student achievements						
High orientation of the teaching on the national tests (meitzav) or international tests (PISA, TIMMS).						
For novice teachers: lack of support mentor						

7. The following table presents statements in which the teachers describe their relations with their students. Please indicate for every statement the degree to which you agree with it.

	Very Little	Little	Some	Greatly	Very Greatly	Not Relevant
I address my students as if I am their parent.						
I attempt to speak with each one of my students personally, at least once a day.						
My responsibility regarding my students continues after the school hours.						
I focus primarily on the teaching of my profession.						
My interactions with my students are connected primarily to the subject I teach.						
My system of relations with the students is based on a personal relationship.						
My students know that I am always available for them.						

8. How do you evaluate your abilities to successfully cope with students with different characteristics? Please note the column that reflects your opinion.

	Very successful	Successful	Not successful	Not successful at all	Cannot evaluate
Students with learning difficulties					
Students with attention deficit disorders					
Students with discipline problems					
Violent students					
Absent students					
Students who themselves do not speak the language spoke in the school					
Students who do not participate in the studies					
Students from a poor socioeconomic background					
Students who come from a family in crisis					
Students with physical disability					
Students on the autistic spectrum					
Students who lack motivation					
Gifted students					
Students of parents who avoid a relationship with the school					
Students of aggressive parents					
Students whose parents do not speak the language spoken in the school					

The statements before you predict burnout. Please note the extent to which you identify with the following statements.

	Greatly agree	Agree	Do not agree	Do not agree at all	Not relevant
I feel that the teaching is difficult for me physically.					
I feel “drained” from the teaching work.					
I feel that my students do not try in the studies as required.					
I feel that in teaching I do not fulfill myself.					
I feel that it is not so important for my students to prove themselves as good students.					
I feel “totaled” at the end of the school day.					
I feel that in another profession, not teaching, I would better use my abilities.					
I feel that teaching makes me tired.					
I think that I would again choose teaching if it were possible for me to begin my professional life anew.					
I feel that as a teacher I am not sufficiently advancing in life.					
I feel that my students do not want to learn that much.					
I feel that the teaching drains me.					
I think that I would want better students than I have now.					
I feel that my expectations from teaching are not realized.					

Appendix Number 2: Questionnaire with Open-Ended Questions

Research Questionnaire on the Burnout of Teaching Workers as a Factor Predicting Teacher Attrition

Personal and Occupational Factors and Ways of Coping in Work with Adolescents At-Risk in Youth Villages in Israel

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I would be grateful if you could dedicate some of your time to answering this questionnaire. I believe that as a teacher you have valuable knowledge that can contribute to our understanding of the teacher's role, as well as the attitudes and approaches that guide you in your work.

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The hypothesized time of response to the questionnaire is fifteen minutes.

If you have any question about the questionnaire or about the research study, please contact me at: Veredn0@walla.com.

Thank you very much for your willingness to fill out the questionnaire and for devoting your time to this task.

Best regards,

Vered Azulay

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 - B. Female
2. Gender:
 - A. Male
 - B. Female
 - C. Other
3. Status:
 - A. Married
 - B. Divorced
 - C. Other
4. Year of Birth: _____
5. Teaching Experience: _____
6. Academic degree:
 - A. B.A.
 - B. M.A
 - C. B.Ed.
 - D. Ph.D.
7. Youth Village Where You Work: _____
8. Percentage of Position in Teaching
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Please circle the characteristics that suit the youth village where you work. If you work in a number of schools, then please address the youth village where you work the most hours.

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 - B. Arab
2. Supervision
 - A. State
 - B. State religious
 - C. Arab
3. Community Characteristics:
 - A. Rural
 - B. Urban
4. School Structure:
 - A. Four Year
 - B. Six Year

5. Total number of students in your school: _____

Field of Teaching

1. Describe the daily routine in your work.
2. How many years have you been a teacher? 1-5, 5-10, 10-15, 15-20, 20-30
3. What do you think the status of teachers in Israel?
High / medium / low
4. Since when you work in a youth village in Israel?
5. Do you feel satisfied in your work? Yes / No? Explain why
6. Note three factors for the erosion of teachers working in youth villages in Israel.
7. Do you know a teacher who is burnout? If you do, in your opinion, why was it burnout?
8. Do you know a good practice for teachers working with youth at risk in youth villages in Israel?
9. How do you appraise your abilities to deal successfully with students who have different characteristics?
10. What values do you believe you should have for a teacher working in youth villages?
11. Does the fact that the youth villages in Israel have a multiplicity of roles (manager of the boarding school, manager of the village, instructors, custodian, social workers, etc.) influence the burnout?
12. Does the fact that the youth villages have a boarding school where the students live strengthen or weaken the burnout?
13. How do you define yourself as a teacher on the scale of burnout?
14. In what are you proud of your work?
15. Would you recommend to teachers to work in a youth village? Yes / No explain why.
16. In your opinion, what is the main reason why teachers leave the teaching profession (self-fulfillment, money, social interests, Violence, lack of interest in the profession, exhaustion, overload others...)?
17. Do you have any comments or enlightenment or examples to add?

Thank you very much for your cooperation.