CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

3.0.0 NEED FOR REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCHES AND LITERATURE

Man is the only creature that does not have to begin anew in every generation, but can take the advantage of the knowledge which has accumulated through the centuries. This fact is of particular interest in research which operates as a continuous function of ever closer approximation to the truth. The investigator can be sure that his problem does not exist in a vacuum, and that considerable work has been done already on problems which are directly related to his proposed investigation. The success of his efforts will depend in no small measure on the extent to which he capitalises on the advance made by previous researches.

Kerlinger (1973) gives two main reasons for discussing the general and research literature related to the research problem. The first of these is to clarify the theoretical rationale of the problem. A second reason is to tell the reader what researches have not been done on the problem. The underlying purpose is to locate the present research in the existing body of research on the subject and to point out what it contributes to the subject.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a brief

and initial review and appraisal of the related studies, foreign as well as Indian, and to show how the present study contributes more or advances the knowledge further in the area under study. This chapter also gives report of research in which similar concepts, tools and techniques have been used successfully and which the investigator decided to use in her research. It focuses especially on research studies which employed the two instruments selected by the investigator, the PIL and the MBI for her study. In this the investigator has endeavoured to be selective and has reviewed studies which have direct bearing on the present problem.

3.1.0 RESEARCH AND MEASUREMENT OF MEANING IN LIFE

The relatively new problem of meaning in life has been studied mainly in Western culture although a few studies are available in India too.

Although philosophers, psychiatrists and authors indicate a growing concern in society with the meaning of life, it is an area usually ignored by empirically-oriented social scientists. However, there are atleast four instruments for measurement of meaning -- the Logo Test, the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), the Life Regard Index and the Purpose in Life Test (PIL).

The Logo test was developed by Lukas in 1971 but has not yet been published in English. The Personal Orientation Inventory (Shostrum, 1965) is based on Maslow's

concept of self-actualisation. Although self-actualised people may experience much meaning in life, this instrument is not a non-biased and direct operational definition of meaning. The Life Regard Index was developed by Battista and Almond (1973). It has 28 items and is divided into two sub-scales -- Framework and Fulfilment. The Framework scale measures the ability of the individual to see his life within some context and to have derived a purpose in life from this framework. The Fulfilment Scale assesses the degree to which the individual perceives one's self as having fulfilled this framework. The Purpose in Life Test is the fourth instrument and is based on Frankl's theory (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964). It is the instrument utilised in the present study. It will be described in more detail in Chapter IV. The PIL is considered to be a more reliable instrument according to Battista and Almond (1973).

In an empirical study using 241 medical students, it was found that the Life Regard Index, the PIL and the POI measure basically the same thing - meaning in life. All three were able to statistically differentiate between positive and negative life regard groups (Battista and Almond, 1973). The Life Regard Index has not yet been widely tested. Meaning in life has been researched mainly through Crumbaugh and Maholick's PIL. The validity and reliability of their instrument has been confirmed by a number of studies which will be elaborated upon

in the next chapter. The PIL has been used frequently in various settings and with diverse populations.

Frankl himself operationally defined meaning through developing a series of questions - the Frankl Questionnaire which is evaluated clinically (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964). However, it was a rather informal and loosely quantitative attempt to measure the syndrome.

The PIL was validated against Frankl's definition so that degrees of meaningfulness could be scored on a continuum.

3.1.1 Research Studies Based on the Purpose in Life Test

PIL and Deviant Behaviour :

The relationship between meaninglessness or scores on the low end of the continuum of the PIL and unsuccessful living has been validated in studies that have shown strong relationships between Low PIL Scores and deviant behaviours such as drug addiction, alcoholism, psychiatric disorders and delinquency. Padelford (1974) studied high school students and discovered that students with low scores on the PIL had a significantly higher level of drug involvement (M = 8.90) than those who scored high on the PIL (M = 4.24). Likewise, Shean and Fechtman (1971) found significantly lower PIL Scores among college students who were regular users of Marijuana as compared to

non-drug users.

Parallel findings have been reported with alcohol-
ism. Alcoholics tended to view their lives without any
meaning or sense of purpose. (Jacobson and Ritter, 1977)

Psychiatric populations tend to score significantly
lower on the PIL than non-patient population (Crumbaugh
and Maholick, 1964, 1969; Yarnell, 1971). Pearson and
Sheffield (1974) in a study of 144 British neurotic out
patients with the PIL and the Eysenck Personality Inven-
tory (Form A) found that highly neurotic and socially
introverted patients had a lower PIL scores.

Familetti (1975) noted that delinquent high school
boys scored significantly lower on the PIL than non-delin-
quent boys. Among adults, Black and Gregson (1973) repo-
rted that recidivists scored significantly lower than
did first-time offenders. On the other hand normals scored
significantly higher than both first-time offenders and
recidivists.

In a study of adjustment pattern of adolescent
boys and girls in Bangladesh, Sultana (1983) found a
significant relationship between high PIL and better
adjustment in all areas of adjustment viz. home, health,
society, emotion, education as well as total adjustment.

In an investigation on an Indian sample, Gonzalves
and Gon (1983) studied the degree and pattern of PIL
in four psychopathological and normal groups. Each of

the psychopathological groups showed a significantly lower degree of PIL than each of the normal group.

PIL and Mental Health :

The other end of the continuum in the PIL scores is represented by meaningfulness and it is Frankl's contention that this concept is a reliable criterion of mental health. Kotchen (1960) found a significant positive correlation between meaning-orientation and mental health, the criteria of which were responsibility, uniqueness, courage, self-affirmation, faith-commitment, transcendence and world view. Crumbaugh (1968) also found the highest PIL scores among well-motivated and successful professional and business population.

PIL, Value and Religion :

Crumbaugh et al (1970) found that a high degree of purpose and meaning in life is both possessed and needed for success in a religious order.

Crandall and Rasmussen (1975) study on the relationship between PIL and values in college students revealed that (a) low scores on the PIL were associated with the values of pleasure, excitement and comfort, supporting Frankl's contention that a hedonistic approach to life tends to be self-defeating and tends to promote an existential vacuum; (b) high scores on the PIL was associated with the value of salvation, confirming the

results of Crumbaugh **et al** (1970); (c) PIL scores were found to correlate highly with intrinsic religious orientation and not with extrinsic orientation, suggesting that a genuine intrinsic religious orientation helps to foster greater meaning in life, even among normal range of lay people.

PIL and Social Interaction :

Butler and Carr (1968) studied the relationship between meaning in life and social action and found the more socially active students scoring higher on the PIL but the differences were not significant.

Doerris (1970) on the other hand reported that students with high PIL scores belonged to more campus organisations and the relationship was clearly significant.

Tryon and Radzin (1972) found that college students who scored high on the PIL were more certain of their future college majors, vocations and spouses than those who scored low.

Rude (1981) found that male adolescents with low PIL scors differed signficantly from their peers in beliefs of capacity, opportunity and identification and they also had significantly lower positive peer ratings.

PIL and Sex :

Evidence is inconclusive in this area. Butler

and Carr (1968), Doerris (1970) and Padelford (1974) found that females scored higher than males. In contrast Pearson and Sheffield (1975) reported that males scored higher than females. However, most of the research has indicated no significant differences between males and females. (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964; Meier and Edwards, 1974; Jacobson and Ritter, 1977).

PIL and Age :

A few studies have found positive correlations between age and meaning in life. Meier and Edwards (1974) found significant age differences in mean PIL scores. They reportd that PIL scores were the lowest for the ages 13 through 19, the two youngest age-groups in their sample. The scores of the three older groups did not differ greatly. On the other hand, no significant relationship between age and the PIL has emerged from other studies. (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964; Crumbaugh, 1968; Yarnell, 1971)

PIL and Education :

No substantial relationships are reported between the PIL and educational level (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964), intelligence (Yarnell, 1971). However, Butler and Carr (1968) found that Blacks scored significantly higher than Whites; whereas Padelford (1974) reported that Blacks and Mexican-Americans had lower scores than

Whites.

PIL and Job Satisfaction :

There is very little information available on the relationship between meaning in life and job satisfaction or work motivation and none on the relationship between purpose in life and stress and burnout. Sargent (1972) studied the relationship between job-satisfaction, job involvement and purpose in life and the results showed partial confirmation of the relationship between job satisfaction and meaning in life. A second study by Sargent (1973) considered the relationship between work motivation and Frankl's will to meaning but found no relationship between work motivation and the PIL.

A study by Ruffin (1982) gave inconclusive results regarding the hypothesis of a relationship between meaning in life and job satisfaction. The PIL was significantly related to satisfaction with certain aspects of the job but not to other aspects and, moreover, the significant relationships were not consistent across groups. Need for further research was indicated by the author.

3.1.2 Klinger's Research on Meaning

Klinger (1977) in his study of college students corroborated the findings of Crumbaugh and Maholick (1964) without using the PIL.

In Klinger's study those who feel that their lives

are less meaningful than average are also more depressed
(r = .46 P $<$ .001). The problem of extreme meaninglesness
(the existential vacuum of Frankl) seem to affect 20%
of his student group. This agrees with Lukas' estimate
that 20% of the Viennese population suffered from a lack
of meaning and also with Frankl's (1969) estimate that
about 20% of patients who come for psychiatric help have
problems related to meaninglessness.

In his study Klinger asked college students (N =
320) on three campuses how meaningful they regarded their
present life to be. 67% of respondents checked the two
categories - 'very meaningful' and 'full of meaning'.
138 of them were asked to describe in their own words
what it was that made their lives meaningful. The over-
whelming majority of answers listed either human relation-
ships of some kind, or goals that lay in the future or
the feelings and activities associated with them. Most
of the students (89%) mentioned a personal relationship
as something that contributes meaning to their lives.
Other things they mentioned were future goals; people
sacrifice **so that** they may finish their education, **so
that** they may better the lives of their loved ones. This
questionnaire was open-endd.

In the third stage, 168 respondents were presented
with a response-limited questionnaire - a list of cate-
gories based on the answers of the first group, and were

asked to estimate how important each kind of thing was in 'giving your life meaning'.

In his research Klinger also tried to establish people's concerns by means of interviews and questionnaires and then follow up each person for a number of months to see how long evidence of such concern persisted. He found 2/3 of the current concerns lasted less than a month, e.g. getting a course finished but 1/3 lasted longer, even as long as the interviewing continued.

Klinger's thinking reflects a great range of formative influences, but especially Frankl.

The investigator has been influenced by both Frankl and Klinger in measuring meaning in life in her present study.

3.2.0 RESEARCH ON TEACHER STRESS

The review of related research on teacher stress also includes studies on teacher anxiety where anxiety was used as a synonym for stress and tension.

3.2.1 Prevalence of Teacher Stress

Coates and Thoresen (1976) in their review of studies on teacher anxiety quote the NEA reports to show the growing incidence of teacher anxiety. The 1938 report found that 37.5% of their nationwide sample of 5,150 teachers indicated that they were seriously worried and nervous. In the 1951 study, 43% of a sample of 2,200

teachers reported that they were working under consider-
able strain and tension. In the 1967 survey of 2,290
teachers 16.2% reported they were working under consider-
able strain and another 67%, under moderate strain (total
78%). While the incidence of strain, tension and anxiety
may be no greater for teachers than for other professional
groups, because of its possible negative effects on stude-
nts, it is more serious.

More recently, in U.S.A., the growing problem
of classroom stress is being documented extensively.
A nation-wide survey conducted by the magazine 'Instructor'
found that a majority of the 7,000 teachers answered
'yes' to the question, 'Is teaching hazardous to your
health?' 33% of the respondents claimed that most of
the sick leave they had taken was related to stress or
tension in school (Newell, 1978).

British studies are also revealing prevalence
of stress among school teachers. Dunham (1976) concluded
from his survey of 658 tachers in the United Kingdom
that 'more teachers are experiencing stress', and 'severe
stress is being experienced by more teachers'. His study
showed that 1/5 to 1/3 of teachers in comprehensive schoo-
ls reported experiencing a great deal of occupational
stress.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) in a study of 257
teachers of 16 schools in England noted that 15.6% found

being a teacher 'very' stressful while 4.3% found it 'extremely' stressful (total 19.9%). In another study (1979) by the authors 23.5% teachers indicated that it was 'fairly' or 'very' unlikely that they would be school teachers in ten years' time.

Tellenbach, Breuner and Lofgren (1983) report two studies of Swedish school teachers. In the first study of 1,838 teachers, 40.1% said teaching is 'always' or 'often' a mental strain; in the second study of 445 teachers, 51% found their work to be 'very much' a mental strain. 57% of the first sample said they would 'perhaps' or 'absolutely' choose another occupation if making the choice today while 26% said they were actually considering a change of occupation.

3.2.2 Sources of Teacher Stress

Much of the information regarding sources of teacher stress has been obtained by either interviews or questionnaires.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) in their review of teacher stress also include investigations of job dissatisfaction among teachers as researchers have found a close association between sources of job dissatisfaction and stress. (Gross, 1970; Warr& Wall, 1975)

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) mention two early studies. McLaughlin and Shea (1960) reported that the

main sources of dissatisfaction for the elementary school teachers in California were (1) supervisory duties at school and (2) excessive clerical work; for the secondary school teachers they were (1) inadequate salary and (2) negative student attitude toward learning. In the Rudd and Wisemen (1962) study the main sources of professional dissatisfaction for teachers in the U.K. were (1) inadequate salary, (2) poor human relation among staff, (3) inadequacies of school building and equipment, (4) teaching load, (5) large classes, (6) feelings of inadequacy as a teacher, (7) lack of sufficient time and (8) low status of the profession in society.

In Lortie's (1975) interviews of 94 New England teachers, the main areas of complaint reported by teachers were (1) clerical duties, (2) interruptions and time pressures, and (3) troublesome children. An interesting finding in the report was that whereas 'better facilities' were regarded as the change that would most increase teacher effectivenss, 'more money and promotion' was seen as the change that would increase more job satisfaction.

Dunham (1976) identified three common stress situations as (1) reorganisation of schools into comprehensive types (2) role conflict and role ambiguity, and (3) poor working conditions like inadequate buildings and high noise levels.

From a review of literature on sources of teacher anxiety Coates and Thoresen (1976) conclude that the chief sources relate to (1) time demands, (2) difficulties with pupils, (3) large class enrolments, (4) financial constraints and (5) lack of educational resources.

Among the more recent studies, Cichon and Koff (1978) studied stress induced by 'life events' associated with teaching on the lines of Social Readjustment Rating Scale of Holmes and Rahe (1967) in 4,934 (22%) teachers employed by Chicago Board of Education. The five most highly rated sources were (1) involuntary transfers, (2) managing disruptive children, (3) notification of unsatisfactory performance, (4) threatened with personal injury, and (5) over-crowded classrooms. Cichon and Koff conclude that physical and psychological safety concerns cause most stres. Then comes the management tensions. Pedagogical issues come at the bottom. Although they are the main issues concernd with the teachers' work, they have become secondary and have been pushed into the background by working conditions and administrative hassles.

New York State United Teacher Stress Survey (1979) reports similar findings. The items identified as most stressful were (1) managing disruptive children, (2) incompetent administrators and lack of administrative support, (3) maintaining self-control when angry, (4)

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overcrowded classrooms, (5) dealing with community racial issues. The survey also showed differences in level of stress between urban, suburban and rural teachers. Urban teachers reported the highest stress. They reported about three times more items as stressful than rural teachers and almost twice as many items as suburban teachers.

Pratt (1978) studied the relation between stress and the background of children (socio-economic and age). His study with primary school teachers in Northern England found financial deprivation in the home background of children to be positively and significantly related to perceived stress among teachers. Stress also increased with the age of children for there is a tendency towards increasing non-cooperation and aggression as the children grow older, especially so, in the socially deprived group.

Lowther, Stark and Chapman (1984) in a study of school teachers and a group prepared as teachers but working full-time in other occupations, on a number of work-related questions, found the career teachers having (a) strong sense of being locked into the current job and (2) a negative view of their prospects for advancement, vertically as well as horizontally as they were denied the opportunity for promotion even when their performance was outstanding.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) notes that maintaining classroom discipline has not been identified as the

most important source of teacher stress in the studies
reviewed by them (as opposed to the findings of Cichon
and Koff, 1978; NYSUT Stress Survey, 1979). However,
they advance three reasons to explain that the contri-
bution of maintaining classroom discipline to teacher
stress is possibly greater than that indicated in the
studies they reviewed. (1) Teachers distinguish between
aspects of the job which are regarded as an integral
part of their job (e.g. teaching children, maintaining
discipline) and those aspects of the job which can be
changed by administrative decisions (large classes, inade-
quate salary). Although both aspects may contribute to
teacher stress, only the latter may be reported as sources
of discontent; (2) Ego-defensive processes lead to under-
reporting of dissatisfactions which imply personal failure
or deficiencies; (3) the contribution of maintaining
classroom discipline may be subtle, e.g. it may involve
constant monitoring of the pupils' behaviour, and as
such teachers may not be fully aware of its significance.

These explanations may be useful hypotheses for
further investigations.

In a study of stress in 257 teachers of 16 schools
in England by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) four factors
were identified - (1) pupil misbehaviour, (2) poor work-
ing conditions, (3) time pressures, (4) poor school ethos.
This indicates that sources of stress are multidimensional

rather than unidimensional.

Results of their study also indicate very little association between self-reported teacher stress and biographical characteristics of sex, age, qualification, length of teaching experience. As such, it may well be the case that in investigating the relationship between stressors and stress, the personality characteristics rather than the biographical characteristics of the individual may be the more important determinants of individual differences in teacher stress.

Milstein, Golaszewski and Duquette (1984) noted that urban elementary school teachers of their sample identified issues related to the core task of working with students in the classroom as most stressful, compared with organisationally based issues. The stressors were : (1) insufficient student motivation, (2) lack of materials and aids to do the job well, (3) discipline problems, (4) responsibility for the future of their students. They conclude that if the teachers' professional obligations cannot be met, their self-image and ability to cope may well be endangered.

The teachers surveyed by them reported only moderately high levels of stress for other organisationally based stress categories. There may be two reasons. Firstly, teachers are not as stressed as is commonly believed. Secondly, teachers who are exposed to stressful environ-

ments for extended periods of time become more capable of coping or perhaps more numbed by their environment.

Newell (1978), however, contends that while problems such as student indiscipline, lack of student progress, inadequate budget, lack of administrative support etc. contribute to teacher stress - the real root cause of stress is the feeling on the part of the teachers that they are unable to do anything to effect solutions to these problems. Lack of direct teacher-involvement in decision-making robs them of the psychological rewards of tackling a problem and contributes to the 'What's the use?' or burned out syndrome.

3.2.3 Conclusion

Coates and Thoresen (1976) feel that studies on sources of teacher stress being correlational studies cannot determine whether anxiety or stress is caused by or covaries with particular variables. The measuring techniques have also not made it possible to relate particular anxiety-producing situations to the type or magnitude of stress experienced.

Keavney and Sinclair (1978) also note that as research in the area of teacher stress/anxiety is still at a very early stage of development the research orientation has been exploratory and descriptive and has been concerned primarily with developing instruments for establishing the incidence. There has been little

attempt to explain why teachers are anxious, how they deal with such anxiety, and its impact on teacher effectivenes in the classroom. Moreover, the tendency to equate problems, concerns and anxiety as well as sources of anxiety (Fuller, 1969; Coates and Thoresen, 1976) is questionable as concerns and problems need not always evoke anxiety or stress.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) also conclude their review on teacher stress by pointing out that though many possible sources of teacher stress have been identified, research on teacher stress is still at an early stage of development. And the questionnaire and interview methods of investigation used to identify the sources of stress have numerous short-comings. Such methods fail to take into account the fact that different teachers may interpret the meaning of the questions differently and their responss may be affected by ego-defensive processes.

There is lack of information regarding the exact extent of stress-related physical and mental illnesses among teachers. Despite the fact that stress has a physiological component, very few studies have been reported which have employed physiological measurement. One exception mentioned is Sutcliffe and Whitfield (1976) who used heart rate as measure of teacher stress in attempting to identify categories of classroom decisions.

3.3.0   GENERAL OVERVIEW OF BURNOUT RESEARCH

Writings on burnout made their appearance from 1974 onwards with the introduction of the term by Freuden- berger. Many articles and books have been published on the subject but most of them are descriptive, based on author's personal experiences or narratives of burned out workers. Statistical presentations based on systema- tically collected data have appeard only from 1977 onwards and have been very few. There exist very few inferential presentations of burnout research.

Perlman and Hartman (1982) made a complete review of the field of burnout - articles in professional jour- nals, dissertation abstracts and books which were publi- shed from 1974 to 1981. They had the review examined by two known authorities in the field, Cherniss and Mas- lach for confirming its completeness.

Perlman and Hartman (1982) observed that despite numerous writings between 1974 and 1981 only Berkeley Planning Associates (1977) and Maslach and Jackson (1979) explored the underlying dimensions of burnout or provided data beyond the descriptive level. The trend seems to be for books on the subject to be written (Cherniss, 1980; Frendenberger, 1980; Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1980).

Among the literature, 29 sources considered both

the individual and the organisation as causes of burnout. Similarly, another 29 sources described both as the foci of solutions to burnout. The writings which cited only one cause of burnout chose the organisation (n = 14) more frequently than the individ¢ual (n = 3). Those which cited only one solution emphasised the organisation (n = 15) more than the individual (n = 3).

3.3.1 Dimensions of Burnout

From a content analysis and synthesis of the defini- tions of burnout presented in the writings reviewed, Perlman and Hartman (1982) propose a definition of burnout as 'a response to chronic emotional stress with three components - (1) emotional and/or physical exhaustion, (2) over-depersonalisation, and (3) lowered job producti- vity'. They conclude that research does not yet support ·inclusion of other symptoms and components authors speak of (e.g. low morale, negative self-concept, anger, cyni- cism, depression, rigidity, absenteeism, drug abuse) into the definition of burnout. They may be correlates but do not seem to comprise its prime dimensions. They suggest that with the proliferation of popular literature on burnout researchers would probably benefit from a focus on its underlying primary dimensions, treating burnout as a multi-dimensional construct and not a single explanatory term.

Research of Berkeley Planning Associates (1977),

Maslach and Jackson (1979), and Perlman and Hartman (1982) provide support for conceptualising burnout as a multidimensional construct which when measured cannot be summed into an overall burnout 'score'.

The Berkeley Planning Associates' analyses revealed five burnout subscales - Project, Coworkers, Job, Opportunities and Estrangement from job with moderate Cronbach alphas (.63 to .81). However, they summed the scales when analysing relationships between burnout and other variables.

Maslach and Jackson explored the underlying dimensions of burnout with a sample of 1,025 individuals who did 'people-work' and an instrument of 22 items. A factor analysis resulted in three factors with eigenvalues greater than one, labelled Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment, reflecting the three components identified in the definitions reviewed by Perlman and Hartman.

Perlman and Hartman utilised six items measuring components of burnout with a sample of 289 community level mental health administrators. Again, the items did not intercorrelate highly enough to be labelled a unidimensional burnout cluster.

3.3.2 Statistical Treatment of Burnout

The earlist statistical treatment of burnout is the Berkely Planning Associates' (1977) study on child

abuse workers containing analyses ranging from descriptive
through multiple regression and discriminant analyses
(1) Among worker characteristics age and supervision
responsibilities were significantly related to burnout,
i.e. older workers and workers with supervisory respon-
sibility were less likely to burn out. (2) Projects with
large case-load size and formalised rule observation
were more likely to have burned out workers. (3) Burnout
was significantly related to workers' termination from
jobs, but not absenteeism. A multiple regression analysis
revealed that only leadership, communication, supervision
responsibility and caseload size contributed a signifi-
cant portion of the variance in burnout.

Gann (1979) focused on individual personality
characteristics believed to be significant for understand-
ing burnout. Burnout was not found to be identical with
job dissatisfaction; age, rather than length of experience
on job was most strongly related to burnout; high ego
level social service workers were more positively oriented
toward clients; and the interaction of ego level and
job variables improved prediction of burnout for only
its emotional exhaustion component.

The Maslach and Jackson study will be described
in detail in Chapter IV as the present investigation
has utilised the scale constructed by them.

Quite a few studies on burnout have come out after

1981, in fact, since the publication of the Maslach Burn-
out Inventory (MBI), and most of these have used this
instrument.

3.3.3 Research on Teacher Burnout

Studies on teacher burnout have appeared from
1979 onwards. In one of the earliest studies Metz (1979)
compared teachers who identified themselves as either
professionally burned out or professionally renewed.
More male teachers between ages 30 to 49 were self-cate-
gorised in the burned out group with more females of
the same age in the renewed group. Non-work was signi-
ficantly more important as a source of renewal for those
identified. And those who identified themselves as renewed
perceived administrative support and peer interactions
and relations as significant sources of renewal compared
to the self-identified burned out group.

Westerhouse (1979) studied effects of tenure,
role conflict and role conflict resolution on workorien-
tation and burnout of 141 relatively young and well-
educated high school teachers working at private schools.
Frequency of role conflict was a significant variable
in the prediction of burnout, especially role-conflict
with students about examinations and grades. Teacher
tenure did not correlate positively with burnout.

Colasudro (1981) investigated the magnitude of
burnout as measured by self-dignosis and an established

validating inventory in 215 public school teachers in San Diego. 16% were rated burned out by the inventory whereas 52% reported themselves burned out. Burnout was equally frequent at all ages but age group 30-39 was over-represented. The relationship of the variables of sex, grade assignment, ethnic status, marital status, number of children, educational qualification, tenure, hours devoted to teaching, teaching experience, time on current assignment and percentage of time spent on different duties was not statistically significant to the measured burnout and self-reported burnout. Colasudro concludes from his findings that the problem seems to arise more from high self-expectations than from the demands of the organisation and other extrinsic conditions. As professionals dedicated to high expectations for themselves and their students teachers may develop guilt feelings about an inability to deal with today's children and demands of the society resulting in a sense of low personal and professional worth.

3.3.4 Research Studies Based on the MBI

Most of the research work on teacher burnout appearing after 1981 have employed the MBI or a modified version of it.

3.3.4.a Studies on Construct Validity of the MBI

Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) examined the reliability

and validity of the MBI which was designed to assess perceived burnout in the helping professions in general, with a sample of only teachers. The construct validity of the MBI in education was assessed through an analysis of the MBI responses of a sample of 469 Massachusetts teachers by using principal factor analysis with interations and a varimax rotation, the same approach employed by Maslach and Jackson (1979) in their development of the MBI. The results indicated that when used in education the MBI measured the same basic constructs or factors as those identified through studies in the helping professions - Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment. However, there were two differences.

Firstly, in this study for teachers, Depersonalisation broke down into two factors - Factor III Depersonalisation as affected by the job and Factor IV Depersonalisation as affected by students. However, as the reliability of the Subscale IV was low, the authors suggest that depersonalisation should be separated into two subscales only if the quality and the number of items comprising Subscale IV are increased sufficiently (atleast by adding three similar type items) to raise its reliability to an acceptable level of .80. Otherwise Subscales III and IV should be combined (as in the MBI).

Secondly, whereas Maslach and Jackson (1979) found

that correlations between the frequency and intensity dimensions across subscales ranged from .35 to .73 with a mean of .56, the correlations between these dimensions for teachers varied from .75 to .94 with a mean of .87. On the average the total variance in common between the frequency and intensity scores on a subscale was only 31% in the original MBI for the helping professionals, for teachers the average total variance in common was 76%. Because of this high subscale inter-correlations for the frequency and intensity dimensions of the MBI, Iwanicki and Schwab question the need to utilise the two dimensional format with teachers. It may be more efficient and economical to ask teachers to respond to each item in terms of either the frequency or intensity with which they experience the feelings of burnout.

In planning future studies of burnout among teachers, the concurrent validity of the MBI could be examined by administering the MBI to a small sample of teachers within several school buildings. Then colleagues, spouses could be asked to rate them according to the behaviours assessed by the MBI. The concurrent validity of the MBI could be assessed by comparing the teacher, colleague and spouse ratings by subscale. The authors also recommend to gather data concerning test-retest reliability of the MBI by sub-scale.

Meier (1984) points out the need for studies on

construct validity of burnout. The diversity of causes, definitions and symptoms of burnout in the literature has created confusion about the separateness of burnout from other related constructs with which burnout is often confounded, e.g. dissatisfacჳtion, stress, anxiety tension, tedium, depression. In this study by Meier, the subscales and response dimensions were combined so that the MBI could be employed as a unitary measure of burnout. This was accomplished by simply summing the frequency and intensity dimensions for each item and then adding the emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment scores. Cronbach Alpha computed for the combined MBI scores of the study demonstrated good internal consistency. Meier concludes that there is a lack of sufficient evidence to suggest that the causal dimensions of burnout have been strictly confirmed, thus leaving open the question as to whether to sum the subscales of any burnout instrument to produce a single score. In this study the subscales were summed on the basis of the assumption that a greater number of items would contribute to greater reliability for the burnout instrument.

Mackenzie (1981) studied burnout in 358 teachers with the MBI and found results that were very similar to the original Maslach and Jackson study.

Vayda (1982) made an investigation of teacher

burnout among 176 teachers of public schools in Pittsburg to study if the relationships obtained between the sub-scales of burnout and the norms established from the study correspond closely with those established by the MBI. His findings are similar to Maslach's in subscale relationship and norms. Profile of the typical burned out teachr in this study - female, caucasian, middle school teacher, 30-49 years with post-graduate or post-masters qualification.

3.3.4.b Prevalence of Teacher Burnout

Arrenich investigated factors influencing burnout in 350 North Dakota public school teachers with the MBI. Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation Frequency and Personal Accomplishment Frequency ,were found to be the major contributors to the syndrome (1981).

Presley (1981) studied teacher burnout with the MBI in 405 Special Education teachers. Burnout rate was 8.4% of the total N. Qualifying percentage for individual subscales of the MBI were : Emotional Exhaustion - 32.1%; Depersonalisation - 21.3%; Personal Accomplishment - 54.1%. Teachers of behaviourally disordered children had significantly low scores on personal accomplishment.

Farber (1982) made a study of 693 public school teachers in New York State from both urban and suburban school districts between 1980 and 1982. He used the, Tea-cher Attitude Survey (TAS), a modified version of the

MBI. The 25 items of the MBI were augmented with 40 additional items, chosen to represent the range of satisfactions and stresses in teaching most often noted in the literature. The correlation between the original 25 items of the MBI and the 40 additional items was found to be .78; the correlation between the MBI and the entire TAS was .93.

In the study burnout was defined in two different ways. Firstly, the percentage of teachers who, in response to the statement, 'During the last month I have felt burnd out from my work' answered 'frequently' (points 5 or 6 on a 0-6 frequency scale), was determined. On this scale 70% of the suburban teachers indicated that they either 'never' felt burned out or 'rarely' felt burned out; 18.5% indicated that they 'occasionally' felt burned out; and 10.3% felt as if they 'frequently' felt burned out. Similarly 56.7% of urban teachers indicated they either 'never' or 'rarely' felt burned out; 21.7% felt burnd out 'occasionally' and 21.6% felt 'frequently' burned out. On this basis, then, 10.3% of suburban teachers and 21.6% of urban teachers were burned out.

Farber used a second and more conservative way of defining burnout. Principal components factor analysis with varimax rotations of the 65-item TAS generated a three factor solution. The first factor accounting

for 42.3% of the variance consisted of 17 items that are usually considered symptomatic manifestations of burnout. By defining burnout as a score of 68 or more on this burnout factor (an average of 4 or more on each item), 13.0% of urban teachers and 8.0% of suburban teachers were burned out.

3.3.4.c Burnout and Different Variables

A number of studies have tried to find out the relationship between burnout and other variables.

Burnout and Locus of Control :

Mcintyre (1981) investigated the relationship of burnout and Locus of control with Nowicki - Strickland Adult Scale (1973) in 469 special education teachers. Locus of control was significantly correlated with both dimensions of emotional exhaustion, frequency of personal accomplishment and intensity of depersonalisation.

Burnout and Self-actualisation

Malanowski (1981) examined the relationship between teacher burnout and aspects of their self-actualisation with the Personal Orientation Inventory in 211 teachers in Ohio. Significant relationship was found between degree of burnout and degree of self-actualisation. Higher degree of burnout was consistently associated with time incompetence, other-directedness, low self-regard, low synergism, lack of spontaneity and low capacity for intimate contact.

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Burnout and Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity :

Schwab (1981) examined teacher burnout and its relationship to the organisational stress variables of role conflict and role ambiguity in 469 teachers in Massachusetts with the MBI and the Role Questionnaire of Rizzo, House and Lirtzman. Role conflict and role ambiguity each explained a significant amount of variance in the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation subscales with role conflict explaining the most variance. Role ambiguity explained a significant amount of variance in the Personal Accomplishment Subscale while role conflict did not. In combination role conflict and role ambiguity explained 23% of the variance on the Emotional Exhaustion Subscale, 10% on the Depersonalisation subscale and 5% on the Personal Accomplishment Subscale.

Burnout and Organisational Design :

Crews (1983) examined the relationship between teacher burnout and organisational design in 306 teachers in North Carolina with the MBI and an Organisational Design Survey developed by the Investigator. Blacks experienced less emotional exhaustion than Whites. Academic teachers experienced more depersonalisation than vocational teachers. Those who were in graduate schools reported more personal accomplishment than those not in school. Those reporting dissatisfaction with salary and those who said they would not teach again, if given a chance,

experienced more emotional exhaustion, more depersonali-
sation and less personal accomplishment.

Burnout and Age :

Age was found to be negatively correlated with
burnout with 30-45 age group being especially vulnerable
to it. (Metz, 1979; Colasudro, 1981; Mcintyre, 1981;
Schwab, 1981; Farber, 1982). The 30s may be a period
when the individual begins to suffer feelings of unrest,
dissatisfaction, questioning about career choice and
disillusionment. The younger teachers perhaps still retain
their idealism, enthusiasm and optimism, where as the
older ones are likely to have made peace with themselves
and have accepted the situation.

Burnout and Sex :

Males appeared to be more burned out than females
(Metz, 1979; Arrenich, 1981; Mcintyre, 1981; Schwab,
1981). Colasudro (1981) did not find any difference bet-
ween the sexes.

Burnout and Type of School :

Teachers in urban schools were found to be more
burned out than teachers in suburban or rural schools
(Farber, 1982; NYSUT, 1983). In urban areas with a concen-
tration of more coloured and poor children, teachers
face more problems.

Teachers in large schools (more than 1,000 stu-

dents) were found to be more vulnerable to burnout (Far-
ber, 1982). In a big school, the sense of community is
lost.

3.3.5 Conclusion

Studies on teacher burnout have appeared only
from 1979. Most studies have tried to investigate the
prevalence of burnout among teachers. Some correlational
studies have been attempted to investigate the relation-
ship of burnout with other variables like locus of con-
trol, role conflict and role ambiguity. No attempt has
yet been made to pinpoint the factors which lead to burn-
out, how the process of burnout begins and grows, which
will require longitudinal studies. As most of these stu-
dies were undertaken as a part of doctoral programmes,
the time-constraint was a factor. The role of personality
factors in burnout has not yet got the attention it deser-
ves.

The investigator does not know of any study on
teacher stress or teacher burnout in the Indian context.
A few studies on job satisfaction of teachers are availa-
ble. In his review of Indian research on satisfaction
of teachers, Adaval (1968) found that 40% to 80% teachers
in the different studies like and respect their profession
but are dissatisfied with pay scales and the respect
given to the profession by society.

Lavingia's (1974) study of job satisfaction among

1,600 school teachers of Gujarat shows male teachers, older teachers, secondary school teachers and married teachers as more dissatisfied than their counterparts.

Kishanpuri (1977) in an analysis of the emotional problems of teachers found stresses and strains to be more frequent in rural teachers than in urban teachers. The main sources of worry and strain for primary teachers were : feelings of irritability, criticism from inspectors, low status in society and slow progress of children. The main sources of worry and tension for the secondcary and higher secondary school teachers were : high noise level, low results of students despite the teachers' best efforts, indiscipline and disobedience in students and inadequate building and equipment.

The above survey of the existing resarches show many gaps in all the three areas of meaning in life, stress and burnout. Though research studies in purpose in life have been appearing since mid-60s, they have been mainly in the area of clinical psychology. No study has been made on the purpose in life of teachers although studies are available on the purpose in life of college students. As has been noted, research on teacher stress and teacher burnout is in the stage of infancy and many gaps, many lacunae remain. No Indian study on meaning in life, stress and burnout in Indian teachers is available. Under the circumstances, the investigator felt that

such a study was urgently called for. As the present study is the first one on purpose in life, stress and burnout in Indian teachers it is explorative and descriptive and seeks to establish their incidence and prevalence and to identify the main factors which give meaning or purpose in the lives of teachers or cause stress and burnout in them. The use of a number of in-depth case studies was expected to provide additional insight into the factors which lead to meaning, stress and burnout.