Elementary School Teachers' Beliefs and Emotions:

Implications for School Counselors and Counselor Educators

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Abstract

An understanding of teacher beliefs and emotions is invaluable for school counselors developing comprehensive counseling programs. This study explored the relationships among elementary school teachers' beliefs and emotions. Teachers (n = 42) completed surveys related to efficacy beliefs, irrational beliefs, and emotions. Significant relationships were found among the variables under investigation. Implications for how these findings translate to practice for school counselors and counselor educators are addressed. Suggestions for future research are explored.

Keywords: school counseling, teacher beliefs, irrational beliefs, efficacy beliefs, emotions

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Implications for School Counselors and Counselor Educators

School counselors play integral roles in working with teachers to foster student success (ASCA, 2005). Consultation, collaboration, coordination, and assessment services are among the many responsibilities maintained by school counselors. The success of these services is dependent upon the strength of the relationships between school counselors and teachers (Schmidt, 2008). Productive personal and professional relationships afford school counselors insight into teachers lived experiences. By understanding teachers' thoughts and feelings, school counselors are better equipped to support the work that teachers do (Warren, 2010a, 2010b). School counselors can also advocate for students by encouraging teachers to address beliefs and emotions that may present as barriers to student success (ASCA, 2005, p.24).

Over the last four decades, many studies have explored teacher beliefs (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1983; Pauly, & Zellman, 1977; Simmons, Emory, Carter, Coker, Finnegan, Crockett, & Labuda, 1999; Snider & Roehl, 2007). Two specific types of beliefs extensively studied are efficacy beliefs and irrational beliefs. Findings from many of the studies investigating teacher self-efficacy have suggested these thoughts are significantly related to teacher performance and student achievement (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1983; Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977; Prieto-Ursua & Bermejo-Toro, 2005; McCormick and Ayres, 2009; Raudenbush, Rowan, & Cheong, 1992). Additionally, these studies suggested teacher training and preparedness, available resources, and numerous other environmental factors largely determined teacher efficacy beliefs. However, these studies failed to adequately discern the

influence teachers can have on their efficacy beliefs. Instead, researchers focused on ways extrinsic influences impact teacher efficacy beliefs.

Recent research of efficacy beliefs only opens more avenues for exploration (Haverback, 2010; Huang, Liu, & Shiomi, 2007; Poulou, 2007; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Takahashi, 2011). For example, Haverback (2010) suggested extrinsic factors (i.e., teaching experience, training, etc.) may not influence efficacy beliefs as greatly as Bandura (1977) once posited. Bandura (1977) theorized that mastery experiences largely determined efficacy beliefs; however, Haverback (2010) found high efficacy beliefs among pre-service teachers with little experience.

Furthermore, a study by Takahashi (2011) found teachers develop and maintain beliefs of their ability based on collective experiences and unspoken messages in their school. As the beliefs of the collective group change, so do the beliefs of individual teachers. This relationship between teachers' beliefs and the collective group offers possibilities for shaping and molding the beliefs of teachers (Takahashi, 2011). Past and current research therefore demonstrates the need for further exploration of efficacy beliefs and how these beliefs impact teachers' responses to classroom situations.

Numerous studies have also explored teacher irrational beliefs (Bermejo-Toro & Prieto-Ursua, 2006; Forman & Forman, 1980; Nucci, 2006; Warren, 2010b; Zingle & Anderson, 1990). The findings of these studies suggested that irrational beliefs lead to unhealthy emotions thus hindering teacher performance. For example, teachers that lack awareness of thoughts and emotions often have difficulties responding to adverse student behaviors (Long, 2010). However, teachers have responded favorably to interventions aimed at reducing irrational beliefs (Neves de Jesus & Conboy, 2001;

Warren, 2010b, 2010c, 2011). Warren (2010b), for example, found teachers experienced fewer irrational thoughts after a series of training and consultation sessions focused on reducing irrational beliefs. Teachers participating in this type of consultation indicated that challenging irrational beliefs led to stress reduction and enhanced relationships (Warren, 2011). As theorized by Ellis (1962, 1996, 2005), research findings have suggested that decreasing irrational beliefs leads to healthier expressions of emotions and more functional classroom behaviors among teachers (Warren, 2010b, 2011).

Inasmuch, school counselors and counselor educators should be privy to current research on teacher irrational beliefs. School counselors must be prepared to work toward developing initiatives that support the well-being of teachers. By working closely with teachers, school counselors can impact student success and enhance academic achievement (Sink, 2008).

Irrational beliefs and efficacy beliefs are considered separate and independent beliefs in theory and research. Walen, DiGiuseppe, and Dryden (1992) submitted that these beliefs are not related. However, Warren and Baker (2012), describing cognitive behavioral school counselor consultation, theorized that efficacy beliefs and irrational beliefs can converge. When studying the impact of school counselor consultation, Warren (2010b) found a link between inferential thought patterns; specifically efficacy beliefs and irrational beliefs. However, limited theoretical and empirical support for these relationships exists. Additionally, more research is needed on teacher beliefs and their relationship with emotions. It is imperative for school counselors and counselor educators to be aware of the relationships between teachers' beliefs and emotions.

School counselors can utilize this knowledge to impact student success through consultation and collaboration as outlined in the ASCA National Model (ASCA, 2005).

Irrational Beliefs and Negative Emotions

Ellis (1962) suggested that people are predisposed to think irrationally. Irrational beliefs are non-preferential, dogmatic evaluations of adverse situations (Dryden, 2003). "Students *should* do what I say and it's *terrible* when they don't" is an example of an irrational belief. Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT; Ellis, 1962) posits that irrational beliefs lead to emotional disturbances. These emotional disturbances are more commonly called unhealthy negative emotions (UNE; Dryden, 2003, 2009). Emotions such as depression, anxiety, and stress are considered UNE and ultimately lead to dysfunctional behaviors (Dryden, 2003, 2009; Ellis & MacLaren, 2005).

Bermejo-Toro and Prieto-Ursua (2006) explored the relationship between teacher irrational beliefs and level of distress. The findings suggested irrational beliefs and emotional distress were significantly related, thus supporting the theoretical position of REBT. A strong positive correlation was found between irrational beliefs and depression and stress. Further investigation of the relationships between teacher irrational beliefs and unhealthy negative emotions is needed. More empirical information in these areas is likely to improve how school counselors work with teachers on topics related to classroom management, working with diverse student groups and overall student achievement.

Efficacy Beliefs and Negative Emotions

Perceived self-efficacy is one's belief in their ability to complete a goal or task (Bandura, 1997). Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) posits that efficacy beliefs are

influenced by personal experience, vicarious learning, persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy beliefs are inferential in nature. An inference is an interpretation of an event that extends beyond verifiable data (Dryden, 2003). Dryden (2003) suggested that critical inferences, such as perceived inability to complete a task, most often leads to emotional disturbances. Bandura (1977, 1997) also suggested a relationship between efficacy beliefs and feelings of stress and anxiety. McCormick and Ayres (2009) supported these iterations in an exploration of teacher efficacy and occupational stress. Efficacy beliefs were negatively related to stress resulting from teachers' increased knowledge of work-related tasks. Prieto-Ursua and Bermejo-Toro (2005) also found a significant relationship between self-efficacy and burnout. In each of these studies, teachers with low self-efficacy appeared to experience more stress-related symptoms. Recent research appears to support a relationship between teacher efficacy beliefs and negative emotions.

Efficacy Beliefs and Irrational Beliefs

To date, very few studies have explored the relationship between efficacy beliefs and irrational beliefs. However, Warren and Baker (2012) posited that low efficacy beliefs are synonymous with irrational thoughts, specifically low frustration tolerance (LFT). LFT beliefs are thoughts that assert struggle and unbearability (Dryden, 2003). Examples of LFT beliefs are "This is too much trouble!" and "I can't stand it!" An individual with low perceived efficacy for completing a task irrationally thinks the task is "too difficult" or "unmanageable." Warren (2010b) explored these distinct, although converging, thoughts and found significant relationships between teachers' irrational beliefs and classroom management efficacy beliefs. Furthermore, a strong negative

relationship was found between irrational beliefs related to authoritarian attitudes toward students and classroom management efficacy beliefs. Teachers that harbored rigid beliefs toward students appeared unsure of their ability to manage classroom behaviors (Warren, 2010b). These findings, along with recent theoretical developments, warrant further investigation among teacher beliefs.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Numerous studies have suggested relationships between teacher beliefs and student success (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2004; Henson, 2001; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Ross, 1998). However, few studies expound upon teacher beliefs and their relationships with emotions (Bermejo-Toro & Prieto-Ursua, 2006). Furthermore, only a limited number of publications outline the role of school counselors in mediating these factors that influence student success (Warren, 2010a; Warren & Baker, 2012). With these gaps in the research, this study sought to explore the relationships between specific teacher beliefs and emotions, while considering how the findings might impact the work of school counselors.

It was hypothesized that positive correlations would be found between irrational beliefs and each negative emotion (i.e., depression, anxiety, and stress). It was also hypothesized that efficacy beliefs would be negatively correlated with depression, anxiety, and stress. Finally, it was hypothesized that negative correlations would be found between efficacy beliefs and general and specific irrational beliefs.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were teachers (n = 42) in four elementary schools in a school system in southeastern United States. Of this sample, 39 (93.0%) respondents were female and 3 (7.0%) were male. Regarding teaching experience, 6 (14%) participants reported 0-2 years, 6 (14%) reported 3-5 years, 15 (36%) reported 6-10 years, 6 (14%) reported 11-15 years, 3 (7%) reported 16-20 years, and 6 (14%) reported 20 or more years. Thirty-three participants (79%) indicated a bachelor's degree was their highest level of education, while nine participants had earned a master's degree. Finally, 5 participants (12%) reported entering the teaching profession through lateral entry, a pathway that allows professionals outside the educational system to enter the teaching profession with provisions (Lee County Schools, 2007). Of this sample, 37 participants reported completion of a teacher training program with an unrestricted license.

Measures

Depression Anxiety Stress Scale-21(DASS-21). The DASS-21 (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995) is a 21-item self-report measure designed to assess respondents' degree of depression, anxiety, and stress. The DASS-21 consists of three scales (depression, anxiety, and stress), each containing 7 items each. The depression scale explores respondents' degree of dysphoria, hopelessness, devaluation of life, self-deprecation, lack of interest/involvement, anhedonia, and inertia. Items within this scale include, "I felt I wasn't worth much as a person" and "I found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things." The anxiety scale assesses autonomic arousal, skeletal

musculature effects, situational anxiety, and subjective anxious affect. For this scale, individuals respond to items such as "I found myself in situations that made me so anxious I was most relieved when they ended" and "I feared I would be "thrown" by some trivial but unfamiliar task." The stress scale assesses respondents' difficulty relaxing, nervous arousal, easily upset/agitated, irritable/over-reactive, and impatience. Items within this scale include, "I found myself getting upset by quite trivial things" and "I was intolerant of anything that kept me from getting on with what I was doing."

For each scale, respondents use a 4-point scale to report the degree each item was experienced over the past week. Responses can range from "0" (*did not apply to me at all*) to "3" (*applied to me very much, or most of the time*). The subscales as well as the total scale scores are typically multiplied by two to align with scores from the original DASS. Raw scores are frequently converted into percentiles to determine a severity rating for each variable and the three variables combined. Scores are considered 'normal' when ranging from 0-78th percentile. Scores can be classified as 'mild' (78-87), 'moderate' (87-95), 'severe' (95-98) or 'extremely severe' (98-100).

Cronbach's alpha was used to estimate reliability for each of the scales and the total score of the DASS for non-clinical populations. Crawford and Henry (2003) reported reliabilities were adequate for all sub-scales and the total scale. Alpha ranged from .89 (anxiety) to .94 (depression). The reliability for stress was estimated to be .93. Alpha for the total score of the DASS was .96. Convergent validity of the DASS is considered to be high when compared to other scales measuring the same constructs. Depression, anxiety, and stress are theoretically related, therefore the correlations between these scales are inherently high (Crawford & Henry, 2003).

General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES)*.* The GSES is a measure of self-efficacy developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). The GSES measures individuals' perceived control over life situations. The GSES is designed for use with general populations but can be used as a measure of specific samples as well. The GSES has been used as a measure of efficacy in over 1000 studies in various languages and counties (Schwarzer, 2009).

Ten items are presented in this measure of perceived self-efficacy. Respondents use a 4-point scale ranging from "1" (*not at all true*) to "4" (*exactly true*) to report their level of agreement for each item. Statements include "I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough" and "I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events."

A study by Scholz, Gutierrez-Dona, and Schwarzer (2002) exploring perceived efficacy of individuals from 25 countries (N= 19,120) found adequate estimates of internal consistency for the GSES (.86). Cronbach's Alpha was .87 for the United States population (N= 1594). Additionally, the GSES is considered unidimensional; valid and reliable across multiple cultures. In most samples, the mean score for the GSES has been around 2.9. Higher scores on the GSES indicate a greater sense of agency.

Irrational Beliefs Inventor (IBI)*.* This inventory, developed by Koopmans, Sanderman, Timmerman, & Emmelkamp (1994), is a 50-item self-report measure used to assess irrational beliefs. The irrational beliefs measured on the IBI are consistent with those described in REBT. Respondents use a 5-point likert scale, ranging from "1" (*strongly disagree*) to "5" (*strongly agree*) to demonstrate a level of agreement for each item. A sample item reads, "If I can't keep something from happening, I don't worry

about it." The IBI is scored by summing all item responses. Low scores reflect a tendency to think rationally, while high scores indicate a propensity to think irrationally.

The IBI was designed in an attempt to focus solely on irrational cognition, while isolating the construct from emotions (Bridges & Sanderman, 2002). It was developed from items found on the Irrational Beliefs Test (IBT; Jones, 1968) and the Rational Behavior Inventory (Shorkey & Whiteman, 1977). A factor analysis identified five factors: worrying, rigidity, need for approval, problem avoidance, and emotional irresponsibility. The internal consistency of the sub-scales of the IBI, for American samples, range from .69 (emotional irresponsibility) to .79 (worrying). These alpha levels suggested the IBI and its sub-scales are reliable. Correlations among the sub-scales of the IBI suggested they are independent of one another, thus supporting the scales validity. This scale has been used with many sample populations and several countries, including the Netherlands, Australia, and the United States.

Procedure

Upon communication with the principle investigator, the Director of Student Services of the school system notified elementary school principals about the opportunity for teachers to participate in a study. Contact was made with each principal to provide additional information and to arrange times to meet with the teachers. The principle investigator met with teachers at the four schools to explain the motivation and goals for conducting the research. Once full disclosure of the study was provided, teachers voluntarily agreed to participate. Teachers not interested in participating left the meeting.

During this meeting, participating teachers completed a paper and pencil packet containing: informed consent form explaining the purpose of the study, demographic form, Depression Anxiety Stress Scale-21 (DASS-21), General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES), and the Irrational Beliefs Inventory (IBI). Packets were distributed and collected by the principle investigator during scheduled meetings at each school. The meetings to collect data occurred within one week of each other.

Results

The data were analyzed using Statcrunch (Integrated Analytics, 2010). Table 1 provides descriptive information.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Variables

Variable	M	SD
IBI		
Worry	35.14	8.37
Rigidity	43.17	5.34
Problem Avoidance	23.90	5.00
Demand for Approval	22.76	4.59
Emotional Irresponsibility	19.36	3.17
Total Irrational Beliefs	144.33	15.07
DASS-21		
Depression	3.14	4.93
Anxiety	3.17	3.90
Stress	6.02	5.49
GSES	30.95	4.39

Note. IBI = Irrational Beliefs Scale; scale scores can range from 50 to 250; subscale scores can range from 7 to 70; higher scores indicate greater irrationality. DASS-21 = Depression Anxiety Stress Scale-21; subscale scores can range from 0 to 21, with higher scores indicating higher levels of negative emotions. GSES = General Self-Efficacy Scale; scores can range from 10 to 40 with higher scores indicating greater sense of efficacy.

The means and standard deviation for subscale scores and the full scale score of the IBI were generally consistent with normative data compiled by Timmerman, Sanderman, Koopmans, and Emmelkamp (1993). Additionally, the GSES yielded mean scores comparable with research findings presented by Scholz, Dona, Sud, and Schwarzer, (2002). The mean scores for depression, anxiety, and stress were slightly lower than norms presented by Lovibond and Lovibond (1995) and Crawford and Henry (2003).

Basis assumptions for correlational designs were evaluated with the use of various measures, including scatter plots. Assumptions including interval data, linearity, bivariate normality, homoskedasticity, independence of observations, and representative sampling were all examined. The basic assumptions were met, making Pearson product moment correlation coefficients a viable option for the analysis.

Correlation coefficients were calculated using scores from subscales of the IBI and DASS-21 and full scales scores from the GSES. Subscales used from the IBI included: (a) Worry, (b) Rigidity, (c) Problem Avoidance, (d) Demand for Approval, and (e) Emotional Responsibility. Subscales from the DASS-21 used to explore participants negative emotional states included (a) Depression, (b) Anxiety, and (c) Stress. These subscale scores, along with the full scale scores of the GSES were analyzed to determine if irrational beliefs, efficacy beliefs, and negative emotional states were related. (See Table 2.)

Table 2

Correlation Between Irrational Beliefs, General Self-Efficacy, and Negative Emotions

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. IBI-Worry		.15	.52	.17	.10	.86	-.47*	.54*	.52*	.62*
2. IBI-Rigidity			-.01	.10	-.43	.38	-.02	.01	.03	.13
3. IBI-Problem Avoidance				-.02	.08	.63	-.26	.26	.29	.38
4. IBI-Demand for Approval					.17	.46	-.32	.13	.04	.01
5. IBI-Emotional Irresponsibility						.19	-.09	-.02	.01	-.04
6. IBI-Total Irrational Beliefs							-.47*	.43	.41	.51*
7. GSES-General Self-Efficacy								-.53*	-.48*	-.47*
8. DASS-21-Depresssion									.82	.74
9. DASS-21-Anxiety										.80
10. DASS-21-Stress										

Note. IBI = Irrational Belief Inventory. GSES = General Self-Efficacy Scale. DASS-21 = Depression Anxiety Stress Scale-21.

* $p < .001$.

The relationships between irrational beliefs and negative emotional states were explored. Irrational beliefs, in general, displayed moderate to strong positive associations with stress ($r = .51$, $p < .001$), depression ($r = .43$, $p = .002$), and anxiety ($r = .41$, $p = .003$). Irrational beliefs associated with worry were found to have a strong relationship with depression ($r = .54$), anxiety ($r = .52$), and stress ($r = .62$), $p < .001$. Irrational beliefs associated with problem avoidance yielded relatively weak relationships with depression, anxiety, and stress, while irrational beliefs specific to rigidity, demand for approval, and emotional irresponsibility were found to have little to no relationships among these negative states of emotion.

Correlation coefficients were also used assess the strength of the relationships between general self-efficacy and depression, anxiety, and stress. Significant relationships were identified between general self-efficacy and each subscale of the

DASS-21. General self-efficacy presented strong negative correlations with depression ($r = -.53$, $p < .001$), anxiety ($r = -.47$, $p < .001$), and stress ($r = -.47$, $p < .001$).

Irrational beliefs, in general, were found to have a moderate negative relationship with general self-efficacy ($r = -.47$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, several specific types of irrational beliefs yielded moderate negative relationships with general self-efficacy. The strength of these relationships ranged from -.47 (worry, $p < .001$) to -.26 (problem avoidance, $p < .048$). No significant relationships were found between general self-efficacy and irrational beliefs specific to emotional irresponsibility ($r = -.09$, $p = .285$) or rigidity ($r = -.02$, $p = .45$).

Discussion

Correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the relationships between general and specific irrational beliefs and depression, anxiety, and stress. The first hypothesis that positive correlations would be found between irrational beliefs and negative emotions was confirmed. The findings suggested irrational beliefs, in general, are moderately correlated with depression and anxiety. The more rigid teachers are in their thinking patterns, the more intense their feelings of depression and anxiety. A strong positive correlation was found between irrational beliefs and stress. The level of stress experienced by teachers is directly related to the degree of rigidity. In other words, teachers harboring many irrational thoughts will likely experience higher levels of stress. These findings support the REBT theory of emotional disturbance which posits that irrational beliefs lead to unhealthy negative emotions such as depression, anxiety, and anger (Dryden, 2009).

Significant relationships between specific types of irrational beliefs and depression, anxiety, and stress were also found. Worry was positively correlated with depression, anxiety, and stress. Teachers that frequently worry will experience greater levels of depression, anxiety, and stress. These findings support those of Bermejo-Toro and Prieto-Ursua (2006) by further demonstrating the positive relationship between irrational beliefs and distress of teachers.

Further analyses examined the relationships between self-efficacy and depression, anxiety, and stress. The second hypothesis, that self-efficacy would be negatively related to depression, anxiety and stress, was also confirmed. A moderate negative relationship was found between self-efficacy and each negative emotional state. Dryden (2003) suggested critical inferences, such as the perceived inability to complete a task, often leads to emotional disturbance. However, when teachers perceive themselves to have the ability to accomplish tasks, they are less likely to experience emotions related to depression, anxiety, or stress. The findings of this study suggested self-efficacy is related to symptoms of teacher distress. However, Mittag and Schwarzer (1993) found slightly weaker correlations for general self-efficacy and depression and anxiety.

The third hypothesis, that efficacy beliefs and irrational beliefs would be negatively correlated was partially confirmed. The results of this study indicated a moderate negative relationship between irrational beliefs and self-efficacy. Teachers that hold rigid beliefs are likely to have a low sense of efficacy. Specific types of irrational beliefs including worry, problem avoidance, and demand for approval were negatively correlated with self-efficacy. The more teachers worry, avoid problems, and demand

approval the lower their self-efficacy or perceived ability to complete a task. Alternatively, teachers who seldom worry, address problems, and prefer approval will generally perceive themselves as capable of successfully reaching desired outcomes and tasks. Irrational beliefs specific to rigidity and emotional responsibility yielded no relationship with efficacy beliefs.

Warren (2010b) found a negative relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and irrational beliefs. Walen, DiGuiseppe, and Dryden (1992) suggested efficacy beliefs may lead to irrational beliefs. However, the relationship between these beliefs may be stronger than once postulated. The findings of this study along with those of Warren (2010b) support recent theoretical developments of REBT (see Dryden, 2009).

Implications for School Counselors

School counselors are in an ideal position to develop comprehensive school counseling programs that extend to multiple stakeholders including teachers, parents, and students (Dahir & Stone, 2003; Sink, 2008; Webb & Brigman, 2006). Specifically, school counselors can use the findings of this study to develop systemic initiatives aimed at supporting the well-being of teachers. In an effort to advocate for students, school counselors can urge teachers to address beliefs and emotions that impede student success (ASCA, 2005, p.24).

School counselors should become aware of thoughts as well as levels of anxiety, depression, and stress experienced by teachers at their school. Failure to capture these aspects of the school environment could be seen as a gap in data collection. This type of data appears necessary to collect as school counselors strive to provide systemic

support, as suggested by ASCA (2005, p. 25). Therefore, school counselors should consider collecting data to determine the needs and socio-emotional functioning of the teachers at their school. School counselors could also gather data from students of their perceptions of teachers' classroom etiquette and socio-emotional functioning. By gathering this type of data, school counselors could begin to conceptualize specific ways to provide social-emotional support to teachers.

This study demonstrates strong relationships between the irrational beliefs, efficacy beliefs, and emotions of teachers. Cognitive Behavioral Theories (CBT) frequently used in counseling support the relationships found in this study. The basic premise of CBT involves relationships between thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Gladding, 2010). While an analysis of teacher conduct stretches beyond the scope of this study, it can be inferred that the relationships found between thoughts and emotions will influence and extend to teacher behavior. Therefore, school counselors may consider providing teachers with various forms of Cognitive Behavioral Consultation (CBC) in an effort to improve teachers' levels of functioning. For example, school counselors could provide Rational-Emotive Behavior Consultation (REB-C) to address teachers' irrational beliefs and unhealthy emotions (Warren, 2010a). In a study conducted by Warren (2011), teachers participating in REB-C indicated this form of consultation was effective and the strategies presented were applicable to many facets of their lives (Warren, 2011).

Haverback (2010) found high efficacy beliefs among pre-service teachers prior to mastery experiences. However, McCormick and Ayers (2009) suggested perceived efficacy has the potential to decrease as teachers' knowledge of instructional areas

increase. School counselors can utilize interventions developed by Warren (2010b, 2011) and Neves de Jesus and Conboy (2001) to help teachers maintain high efficacy beliefs and rational thoughts as they gain experience in the field. Teachers may also benefit from Social Cognitive-Rational Emotive Consultation (SC-REBC) aimed at increasing teacher efficacy and decreasing irrational beliefs (Warren & Baker, 2012). School counselors can provide SC-REBC in individual or group formats. Research findings suggested that participating in face-to-face group consultation, specifically, can decrease irrational thinking and enhance the classroom environment (Warren, 2010b, 2010c, 2011).

Regardless of the consultation approach (i.e., REBC or SC-REBC), it is important school counselors consider consultee factors (i.e., training, emotional and cognitive characteristics, culture) that may influence the consultation process (Brown, Pryzwansky, & Shulte, 2011) and impact student success (Warren, 2010a). By including consultation services in comprehensive school counseling programs, school counselors can impact the social-emotional health of teachers and students (ASCA, 2005). School counselors will find themselves agents of change while systemically supporting student success (Parsons & Kahn, 2005) when addressing teachers' thoughts and emotions through consultation.

Implications for Counselor Educators

ASCA (2005) suggested a role of school counselors is to provide system support. This can be achieved by analyzing data, offering research-based practices, consulting with staff, and developing programs that impact student achievement (p.59). Counselor

educators should be encouraged by this study because it provides insight into ways school counselors can utilize counseling theory to offer systemic support.

Counselor educators should emphasize to counselors-in-training the systemic ownership and responsibility school counselors have for providing comprehensive programs. It is important that counselor educators provide examples of effective collaboration and interdisciplinary work among school counselors and teachers. If counselor educators make a point to highlight the impact consultation can have on teachers' well-being and student success, expectations for counselors-in-training to assume leadership roles and demonstrate accountability will be enhanced. This study demonstrates multidisciplinary inquiry that is implicit in system support described in the ASCA National Model (ASCA, 2005).

Counselor educators can also assist school counseling students in applying counseling models to various populations and settings, such as teachers and schools. For example, this study explored teacher beliefs and emotions through the lens of two counseling theories: SCT and REBT. Utilizing counseling frameworks to collaborate with teachers affords school counselors the opportunity to develop interventions that may foster academic outcomes and affect systemic change (Sink, 2008). These efforts by counselor educators may lead students to more clearly conceptualize system support as suggested by ASCA (2005).

Recommendations for Future Research

A more thorough investigation of the relationship between irrational beliefs and efficacy beliefs is warranted. This study provides a basis for further exploration of the theoretical intricacies of these two types of beliefs. From a theoretical perspective, these

distinct types of thoughts appear to converge on several counts (Warren & Baker, 2012). Irrational beliefs specific to worry, problem avoidance, and demand for approval appear to be central correlates of efficacy beliefs. These specific irrational beliefs require further exploration in relation to perceived efficacy.

Research utilizing other measures of efficacy beliefs and irrational beliefs will be valuable in solidifying how they are conceptualized among teachers. For example, administering the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and the Teacher Irrational Belief Scale (TIBS; Bernard, 1990) will offer more insight into how these beliefs are related. A factor analysis of the data collected from these measures may be a viable option for further determining the unidimensional qualities of these beliefs.

Finally, more research is needed to determine the interest school counselors and teachers have in the findings of this study. Interviews and focus groups may serve as platforms for exploring the practical significance of these findings. These qualitative endeavors may render data related to: (a) benefits or disadvantages of knowing these findings, (b) determining how invested school counselors and teachers are in addressing these findings, and (c) exploring school counselors concern for including social-emotional initiatives in their counseling programs.

Limitations

There are several limitations of this study. One limitation involves the general nature of correlational studies (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 2008). The findings of this study suggested relationships between irrational beliefs, efficacy beliefs, and negative emotions. However, causation among these variables is not assumed. Another

limitation is the potential for data collection from an underrepresented sample of teachers. Voluntary participation may have inadvertently led to a misrepresentation of teachers' thoughts and emotions. The measures used for data collection were administered in random order to control for ordering effects. However, participating teachers may have inaccurately completed the surveys in an attempt to please the investigator or to save face.

Conclusion

In this study, strong relationships were found between irrational beliefs, efficacy beliefs, and depression, anxiety, and stress among teachers. The findings of this study are useful as researchers continue to explore teachers' thoughts and feelings. It is important to consider how these constructs impact teacher performance and the classroom environment. Furthermore, these findings appear to have significant implications for school counselors and comprehensive counseling programs. As the school counseling profession continues to refine a strength-based, preventative, comprehensive model (Galassi, Griffin, & Akos, 2008), school counselors must develop evidence-based interventions that support teachers as well as students. In order to develop these initiatives however, school counselors and counselor educators must remain up-to-date on research focused on teacher beliefs. Moving forward, counselor educators should consider how this study may impact school counselor training programs. In the years ahead, it will be vital for counselor educators to support school counselors-in-training and foster competence in the development of theory-based and evidence-based initiatives that offer system support, enhance teacher performance, and increase academic outcomes for students.

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