

## CHAPTER - III

### REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Man, being the highest of God's creatures endowed with powers of head and heart is fortunate not to have to begin anew in every generation, but can take the advantage of the knowledge which has accumulated through the ages. This fact is of particular interest to the researcher, who can build on the findings of his predecessors and is sure that his problem does not exist in vacuum. The success of his efforts will depend to a great extent to the degree he capitalises on the advance made by previous researches.

The review of literature in educational research provides the investigator the means of getting to the frontier in his particular field of knowledge. It gives insight for possible methods and procedures which can be pursued and also affords guidelines for the extension of research studies. The review can also help in limiting the individual's research problem and in defining it better.

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. The special focus given is on the research studies which employed the two instruments selected for this study i.e., Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and Purpose in Life (PIL) along with a few others such as self-concept, achievement motivation, work value and the tribals' education. As the first two concepts are considerably new, having few research studies done while the latter are rather innumerable, the researcher has endeavoured to be selective and has reviewed studies which have direct bearing on the present problem.

### 3.2 REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH ON 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 at least 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 (Shostrom, 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. 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 (PIL) 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 details 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 population.

Frankl (1968) in his questionnaire himself operationally defined meaning through developing a series of questions which is evaluated clinically (Crumbaugh and Moholick, 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.

(a) 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 alcoholism.

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 Inventory (Form A) found that highly neurotic and socially introverted patient had a lower PIL scores.

Familetti (1975) noted that delinquent high school boys scored significantly lower on the PIL than non-delinquent boys. Among adults, Black and Gregson (1973) reported 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.

(b) 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.

(c) 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.

(d) 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 scores differed significantly from their peers in beliefs of capacity, opportunity and identification and they also had significantly lower positive peer ratings.

(e) 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).

(f) 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 reported 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; Misra, 1986).

(g) PIL and Education.

No substantial relationships are reported between the PIL and educational level (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964) and 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.

(h) 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.

(i) 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 meaninglessness (the existential vacuum of Frankl) seem to affect 20 per cent of his student group. This agrees with Lukas' estimate that

20 per cent of the Viennese population suffered from a lack of meaning and also with Frankl's (1969) estimate that about 20 per cent 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 per cent 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 relationships of some kind, or goals that lay in the future or the feelings and activities associated with them. Most of the students (89 per cent) 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-ended.

In the third stage, 168 respondents were presented with a response-limited questionnaire - a list of categories 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 2/3rd of the current concerns lasted less than a month, e.g., getting a course finished but 1/3rd 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.

### 3.3 GENERAL OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH ON BURNOUT

Writings on burnout made their appearance from 1974 onwards with the introduction of the term by Freudenberger. 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 systematically collected data have appeared 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 journals, dissertation abstracts and books which were published from 1974 to 1981. They had the review examined by two known authorities in the field, Cherniss and Maslach (1981) 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; Freudenberger, 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 face of solutions to burnout. The writings which cited only one cause of burnout chose the organisation (n=14) more frequently than the individual (n=3). Those which cited only one solution emphasised the organisation (n=15) more than the individual (n=3).

(a) Dimensions of Burnout

From a content analysis and synthesis of the definitions 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 productivity'. 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, cynicism, 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 multidimensional construct and not a single explanatory term.

Researches 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 (1981) 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 (1982) 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.

(b) Statistical Treatment of Burnout

The earliest 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 characteristic age and supervision responsibilities were significantly related to burnout, i.e., older workers and workers with supervisory responsibility 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 significant portion of the variance in burnout.

Gann (1979) focused on individual personality characteristics believed to be significant for understanding 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 (1981) 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 Burnout Inventory (MBI), and most of these have used this instrument.

#### (c) 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-categorised in the burned out group with more females of the same age in the renewed group. Non-work was significantly 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 work-orientation

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-diagnosis and an established validating inventory in 215 public school teachers in San Diego. 16 per cent were rated burned out by the inventory whereas 52 per cent 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 (1981) 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.

(d) Research Studies Based on the  
Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

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

(e) 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 interactions 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 (at least 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 per cent in the original MBI for the helping professionals, for teachers the average total variance in common was 76 per cent. 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 of 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., dissatisfaction, 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 (.63-.81) 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 subscales 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 teacher in this study - female, caucasian, middle school teacher, 30-49 years with post-graduate or post-masters qualification.

(f) Prevalence of Teacher Burnout

Arrenich (1981) 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.

Presley (1981) studied teacher burnout with the MBI in 405 Special Education Teachers. Burnout rate was 8.4 per cent of the total N. Qualifying percentage for individual subscales of the MBI were : Emotional Exhaustion - 32.1 per cent; Depersonalisation - 21.3 per cent; Personal Accomplish-

ment - 54.1 per cent. 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 Teacher 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 burned out from my work' answered 'frequently' (points 5 or 6 on a 0-6 frequency scale), was determined. On this scale 70 per cent of the suburban teachers indicated that they either 'never' felt burned out or 'rarely' felt burned out; 18.5 per cent indicated that they 'occasionally' felt burned out; and 10.3 per cent felt as if they 'frequently' felt burned out. Similarly 56.7 per cent of urban teachers indicated they either 'never' or 'rarely' felt burned out; 21.7 per cent felt burned out 'occasionally' and 21.6 per cent felt 'frequently' burned out. On this basis, then,

10.3 per cent suburban teachers and 21.6 per cent 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 items TAS generated a three factor solution. The first factor accounting for 42.3 per cent 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 per cent of urban teachers and 8.0 per cent of suburban teachers were burned out.

(g) Burnout and Different Variables

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

(h) 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.

(i) 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.

(j) 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 per cent of the variance on the Emotional Exhaustion Subscale, 10 per cent on the Depersonalisation subscale and 5 per cent on the Personal Accomplishment Subscale.

(k) 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 depersonalisation and less personal accomplishment.

(l) 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, whereas the older ones are likely to have made peace with themselves and have accepted the situation.

(m) 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 between the sexes.

(n) 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 concentration of more coloured and poor children, teachers face more problems.

Teachers in large schools (more than 1,000 students) were found to be more vulnerable to burnout (Farber, 1982). In a big school, the sense of community is lost.

Bruno (1987) investigated the relationship of organizational climate to the burnout of public school principals and teachers in New Jersey. The results indicated that many of the principals and teachers were experiencing moderate to high levels of burnout especially in the area of personal accomplishment.

Cooper (1986) had similar finding of burnout among special education administrators of New York. A considerable number of individuals in the sampled population (39.6 per cent) were in potential danger of burning out and 13.5 per cent experienced full burnout.

Rhoades (1987) examined the specific impact that teacher burnout had upon leadership behaviour within the classrooms of the colleges in Colorado State System of Community colleges. The findings indicated that the three subscales of burnout impacted leadership behaviour and

burnout did exist in the various demographic areas like size, geographic location of the college etc.

Misra (1986) made a study of the Calcutta teachers to find out the meaning in their life and their work as teachers and whether they experienced stress and burnout in their job.

Taking a sample of 345 (180 male and 165 female) teachers of 15 secondary schools and the inservice teacher population of three Teachers Training institutions from the metropolitan city of Calcutta, the investigator applied the Purpose in Life (PIL) test developed by Crumbaugh and Maholick (1969) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) prepared by Maslach and Jackson (1981) together with the self developed scales like teachers scored stress (TSS), self reported stress (SRS), Meaning in life (MIL), Meaning in Teaching (MIT) and self reporting Meaning (SRM). These questionnaires and tests were accompanied by an intensive interview of the teachers.

The findings of this study are in line with previous researches which found no relation between sex and PIL (Crumbaugh and Maholick 1964, Meier and Edward 1974; Jacobson and Ritter 1977) and between Age and PIL (Crumbaugh and Maholick 1964; Crumbaugh 1969, Yarnell, 1971) Finding a purpose in life is not dependent on these factors of gender or age.

Other findings are the high life satisfaction of

these teachers, 47 per cent find their life very meaningful. This meaning in life they derive from human relationships, friendly and familial interaction and the affective experiences. Calcutta teachers get the greatest amount of satisfaction and meaning from psychical rewards. They gave higher ratings to task related outcome which were in accordance with other findings.

Findings on burnout were : Calcutta teachers have a lower degree of burnout in the Emotional Exhaustion subscale and in Depersonalisation sub-scale. While age differences in Depersonalization sub-scale is not significant, sex differences is significant in both dimentions of the sub-scale at .05 level. Male teachers are more burned out than female teachers. In the Personal Accomplishment sub-scale too Calcutta teachers have a higher level of burnout. Similar to Depersonalisation, age difference here is not significant but sex difference is significant in both dimensions of the sub-scale at .01 level. Female teachers have a lower level of personal accomplishment and are more burnedout than male teachers.

As far as stress is concerned, it is found that it is not significantly related with the Personal Accomplishment sub-scale. But there is a significant negative relationship between meaning in life as measured by the PIL and both scored stress and self reported stress. And a significant

negative relationship between meaning in life as measured by both the PIL and the self-reporting item (SRM) and all the six burnout subscale has been discovered.

The study shows that the burnout of Calcutta teachers is lower than the American norm in the two sub-scales of MBI, the Emotional Exhaustion sub-scale and the Depersonalization subscale.

It also indicated a positive and significant relationship between stress and two subscales of burnout and also negative and significant relationship of meaning in life with both stress and burnout, thus confirming the assumption of the study derived from Frankl and Klinger (1977) that meaning helps to tolerate occupational stress and prevent burnout and those who experience less stress and burnout in their occupation find life more satisfying and meaningful.

#### 3.4 STUDIES ON GLOW-ON

Studies on glow-on are hardly traceable excepting those on job satisfaction and motivation. Glow-on symbolises burning without flame or to give out steady light or tingle with warmth or emotion. The terminology is not exactly the same with motivation. A person beaming with joy and enthusiasm is a glow-on person.

Hence, studies on this aspect of glow-on with other constructs or correlates are suggested for further research

in this area. In the present study, glow-on from the subscale of Maslach Burnout Inventory with four psychological correlates of meaning in life. Self concept, work values and Achievement Motive have been under-taken.

### 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 relationship of burnout with other variables like locus of control, role conflict and role ambiguity. No attempt has yet been made to pinpoint the factors which lead to burnout, how the process of burnout begins and grows, which will require longitudinal studies. As most of these studies 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 deserves.

With the exception of the above 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 available. In his review of Indian research on satisfaction of teachers, Adyal (1968) found that 40 per cent to 80 per cent 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 secondary 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 researches 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. Research on teacher burnout, meaning in life with other variables like self-concept, work value and achievement motivation is still in the stage of infancy and much more

so with tribal teachers. No Indian study on a comparative basis between tribal and non-tribal teachers is available. In such circumstances, the investigator considers such a study was very important and necessary. As the present study is the first one on purpose in life and burnout with other correlates on Indian and Tribal teachers in Chotanagpur, it is explorative, descriptive and comparative and seeks to identify the glowing on teachers from the burnout on the variables stated.

### 3.6 STUDIES IN SELF-CONCEPT AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

As stated earlier, self concept has occupied the minds and hearts of educationists and psychologists because of its impact upon the behaviour and personality of an individual as well as his achievement in life. In order to assist the investigator, some search has been made into the available literature.

#### 3.7 (a) Early Studies in Self-Concept and Achievement Motivation.

Self-theory emerged only in the late 1940s when the self-concept gained ground as a measurable construct under the pioneering efforts of Carl Rogers and 'self' came to be known as the 'phenomenal self'. Various theories constructed by Adler, Angyal, Freud, Fromm, Horney, Lecky, Allport, Maslow, Comb, Sullivan and others accord an

important and even a central role to the self-concept (Hall & Lindzey, 1985).

Wylie (1961, 1978) compiled a critical survey of pertinent research literature on the self-concept. It is a very highly valuable source book pertaining to the theory and research of self-concept.

More than eight thousand studies in the area of self-concept have been reported within the last two decades. This fact points out the importance self-concept has gained in contemporary human psychology.

Studies in achievement motivation (n-Ach) emerged as a continuation of the pioneering work done by McClelland, Atkinson, Lowell, Winter and their other contemporaries (1953, 1965, 1969). Even though an idea of the concept of achievement motivation can be traced back to Louis (1926) who utilized the concept as determining tendency and quasi need, it was Murray (1938) who for the first time referred to it as need achievement. However it was only with the work of McClelland that the concept has become the centre of research programmes.

Heckhausen (1967) has reviewed extensive experimental literature on n-Ach in English as well as a considerable number of articles in German which have not been covered in English summaries. His work integrates research and theory in n-Ach with the earlier important tradition of

research in Germany on the psychology of work, striving, success and failure and level of aspiration.

Desai and Amita (1979) have reviewed all the studies on n-Ach both in India and Abroad. They have highlighted in a special way the developmental studies in n-Ach starting with McClelland's experiments. They have drawn up an input model pertaining to each experiment under the aspects of basic proposition (process), intervening programme (input) and expected outcome (product).

Such (1974, 1979) in his surveys has also reviewed some studies under motivation both descriptive and developmental.

In the following pages an attempt is made to present definitive summaries of research about the two constructs, viz., self-concept and n-Achievement. The studies reviewed are classified under

- i) Descriptive studies in self-concept
- ii) Descriptive studies in n-Ach.
- iii) Developmental and intervention studies.

(b) Descriptive Studies in the Area of Self-Concept.

Towards the mid-twentieth century, theories on 'self' were built up that described 'self' more and more as a measurable construct. Consequently, efforts were made to construct instruments to measure the attributes of self. Most of the instruments were for the measuring of self-

concept. The main categories of such instruments were projective test, adjective checklists and inventories.

(c) Measurement of Self-Concept

Two of the ways of assessing 'self' are 'self report' that which can be inferred from an individual's statement about himself and 'observation' - that which can be inferred from the individual's behaviour.

Evaluating the self through self-reports, Rogers (1951) has taken the position that self-reports are valuable sources of information about the individual. And Allport (1955, 1961) says that the individual has the right to be believed when he reports his feelings about himself. Numerous studies have been made on the assumption that evaluative statements made by the individual about himself are valid and reliable data.

Some of the well known inventories are the self-esteem inventory by coopersmith (1967), the Bledsoe self-concept scale (1967) which is a checklist; the self-appraisal scale by Davidson and Greenberg (1967); the 'How-I-see-myself' scale by Gordon (1966, 1968); Q-sort by cummins (1963); the semantic defferential used to measure a person's meaning systems developed by Osgood (1957).

Among the self-report inventories two popular ones and widely used are the Tennessee self-concept scale (TSCS Fittz, 1964) and California Psychological inventory (Gough,

1956). The TSCS is popular among psychologists as a tool to measure self-related variables both in a counselling situation and as a research tool.

The self-perception inventory by soares and Soares (1969) which is a semantic differential type, is used to measure self-concept, ideal self-concept, (reflected-self; Parents, reflected self: teachers; reflected-self: classmates).

A number of instruments have been developed in India too, to measure self-concept and related variables. The popular ones among these are Q-technique by Pathak (1966) and Vasanth (1972); personality word-list by Deo (1967); self-concept inventory by Mehta (1968), Sharma (1968), Mohain (1979) and self-concept scale by Rastogi (1979); self-esteem inventory by Prasad and Thakur (1976) and by Thomas and Sananda (1984) semantic differential scale by Hussaini (1974) and Desai (1979); and self-confidence scale by Basavanna (1971). The SPI of Pizer developed by Sarabhai in 1976.

(d) Correlational Studies in the Area of Self-Concept.

In the middle of the present century 'self' became a primary psychological unit. A sound theory on self was built and as a result self-concept came to be considered the central aspect of personality (Hall and Lindzey, 1985) Researches in psychology and education have undertaken

numerous studies both descriptive and developmental in the last thirty years on self and its relationship with other constructs.

The self-concept is considered by many researchers as the central theme of life which affects all relationships, performances, achievements either positively or negatively. The basic assumption is that the students who feel good about themselves and their abilities are the ones who are most likely to succeed. Academic success or failure appears to be as deeply rooted in concept of self as it is in measured mental ability (Purkey, 1970).

(1) Studies abroad : Most of these studies pertain to the category of school going children and the studies bring out the relationship between self-concept of successful students as well as underachievers.

Studies done by Campbell (1965) and Bledsoe (1967), Baum et al (1969), Fink (1962) Brookover et al (1964), Campbell (1967), Irwin (1967) were in connection with self-concept and school achievement of students at all levels of learning. The relationship was found more pronounced in the case of boys than girls primarily in the area of underachievement. Male underachievers tend to have more negative self-concept than female underachievers. Girls, both high-achievers as well as low-achievers report a higher self-concept than boys in the respective category.

The study of Caplin (1966) with Negro students and the comparative study by Soares and Soares (1969) of advantaged and disadvantaged elementary children clearly reveal that influence of self has no social boundaries or colour bar and the causes of negative self-concept are more psychological than economic (Purkey, 1970).

Viewing the reality from the opposite angle, studies have also revealed that perceptions of self by a successful student are always positive, self-directing in regulating his life. He has much confidence in himself and pays little attention to the opinions of others. Whereas the unsuccessful student has little self-confidence in his ability to fulfil the required task and has less ambition. He is self derogatory, has a depressed attitude towards himself, has feelings of inadequacy and tends to have strong inferiority feelings (Goldberg, 1960; Shaw, 1961; Gowman, 1960; Combs, 1963; Dunn and Schwartz, 1964; Taylor, 1964; Hardy, 1966). Thus the studies together show that there is a two way street, a continuous interaction between the self and academic achievement, each directly influencing the other.

(2) Studies in India: In the area of self-concept studies conducted in India cover a measurement studies, correlational studies and a few developmental studies.

The study of Walia (1973) reveals that gifted females have higher self-evaluation than the gifted males and

average females. Mohan (1977) studied the development of self-concept in relation to intelligence, learning ability, achievement and n-Ach at the adolescent stage and found that the females showed more stability for growth than males during adolescence. The study of Jayakanthan (1979) and Desai's (1979) study subscribes to this finding.

Whereas Chauhan (1982) found that male students had better global self-concept than the female students. Jogawan's (1982) study showed that at the beginning and end of adolescent period the level of self-concept stood high but declined to a lower level in between, for both the sexes. However Pandit (1969) found no significant sex difference in the self-concept, and so also Chaudhuri (1980) Basavanna (1971) found that students with high self-confidence had higher self-regard than those who lacked self-confidence.

Gupta (1977) found that highly creative individuals possessed positive self-concepts and high self-acceptance both of which were conducive to better adjustment and positive mental health.

Pandit (1984) has made an elaborate study on the psychological needs, self-concept and adjustment of adolescents; and the variation in the three as functions of sex, age, educational environment and SES and has stressed the importance of studying such aspects in depth.

The study of Vasantha (1972) revealed that a positive relationship exists between self-concept and achievement and between self-concept and intelligence and that high and low achievers could be differentiated on their self-concept score, Chaudhuri (1980) found that self-concept strongly correlates with academic performance. Sharma (1968) found that both self-concept score and self-ideal discrepancy score were curvilinearly related to school achievement. Deo and Bhullas (1974) found that no relationship existed between self-concept and intelligence and self-concept and achievement.

Jagawen (1976) found that self-concept was positively correlated with SES, whereas this was not found true in the study of Desai (1979). In his study the Patel, Rajput, Brahmin and Harijan students had almost similar perceptions of self.

The comparative study done by Hussaini (1974) showed that n-Ach was positively related with self-esteem for Americans but only slightly for Indians.

There are numerous studies done in the area of 'self' and its attitudes. Besides, studies in this field are on the increase. In the present chapter, descriptive studies under self-concept and n-Arch have been presented very briefly. In the following few pages descriptive studies under n-Ach are arranged in a concise manner.

(e) Descriptive Studies in n-Ach.

The subsequent section deals with descriptive studies conducted in relation to n-Ach.

(f) Measurement of n-Ach.

Simultaneously with the development of the n-Ach. construct McClelland et al (1953) worked out a tool for the measurement of the construct through the thematic apperception test (TAT). It was formerly started by Murray; however, it was McClelland et al (1961) who brought this test up-to-date and used it to measure the achievement motive. The test consisted of a set of pictures which were consciously made vague; each picture is to be viewed for twenty seconds and the viewer is supposed to build a story round the picture with the help of four guiding questions, viz., what is happening? What has led up to the situation? What are the people thinking and feeling? What will be the outcome? Through the stories the writer's thought processes are revealed, and since n-Ach is said to originate in one's thoughts, by the use of the scoring keys, the stories can be analysed to know their achievement motivation content, by checking them for the existence of the different components of the motive. Even though projective tests have a disadvantage of getting affected by the element of subjectivity, the TAT has proved to be the most reliable and valid instrument for the measurement of n-Ach.

The French test of insight (FTI Elizabeth French, 1955, 1958) is another related measure. Validated studies have confirmed a good agreement between FTI and the TAT n-Ach measure. The FTI consists of ten short statements about what certain people do and desire. The subjects are asked to write down a reason for each statement. Coding of the responses is done with a scoring key similar to that of TAT measure.

A tool constructed by Ray (1979) is entitled 'measuring motivation by immediate emotional reaction (IER)'. It contains ten positive and ten negative achievement items, each being a word or phrase and not a sentence. To each item the subjects answer 'yes' or 'no'. Though such an item may seem to be unclear as a question, the subjects none the less seem to find the task highly meaningful and give consistent and easily validated replies.

The Iowa picture interpretation test (IPIT), Edwards personality preference scale (EPPS), the non-verbal measure of Aronson, the colour preference by Knapp, and the range of incentive values assigned to easy and difficult occupations by Morgan have also been constructed as indices of n-Ach (Heckhausen, 1967).

In India, Prayag Mehta (1969) has standardized McClelland's TAT on Indian population the scoring key has been retained as in the original.

(g) Acquisition of n-Ach

Heckhausen (1967) while compiling all the researches on n-Ach has developed a study so to say to point out how the achievement motive develops in the child at different stages of its growing up: A good many studies point out that there is no continuity in the development of n-Ach before the age of three. Around the age of three and four a child shows reaction to failure, he no longer gives up easily. Competition among the children of this age has been recorded through studies. The origin of the level of aspiration, in the sense of calculated goal-setting to maximize gains comes about a year after the origin of n-Ach. McClelland has noted the existence of individual preferences to the levels of difficulty in the ring-tossing game among the five year olds whereas the three and four year olds were not able to experience success, failure of conflict. When faced with a choice between tasks which had been successfully solved or failed, the older ones increasingly preferred to resume the unsolved task. Coopersmith found this tendency among the eleven to twelve year olds and showed that it was connected with high and success oriented achievement motivation.

(h) Demographic Factors Related to n-Ach.

Various studies have revealed that accentuation of n-Ach is influenced by child-rearing practices, family size and birth order, family status and background, the

n-Ach level of parents themselves together with their values, educational level, economic status and such other factors.

In the case of high achievers, a positive correlation has been found to exist between the level of achievement behaviour and the degree of positive reinforcement by way of reward, recognition and tender affection by mothers to their children at the kindergarten and primary school level of learning (Winterbotton, 1958. McClelland 1953; Candrall et al 1960; Morrow and Wilson, 1961). McClelland (1961) also found that mothers with moderate levels of n-Ach tended to have sons with higher n-Ach.

In the case of low achievers it was found that either the treatment given by the mother was rigid or the father was authoritarian. With enforcement of numerous rules and a pushing toward early self-reliance and too much achievement related pressure, growth in achievement behaviour is retarded (Chance, 1961). Veroff et al (1960) found that broken homes or weak ties between the parents hinder the development of n-Ach. Relatively fatherless societies or subcultures also produce children with low motivation. Hayashi and Yamushi (1964) report that in Japan mothers of low motivated pre-school children make more demands than do mothers of highly motivated children and that this relation reverses itself after the age of seven. According to Nuttall (1964), highly motivated Negro parents prefer to follow non-authoritarian

type of child training. Other studies dealing with the influence of child rearing practices are by Rosen and D'Andrade (1959), Child et al (1958), Argyle and Robinson (1962), Hurley (1962). Among the studies conducted in India, most deal with the relationship of n-Ach and socio-economic and socio-cultural factors.

The family as a primary group may also contain influences which further or hinder the development of strong n-Ach. Birth order of siblings, size of the family and intactness of the home have been shown to be important. It is interesting to note that American first born children are highly motivated (Atkinson and Miller, 1956), especially girls (Sampson, 1962), whereas in other cultures such as India and Japan, it is rather the younger and the youngest children who are more highly motivated (McClelland, 1961). On the contrary, Sinha (1967) asserts that the first born were higher in n-Ach in India; while studies conducted by Mukherjee (1965), Mubhayi (1974) revealed a Zero order relationship between n-Ach and birth-order. This has been confirmed by Sinha, Misra et al (1975).

According to the study of Rosen (1961), the influence of the family size on n-Ach of boys varies with social class. In the upper classes medium size families produce boys with the highest score, whereas in middle class the smaller the family the larger the score.

(i) n-Ach and Socio-Economic Status (SES)

A very large number of researches both in India and abroad have focused on studying how SES is related to n-Ach. Socio-economic status which includes indices such as education, income, occupation as well as other values characteristic of the family stock allocate people into different classes of status in society. Most of the studies conducted have confirmed the findings that a positive correlation is found between SES and n-Ach among the high and middle class SES groups (Rosen, 1956, 1962; Buckmann, 1966; Douvan and Adelson, 1958; Crockett, 1962; Litting and Yeracaris, 1963; 1965; Carney and McKeachie 1963; Nuttall, 1964; Morgan, 1964; Cameron and Storm, 1965; Srivastava and Tiwari, 1967; Gokulnathan, 1970; Desai, 1970; Choksi, 1973; Pandaripanda (1976); Abrol (1977). Studies by Gokulnathan (1970), Gokulnathan and Mehta (1972); Mukherjee (1975), Lyngdoh (1975) refer to work done in this area among tribal samples. Srivastava and Singh (1975) and Rao (1975) worked with samples of teacher trainees. All these studies have pointed to a positive correlation between n-Ach and SES.

Dutt (1983) studied n-Ach in relation to sex, intelligence and SES among X standard boys and girls of Himachal Pradesh. His findings reveal that at the same level of intelligence SES does not influence n-Ach among boys and girls.

(j) n-Ach and Sex

The findings of studies on n-Ach in relation to sex could be classified under three categories :

Gokulnathan and Mehta (1972) found that the level of n-Ach of tribal girls of Assam was significantly higher than that of the tribal boys. This result is supported by the findings of Chaudhury (1971), Pandey and Singh (1971), Dubey (1972), Phutela (1976), each of these studies being conducted on a sample of high school students; by Mehta (1973), on College sample; and by Singh (1974); Rao (1975), and Patel (1977) who studied these differences in student teachers.

Contrary to this, Sinha (1967) found that among post-graduate students in psychology, boys were higher in n-Ach than girls, which was substantiated by the results of Desai (1970) and Namdeo (1972) and Abrol (1977).

On the other hand Mukherjee (1965), Dutt and Sabharwal (1973), Choksi (1973) Pathak (1974), Gajannai (1975) in their respective study found no significant difference between n-Ach scores of boys and girls. The findings of Dutt (1983) confirm this result.

(k) n-Ach in Literature

McClelland et al (1961) studied the n-Ach content of the popular literature of the country and could predict the economic progress that would follow in a decade of

years. He found that n-Ach content of popular literature increased on several occasions prior to rapid economic growth in a country. Such countries also contained high n-Ach content in the text books of children in that period. It was interesting to know from McClelland (talk by McClelland on "beyond achievement motivation" delivered in March 2, 1984 at Management House, New Delhi) that recently the inaugural address of the presidents of America were analysed to know whether the particular president was dominated by the achievement motive, affiliation motive or power motive. In India, studies done by Lewis (1975), Chhaya (1975) and Ritibrat (1975), Patel (1979), Trivedi (1982) were on comparing the n-Ach content of text books of a particular place/state. None of them studied the correlation of n-Ach with the economic development of the place.

(1) n-Ach and Intelligence/Academic Performance

The focus of a number of researches has been to study the relation between n-Ach and intelligence by the verbal group test of intelligence, some others have studied the relation of n-Ach with academic performance. Schools and Colleges have held it as a tradition that academic performance and intelligence correspond. In fact academic performance has been considered as a criterion for excellence and brilliance.

Very many studies on n-Ach done either in relation with intelligence or academic performance have shown a correlation to exist between the two constructs, which in some cases is just positive and in other cases significantly positive (French and Thomas, 1955; Robinson, 1954; Thambankar, 1968; Lakhia, 1971; Mehta, 1969, Sinha, 1970; Desai, 1970; Chaudhary, 1971, Patel, 1971; Rawal, 1971; Patel, 1972; Desai, 1972; Pathak, 1973; Mehta, 1973; Choksi, 1973).

Lowell (in McClelland et al, 1953), Mitchell (1961), and Caron (1963) found no relation between motivation and academic achievement; neither did Hayashi et al (1962) and Cole, Jacobs, Zubok, Fagot and Hunter (1962). Dutt (1983) showed that when SES is held constant, intelligence does not influence N-Ach among boys and girls.

Some studies in n-Ach have also taken academic motivation as a correlate. While some studies have found a positive correlation some others have shown that it is negative. One explanation for this can be that highly motivated persons set moderately challenging goals; they also have high expectations from schools. They will perform well only when the school provides incentives to meet these challenges and expectations. If not, there will be created a sense of frustration in the students and consequently a fall in academic standards.

(m) n-Ach and Aspiration

The findings of the study by Mubayi (1974) indicate a negative but significant relationship between n-Ach and vocational aspirations of the tribals of South Gujarat. Lyngdoh (1975) has also reported similar findings in tribals of Meghalaya. However, Phutela (1976) reported a positive and significant relationship between n-Ach and educational/vocational aspirations. Whereas Desai (1972) found that the vocational aspirations of high and low n-Ach pupils did not differ significantly.

(n) n-Ach and Personality Variables

A few correlational studies report a positive relation between the level of n-Ach and self-image. In fact according to the studies reviewed by Heckhausen (1967), it has been pointed out that those who have highly motivated will show a larger discrepancy between their perceived self and ideal self. (Weinberger, 1951; Martine, 1958; Smith, 1970). McClelland and Winter (1969) reported that individuals whose n-Ach was raised as a result of field experiment tended to have a larger actual<sup>1</sup>ideal self discrepancy on the "activity" dimension. Misra (1967) studied personality correlates of n-Ach. His findings show that a person high in n-Ach possessed a good adjustment on Roraszach test and TAT. He reflected himself as a person with a rich inner life and a realistic relationship between his

capacities and his goals. Coopersmith (1968) found that children high in n-Ach tended to have high self-esteem. Mukherjee (1965) found that high n-Ach college students tended to perceive themselves high in perseverance. The study of Rao (1975) has pointed a positive and significant relationship between n-Ach and self-concept among the teacher trainees.

(o) Developmental and intervention Studies

Some ways of behaving in the world are life-giving- they enhance life and health for the person, they also stimulate the growth and actualization of his more desirable possibilities. Healthy personality fosters personal growth and sustains health and well being. The world of educators have stressed the importance of integration of the cognitive and affective domains to facilitate a total growth of the human personality. Acquiring a healthy self-image is pre-requisite for growth in self-confidence and school achievement. As an on-going process, the enhancement of one depends on the intensification of the other reciprocally. To realize this goal of helping a person to build his best self, educators as well as psychologists have involved themselves in researches in intervention studies and developmental work. Any intervention studies conducted, especially in a classroom, normally has a psychological component in it either directly or implicitly either in

the content or in the process and more definitely in its outcome. Some of the major intervention and developmental studies done in the area of self-concept and n-Ach have been presented in this section.

(p) Developmental Studies in Self-Concept

Developmental studies in self-concept initially started as a therapeutic treatment mostly through counselling and psychotherapy. Rogers (1977) believes that an individual has within himself vast resources of self-understanding for altering his self-concept, his attitudes and self-directed behaviour. These resources can be tapped if only a definite climate of facilitative psychological attitudes can be provided.

McClelland's (1969) propositions also indicate that n-Ach can be enhanced in an individual only when it rests on the solid base of a healthy self-concept and group support. Thus developing n-Ach simultaneously creates an enhancement in self-concept (McClelland, 1969; Desai, 1972; Lakshmi, 1976; Amita, 1976).

In experiments done to bring about a more coherent self (i.e., reduce the discrepancy between the self-concept and the concept of the desired or valued self), the intervention was clinical. However, in later times as the stress was laid on mental health in classrooms as one of the objectives of education, intervention studies were introduced

in the classroom also with properly developed psychological inputs like Transactional Analysis (TA), counselling, better self-image treatment, an interested curriculum, etc.

The earliest clinical researches were conducted at the counselling Centre of the University of Chicago. The studies are entitled the outcomes or concomittants of psychotherapy, compiled by Rogers and Dymond (1954). Each study is based on the testing of hypotheses in regard to the capacities of the client, the function of the therapists and the process of therapy. The approach of counselling was client-centred or non-directive.

The general research design included a therapy group or experimental group and a control group. A portion of the therapy group was set apart as the own-control group- in which there was a sixty day wait period, preceded and followed by the administration of the research tests, before therapy started.

The rationale of the design was that, through the own-control group they could control for personality factors and motivation for therapy. This was accomplished by comparing changes made during the wait and therapy periods. The no-therapy control group provided a more precise control for passage of time and the effects of repeated administration of the tests. If change occurred in the therapy and follow-up period which was greater

than the change in the waiting period of the own-control group, or in the equivalent period for the control group, it was concluded that the therapy produced change which was not accounted for on other grounds.

The study of Butler and Haigh (1954) is one among the Chicago University Centre Researches, entitled "Change in the relation between self-concepts and ideal concepts congruent upon client-centred counselling". The subjects who underwent the treatment showed a significantly higher correlation between self and ideal self than before. The treatment increased the self-esteem of the subjects thus bringing about a positive change in self-concept.

Dymond (1954) studied the adjustment changes over therapy from self-descriptive Q-sorts. She found that the clients coming into therapy with low self-esteem and low adjustment as compared to controls after therapy gained a significant increase in both.

Dymond also studied adjustment changes over therapy from TAT ratings for the same group simultaneously. An overall look at the comparative changes in TATs of twenty five experimental subjects who had therapy and ten controls who did not, also revealed that the post-therapy records of those who had therapy were rated significantly higher than their pre-therapy tests which was not the case in the control group. Though in the pre-tests the therapy group

had a significantly lower rating on mental health than that of the control group, the post-therapy tests of the two groups were not significantly different.

Vargas (1954) studied changes in self-awareness during client-centred therapy. His study focused attention on the emergence of new self-perception into awareness and their presumed assimilation into self-concept. A self-description instrument was developed to define categories of self-awareness. The results of the study confirmed that according to the counsellor judgement criterion, there is a positive correlation between success of therapy and increasing self-awareness; the change in self-awareness evinced in an increasing proportion of descriptions of self, decreasing repetition of old self-perceptions, and increasing emergence of new (previously unknown or unacceptable) aspects of self.

Roger's study (1954) was on changes in the motivating of behaviour as related to therapy. His investigation tackled the question: Does the client's everyday behaviour change in such a way that the change can be observed and is the nature of these changes positive? The E-M scale evaluation was done prior to therapy, follow up therapy and at a later point at least 6 months after the conclusion of the therapy, the scale was filled by the client himself and by two friends whom he distinguished as persons who know him very well. The results showed that not only certain

inner conceptual changes occurred, and certain subtle changes in personality, but the way the client makes choices, behaves in group discussion, treats other people, acts when interrupted, etc., changes in ways that are evident both to himself and to his friends. These changes are in the direction which clinicians have designated as representing greater maturity of behaviour.

After the mid-twentieth century, 'growth centres' over the whole world have been on the increase. Many courses were made available for training of trainers as well as for fostering positive mental health among people, those who are ill as well as for those who want a greater enhancement of a positive self-image. Much of this humanistic approach has been integrated in education as well.

Brookover et al (1969) conducted an experiment to modify self-concept and school performance. This is an interesting study where the treatment was given to the parents of the experimental group of children. The treatment appears to be based on the idea that parents can be helpful in the improvement of self-concept and achievement scores of their children. Father and mother were encouraged to be concerned with their child's self-concept and achievement. A placebo group in which parents were engaged in discussions about special progress in the school and a control group of students whose parents were not involved in the

experiment were also fixed up. The experimental group had significant gains in grade point averages (GPAS) and self-concept of academic ability. The placebo and control groups also had gains in GPA but they were not statistically significant.

Even though behavioural science and humanistic approach are two different schools the experiment of Stanton (1975) proved that the two schools can complement in the growth of the human person. Stanton studied as to how a behaviour modification as a behaviouristic technique could be used to promote a positive self-concept which is a distinctly humanistic aim. Counselling form of the Tennessee self-concept scale was administered as pre-test on eighty III and IV year education students at Flender's University, who were paired on the basis of their overall level of self-esteem. Each member of the pair was allocated at random to one of the two groups. The experimental group was exposed to an experimental treatment which was for ten weeks. The subjects observed their own behaviour in order to establish a base line rate for positive and negative thoughts and then proceeded to plan their environment in order to maximize the reinforcement for the expression of positive thoughts. This involved the subjects' family and friends in the activity, for they were to provide the positive reinforcement, sometimes rewarding them socially with praise, sometimes materially with small gifts. After

the ten weeks period the experimental group's self-concept operationalized in terms of P scores on the Tennessee scale was found significantly more positive than that of the control group. A third score was derived from a final administration of the scale three months after the experiment had officially concluded. Interviews with subjects after they completed the scale for the third time, the result and the general feeling were very favourable towards the self-controlled behavioural modifications approach.

Strokes (1979) in her study trained selected peer group counsellors in study-skill techniques who were then to act as counsellors to the experimental group and give them weekly sessions on effective study materials for one semester. The self-concept, knowledge of study procedures and GPAs of underachieving inmates were assessed. Scores from the pre- and post-tests of the experimental and control groups from the two instruments as well as the GPAs showed significant difference in self-concept, knowledge of effective study procedures and GPAs.

Gallagher (1981) worked with nineteen undergraduate experimental students, had a four week course entitled experiences in Christian Community. In addition to classroom instruction, this course combined a 7-day off campus religious community experiences involving encounter group sessions, group discussions, prayer sessions, recreation and household tasks. Nine control students concurrently

attended the course 'Biology and Science Fiction'. Scores from Tennessee self-concept scale were noted before and after the programme. Scores indicate that experimental group showed significant increase from the beginning to the end of the course in the self-concept scores under Moral ethical identity and total P (a combination of all 8 positive scores). Results suggest that a course involving experiences in religious community can facilitate a positive change in self-concept of college students.

The purpose of the study by Dye (1980) was to investigate the influence of rational emotive education (eme) on the self-concept of adolescents residing in residential group houses. Twentyfour residents from an orphanage participated in this course. The experimental group received rational emotive education. All subjects were pre- and post-tested on the TSCS. Gain scores were computed. An Ova was performed on the nine variables of the TSCS. Results revealed that the experimental group did achieve greater gain scores and the changes were clearly and entirely attributed to the treatment.

Lee (1982) studied the effects of desensitization, relaxation and transactional analysis on the selected personality variables : locus of control, anxiety, self-esteem and achievement. The purpose of the study was to compare the effect of two psychological programmes and a control group on the self-concept, anxiety level, locus of control and academic performance of community college

students. A hundred and fortyeight subjects were pre-tested on a self-esteem inventory, locus of control scale, Taylor manifest anxiety scale. Students scoring below the self esteem mean and above the locus of control and anxiety means were randomly assigned to two experimental groups and one control group. Experimental group I received TA as the treatment group II received desensitization/relaxation as the treatment, the third group (control) received placebo programme. After 5 weeks of respective programme, the subjects were post-listed with the same tests. Also an achievement score was recorded for the participants. The results of the study indicated that a high level of anxiety was reduced significantly and a significant change from external to internal locus of control was found irrespective of the experimental treatment received. Also this study showed that a low self-esteem was improved significantly through the treatment of TA. Finally, the results revealed a significant difference in achievement across the two experimental groups.

The study of Rosenstock et al (1982) was on positive group efficacy in adolescent treatment. The positive group as a treatment modality was evaluated in a 8-week pilot study with 24 adolescents. This technique requires adolescents to make positive statements about themselves and others in the group. Each adolescent had also to verbally acknowledge the compliment paid to him. All negative

comments were prescribed. Results support incorporating the positive group therapy into both in-patient and out-patient treatment. Positive group experiment was found helpful over a broad range of diagnostic categories enhancing self-image, social skills and leadership potential in the presence of, and with the encouragement of peers.

Hartman (1982) made a study of the effectiveness of the palefire during prevention programme's self-concept module in enhancing self-concept among elementary and high school students. The high school students were tested on TSCS and elementary school subjects on the 'Children's self-concept scale'. The results showed that the programme was usable at the elementary grade level in promoting self-concept.

Whalestrom's (1982) study was to identify students with low self-concept and average reading ability and engage them in a uniquely designed reading programme based on bibliotherapeutic principles, describe the elements of the programme in operation and to observe and analyse changes in the student's self-concept. The subjects thus identified and treated had an enhanced self-concept as documented by the change score on the Piers Harris instrument. All the girls developed a more positive attitude toward reading as measured by Ester instrument and the

verbal reports of all the girls revealed a belief that they had more friends than previously, more accepted by their peers and more highly regarded by their teachers. All of them made positive gains in academic performance.

Diaz (1982) hypothesized that among the Puerto Rican students' self-concept, the personal self-domain and intellectual self-domain can be enhanced with a cultural awareness programme. A programme which constituted fourteen weekly sessions of an hour and half each, over a four months' period was given by a mental health social worker to the children-their teachers also were present throughout the programme and reinforced it outside the training programme. The teacher constantly made reference to the material presented (didactic sessions on Puerto Rican music, literature, arts, typical food; inter-relation between institution, family, school, church and cultural values). A positive enhancement of self-concept was recorded by the 'Primary self-concept Inventory'.

(q) Enhancement of Self-Concept through instructional Programmes in Classroom.

Efforts have been made by such studies in the classroom. For such studies various programmes are developed with the purpose of raising the self-concept of students, or to develop specific unit instruction or to meet the needs of student deficit in self acceptance. Such

programmes can also utilize the TA programmes, inputs for increased insight and awareness, improvement of oral communication skills and existing tests. Tests are conducted prior to and after the programmes. The results in each case have shown an enhanced self-concept or a significant change comes in the particular unit of instruction or the change in under achievers comes significantly. Thus Jones (1982) studied the effects of individualized programmed reading instruction on reading achievement and self-concept where as Rajbally (1983) studied the effect of a unit of instruction in developmental psychology upon the self-concept and academic achievement of students.

Such other studies have been undertaken by Watson (1983) to meet the needs of students deficient in self acceptance, Satyanarayan and Rajkumar (1983) studied the effects of T.A. concepts on emotional maturity, Sumitra Patel (1973) studied the extent to which self-esteem would change under the influence of group counselling, and Lydia Fernandes (1983) investigated the effect of counselling on the academic achievement upon the pre-adolescent and adolescent female under achievers. In this study the results revealed that both in the case of pre-adolescent and adolescent counselled underachievers the academic achievement become significantly greater than the pre-adolescent and adolescent non-counselled underachievers as well as non-counselled normal achievers.

### 3.8 DEVELOPMENTAL STUDIES IN N-Ach.

The earliest attempts of McClelland et al (1953) was to build up the theory of achievement motivation as a major constituent of psychological education. He looked upon psychological education as an attempt made at developing certain psychological traits in the individual, which would tend to change his behaviour, thought patterns, feelings and actions in desired directions. He evolved twelve major propositions as the foundation of his theory. These propositions were classified under achievement syndrome (A), self-study (S), Goal setting (G) and international supports (I). He drew up an entire input programme based on this model. His efforts were mainly concentrated on developing n-Ach among businessmen and industrialists through this input. He conducted such courses both in the U.S.A. and in India (1969). The level of n-Ach acquired was measured through TAT. As an outcome of this course the subjects showed an increase in entrepreneurship - they secured job promotion, increase in salary, they worked at expanding the plant by innovative practices and investing more capital, creating new job etc. The major experiments of this type were done by his team in India, one at Kakinada and the other at Vellore.

McClelland (1965) conducted an experiment among the students of Harvard University. He adapted his input

course to the school setting and exposed the subjects to this course which was separate and distinct from what was going on in the classroom. The training courses taught them new thought processes, how to go through peak emotional experiences and action strategies aimed at moderate goal-setting and pursuance of the same. The goals were career oriented.

In another course conducted by him in 1968 he experimented with the poorly motivated school children toward school performance. These were a group of potential dropouts or failures aged 15-17 years. The psychological education course of five days given them included inputs for achievement motivation development. The result was a remarkable behaviour change on those who completed the course even after a year and a half. They reported thinking very seriously about their vocational plan.

This type of inputs included in psychological education work better among adults than school children. For the latter, action inputs were more fruitful and meaningful. It was also realized that n-Ach would produce more lasting results in the business world where competition and the best production are always the main aims.

Other studies with children were undertaken by Alschuler (1971), De Charms et al (1976), Burris (1968), Kolbe (1965) to teach students to set useful goals, to

create internal motivation and external climate to facilitate achievement, to work toward mental health and normal human development, and to enhance n-Ach. DeCharma (1976) adopted the method of first training the teachers who then conducted the experiment for students over a period of three years. He introduced the 'Origin-Pawn' concept in training. An 'Origin' is in charge of himself, defines and governs his own life from within but a 'pawn' is a victim of circumstances and is controlled by powers outside himself. The conditions for enhancing motivation are included in promoting commitment, internal choice and responsibility within a person. These conditions have four basic elements which encourage feeling and acting like an origin. They are (i) self-study, (ii) internal goal-setting, (iii) planning and goal-directed behaviour and (iv) personal responsibility.

De Charm's study revealed significant growth in pupils in the areas as tested by the specially prepared tool on the origin-pawn climate.

Both Burris (1968) and Kolbe (1965) gave the groups special course in n-Ach through patterns, learning to score n-Ach categories, games involving achievement behaviour patterns, discussions and counselling on life problems and conflicts over achievement. The boys who were in experiment group (20) showed improved academic achievement than the controlled group (20) boys.

Rosenthal's (1968) study on giving a boost to students in their academic achievement through the study of teachers' self-fulfilling prophecy and the study of Rist (1978) are important.

In India developmental studies through the above methods for developing n-Ach were carried out by Mehta (1969), Heredero (1968), Desai (1970, 1971, 1972), Amita Choksi (1976) and Lakshmi (1976) Almost all these studies followed the method adopted by Decharm's i.e., giving motivation course to the teachers first and then these teachers in turn undertake the programmes on their students and a significant change on n-Ach was noticed.

By Desai (1971), Mehta (1969) Treatment was given on concern to achieve and to boost performance. In the studies of Mehta (1969) the teachers undertook three types of treatments i.e., (i) classroom motivation development Treatment ( $T_1$ ), (ii) Aspiration boosting treatment ( $T_2$ ), (iii) a combination of classroom motivation development and aspiration boosting ( $T_3$ ). The effect of  $T_3$  was found to be best in raising the achievement motivation. Then treatment of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  came in order of effectiveness. Desai (1970, 1971, 1972) also followed this pattern of three treatment through the teachers. In his case incentive was  $T_1$ , Classroom motivation development  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  was the combination of the 1st two. Teachers' programme included orienting the teachers for programme, creation

of setting in the classroom, changing communication behaviour, using feedback processes, expectation boosting and the value of extrinsic incentive. The students were given the incentive treatment model including the inputs of Counselling, competition, increasing expectation, grouping and feedback.

The results revealed that there was a significant difference in the n-Ach score of the pupils (TAT) in all the three treatments in project one and two. In the 2nd project the objective was to study the gain in achievement motive and pupil behaviour : In the third project a better self-image was the objective of treatment which was carried out through entering into oneself from a book entitled "Swapravesh".

Herdero (1968), Amita (1976) and Lakshmi (1976) all undertook studies for enhancing Achievement Motive. Herdero's course consisted of the packages of McClelland with objective of fostering initiative and independent thinking, to increase need for achievement and to develop personality. Amita and Lakshmi both developed upon the experiments taken previously, the former on the psychological input model of Desai's better self-image and the latter on McClelland's twelve propositions with regard to achievement syndrome. The results of both studies showed positive enhancement and growth and significant difference in behaviour.

### 3.9 CONCLUSION

It is believed by psychologists that the way in which an individual conceives of himself is the single most important factor in his personality structure. An individual's self-concept is at the heart of his normal human and psychological functioning. Man also aspires to make his life fruitful in concrete action. Enhancing an individual's positive self-image and his motivation to achieve would therefore amount to making the person more healthy and fruitful. All the intervention studies done in this line could be very well likened to a tree : "the tree of health (the self-image) and fruitfulness (n-Ach)".

A good number of intervention studies have been reported in this chapter which have been conducted for enhancement of n-Ach as well as positive self-image. On observation one finds that most of the researchers have worked with a corrective approach to remove a deficiency: to improve academic standards of pupils, to improve their mental health etc. The studies of Heredero (1968), Mehta (1969, 1972, 1976), Pareek, Desai (1969, 1971, 1972) Amita Choksi (1976), and Lakshmi (1976) have made valuable contribution as they adopted a humanistic approach.

The present study is not clinical, not corrective,

not pathological, not remedial. It is simply a search on the level of self-concept of teachers and that self-concept and self-esteem of teachers does help them on to achieve higher in their job as teachers. And that in the measure of their self-concept teachers remain glow on in their profession overcoming the trials and stress of life, and that they find fulfilment and meaning in their lives.

### 3.10 REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON WORK VALUES

#### (a) The nature and meaning of work

The nature and meaning of work have changed almost as much through the ages as society has, for example, it was considered a curse in the classical societies of Greece and Rome, a result of the condemnation of hostile gods (Wrenn 1964). A basis for a commoner's belief in his own worth was his work. Religious attitudes also played a part in shaping man's view of work. "In the sweat of your face you shall eat bread" (Gen.3:19) refers to hard work as being man's lot for his whole life.

The European traditions of "work as a basis of dignity" and "work as religious virtue" were joined in the early pioneer history of America by another tradition by work as a means of survival. This was later removed as industrial revolution took hold and more

emphasis was given to intellectual work.

(b) Values in life and work

Values are defined as qualities which are regarded as intrinsically desirable (Webster's Unabridged) and as desirable ends or means to ends (English and English 1958). They are the qualities which people desire and which they seek in activities in which they engage, in the situations in which they live and in the objects which they make or acquire. Values are related to interests but differ in that they are the qualities sought rather than the activities or objects which embody them; they are thus more fundamental. Scientific interests for example, embody or make possible the satisfaction of the intellectual values of knowing and understanding and business interests are more likely to result in the attainment of material economic values.

Thus there are correlations between interest of a person in his work and satisfaction. But while they are frequently significant statistically, they are unusually too small (in 20s and 30s) to have much practical significance (strong 1955, super 1964, Tyler 1965). Correlation is also existing between interest and success in some occupations e.g. salesmen and vehicle operators but here too correlation tends to be quite low.

Much has been written concerning values by Philosophers (Morris, 1956, Rosenberg, 1957), Political Scientists (Jacob, 1957), economists (Ginzberg, et al. 1951), psychologists (Darley and Hagenah, 1955; Rokeach, 1968; Super, 1957; Vroom, 1964) and members of other disciplines. Ginzberg and associates basing themselves largely on informal observation differentiated between intrinsic and extrinsic values and in the latter category made a further distinction between the concomitants and rewards of work. Darley and Hagenah (1955) building on earlier thinking by Frayer (1931) made a somewhat similar distinction in their discussion of interests, contrasting the intrinsic interests of work which is valued for its own sake with work which is interesting largely because of what it makes possible in the way of association with people or other outcomes.

In the following pages a short review of the studies undertaken on work values is being presented.

(c) Studies based on Work Values Inventory.

Work Values Inventory was developed by Donald E. Super in 1951 to meet the need for a means of assessing the wide range of goals or values which motivate man to work. It is designed to measure the values which are extrinsic to as well as those which are intrinsic in work, the satisfaction which men and women seek in work

and the satisfaction which may be the concomitants or 143  
outcomes of work. It seeks to measure these in boys and  
girls, in men and women, at all age levels beginning with  
entry into junior high school. It is both in the variety  
of values tapped and in the ages for which it is appropriate,  
a wide-range values inventory.

The WVI was standardized by administering it in the  
spring of 1968 to a national sample of 10,083 students in  
grades 7-12. Boys and girls were about equally represented  
in the sample. The sampling procedure developed by Dr. John  
T. Dailey for the Project Talent Survey was utilized to  
draw the sample for the WVI standardization.

Riegel (1983) made a study on career choice, Work  
Values and Career commitment of Food Service and Housing  
Administration students of Pennsylvania State University.  
The 207 students taken as sample were enrolled in a  
baccalaureate degree programme in Hotel, Restaurant and  
Institutional Management.

Using Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory and the  
Career Commitment Index, the author reached to the  
following conclusions : (1) That a moderate linear  
relationship between Work Values and career commitment  
is suggested. The highest correlations were between CCI  
scores and the following WVI dimensions : (a) Management,  
(b) Achievement, (c) Creativity, (d) Altruism,

(e) Independence and (f) Aesthetic.

It was found that students aspiring to careers in different segments of the hospitality industry exhibited different patterns of work values. The WVI dimension scores of FSHA students strongly resembled the WVI dimension scores of students in a similar programme at a different institution.

While a significant and incrementally positive relationship was found between CCI scores and faculty modelling influences, participation in programme related student organisations and positive perceptions of programme quality, no significant differences in CCI scores existed who reported differing amounts of pre-enrolment work experience, nor did any significant differences exist between students who reported the influence of a filled practitioner model on career choice and those who did not.

Similarly, varying amounts of exposure to the programme by students did not show any significant differences in CCI mean scores or W.V.I. dimension scores. And no significant relationship was found between the amount of post-enrolment work experience and CCI scores. Also, work experience in areas unrelated to the hospitality industry was not significantly related to CCI scores.

Weaver M.A.H. (1983) studied the work Values of Children (Grade K-6). The eleven values measured by the

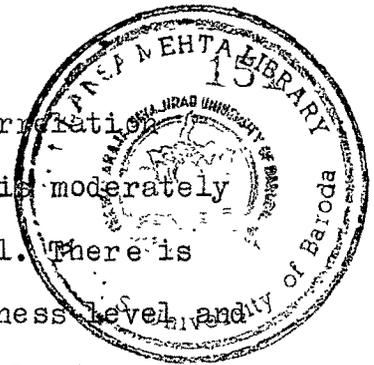
Ohio Work Value Inventory were Altruism, Object Orientation, Security, Control, Self-Realization, Independence, Money, Task Satisfaction, Solitude, Ideas/Data and Prestige. From the independent variables it was discovered that gender did not have any significant association with the eleven work values. However, Grade level was shown to have a significant association with Security, Self-Realization, Independence, Task Satisfaction and Solitude. Reading Achievement was significantly associated with Task Satisfaction. But the hypothesis of an association between occupations of parents and work Values was rejected.

W.V.I. has been applied not only to the normal employees but also to the chronically unemployed adult epileptics. Gray J.D. (1982) undertook a study for his Ph.D. degree on Work Values and Assertiveness Levels in Employed and Unemployed Epileptic. On two hundred adult epileptics in North Florida area the Adult Self Expression Scale (ASES) and the Work Values Inventory were administered. Only one half of the sample was employed and the other half were chronically unemployed adult epileptics.

It was found that employed epileptics scored significantly higher on the WVI than chronically unemployed epileptics.

To find out the correlation between the ASES and the WVI, a Pearson product moment correlation was used.

The Pearson product correlation yielded a correlation coefficient equal to .5554. The correlation is moderately high and it is significant at the .0001 level. There is a significant relationship between assertiveness level and Work Values as measured by the ASES and the WVI for employed epileptics.



Based on the results of this study, the need for assertion and work values training for chronically unemployed adult epileptics is suggested.

W.V.I. has also been effective in the classroom and in obtaining high standardized test results through the increase in identified significant work values of Investigative, social and leadership in certificated staff members. This study was undertaken by Slatinsky C.F. (1983). In 1961 California School Districts were required by law to test students achievement.

This study investigated the work values of a district personnel in high and low student achieving schools. To determine the high and low groupings a comprehensive Test of Basic skills was utilized. Ten sub-problems investigated to determine common work values in relationship to gender, longevity, teaching assignment and degrees.

The findings showed relationships exist between grade level taught, longevity and advanced degrees, in the high achieving schools. There were no significant relationships

existing for the low achieving schools. This indicated that those individuals in high achieving schools had more significant common work values than those individuals in the low achieving schools.

These conclusions led to the recommendations made to the Santee School District Administration to implement a work Values inventory for all potential certificated staff members, together with a programme that would enhance the work value of investigative in their staff members and relate this work value to the instructional approaches used in the classroom. Other recommendations were the incentive to be taken to encourage staff members to gain higher level degrees; to explore possibilities of developing leadership workshops for interested staff members and explore possibilities of a programme for its administrative staff in relationship to service projects.

The changing circumstances, events and mentality in the society is bound to bring changes also in the meaning and attitudes of Work Values of people. Such a change had been noticed in American Society particularly due to the rapid growth of Community Colleges. Pfeifer (1983) of Temple University investigated the relationship of the meaning and value of work of Public Community College students, Counselors and teachers in the State of Delaware. The purpose was to determine (i) whether or not community College Students perceived the meaning and value of work

in the same manner as their counselors and teachers,  
(2) Whether the perception of the meaning and value of work was similar in the students attending community colleges serving urban, suburban or rural communities and (3) Whether or not community college students enrolled in the four major curriculum clusters of Allied Health, Business Administration, Engineering and Public Service perceive the meaning and value of work in the same manner.

The study was conducted during the fall of 1981 at the four campuses of Delaware Technical and Community College. The data were collected by means of the Meaning and Value of Work Scale (MVWS), on 1114 sample for Meaning of Work and 1083 for Value of Work.

The findings reveal that there are differences between community college students and those who teach them in their perception of both the meaning and value of work. Community College students and their Counselors have a similar perception of the meaning of work but differ in their perception of the value of work. But community college Counselors and instructors have a similar perception of the meaning and Value of Work. Students enrolled at the suburban campus of the college had a different perception of the meaning of work from those students enrolled at the rural campuses. Students from the urban, suburban and rural campuses seem to share similar perceptions of the value of work. Students

enrolled in the Engineering Cluster differ in their perceptions of the meaning and value of work when compared to students enrolled in the other three clusters.

Statton's, . (1983) investigation of attitudes toward work of employed and unemployed adults showed no significant differences in the work attitudes of employed and unemployed adults secondly, only the demographic variable of income was found to predict attitudes toward work. Those with lower income had a more positive attitude toward work than those with higher income. "Higher job satisfaction on all other factors" in Parochial Schools in Kausal (Lee; 1983) show similar positive attitude toward work.

The Data were collected from employed and unemployed adults from the Richmond Metropolitan Area of Richmond, Virginia. Through this study it was found that the Employment Readiness Scale (ERS) (Alfano, 1973) is fit to be utilized to assess work attitudes of a large metropolitan population.

Shobe (1983) in his study of Quality of Work Life as perceived by Elementary School Principals and School Teachers which is a combination of job satisfaction, job involvement and motivation and a balance between work and other aspects of a person's life found that a person may be said to have a high QWL when feelings are positive

toward the job, when he is motivated to stay on the job and do it well and when he feels that the job fits with the other demands that are made upon the person by life.

Strong's 18 year follow up has shown that those who remain in the occupation tend to be satisfied. Eighty per cent of his subjects who were in business or the professions reported that they were well satisfied with their occupation (Strong, 1955, p.117). This obviously reduces the variability in the occupational group and depresses the correlations which are obtained when interests are related to performance and satisfaction.

Candra's (1977), study of perception of work values in teaching and certain non-teaching occupations such as doctors, engineers, lawyers and administrators has revealed that comparison of the means of work value scores within each of the five occupational groups yielded two or three clusters of work values in all the occupations except that of engineers.

(i) Comparison of teachers' perception of work values in teaching with other groups' perception of the same values in their own jobs revealed that teachers and doctors perceived their jobs almost similar.

(ii) It was also discovered that teachers and administrators perceived eight of the twelve Work Values similarly; there was great incompatibility in teachers,

versus lawyers' and teachers' versus engineers' was the highest in all the occupational groups.

(iii) The comparison of teachers' perception of work values in their own group and other groups did not reveal any significant difference in the perception of Work Value among teachers and doctors. Teachers felt that their job offered more independence and opportunities of social service than lawyers' job. Teachers also felt that their job offered more opportunities of social service, intellectual work and freedom than engineers' job and they also found their job provided intellectual challenge and independence than administrators' job.

(iv) Comparison of teachers' perception and each of other groups' perception of work values in teaching revealed a general agreement among all the groups regarding what teaching had to offer in terms of power to its employees. Lawyers differed significantly from teachers in their judgement of teachers' job on most of the work values.

(vi) Teachers with favourable attitude towards teaching perceived their job favourably on work values like social service, intellectual challenge, prestige etc.

(vii) Effective teachers differed significantly from ineffective teachers on work values like economic return, social service etc.

(viii) There were differences in nature, magnitude

and order of appearance of factors that emerged in the perception of work values in different occupational groups. The factor evaluation, was most common to the factor structure of all the five groups Work morality which was a socially evaluative mode of general factor of evaluation, when added to it, made this factor most preponderant in the percept of all groups.

Frankl, . (1965) in his work 'Doctor And the Soul' brings out three important features of work. To him:  
(i) Work is a response to meaning of life; (ii) It does not provide self fulfilment, (iii) The manner of accomplishing the job is more important than the job itself.

(i) Frankl considers work only as an expression of the meaning of life which man finds and then values. To him the meaning of life is to be responded to, not in words but by doing, in action. The right response will be an active response within the actual conditions of everyday living within the area of human responsibility. And within this area every man is indispensable and irreplaceable. Each person is indispensable to carryout the concrete personal task which he calls a 'mission'. But this 'mission' no person would be able to carryout or accomplish without the perception of the unique meaning of his singular existence. He would be numbered in difficult situations.

Frankl agrees with research findings that values motivate a person to work. But he says that as long as creative values are in the forefront of the life task, their actualization coincides with the person's work. Work usually represents the area in which the individual's uniqueness stands in relation to society and thus acquires meaning and value.

(ii) Work and self fulfilment.

Frankl does not agree that a particular job or work offers a person the opportunity for fulfilment. Hence no one occupation is the sole road to salvation. He takes the example of persons with a neurotic tinge who insist that they could have fulfilled themselves if only they had entered a different occupation. He calls this assertion either a misunderstanding of what occupation means or a self deception. "In such cases where an occupation does not allow a sense of fulfilment to arise, the fault is in the person, not in the work. The work in itself does not make a person indispensable and irreplaceable, it only gives him the chance to be so".(Frankl,1965).

(iii) Importance of the performance of job is more than the job itself. Frankl asserts that the job at which one works is not what counts but the manner in which one does the work. This shows us the importance of the person and the uniqueness of his existence which are expressed

in the work and this makes life meaningful. Frankl gives the example of medical personnel - the doctors and the nurses. He says that the meaning of the doctor's work lies in what he does beyond his purely medical duties, as a human being what he brings to his work, his concern for the person he is treating, his love and care which gives value to his work than practising simple medical tricks of his profession. In other words it is the human relationship which gives value to the art of medical profession. Hence this is the 'Goodness of life' of factor II (O'Connor et al 1961).

It is clear that such dedication of medical personnel to their job, gives them inner satisfaction as they establish good relationships with their patients. They transcend the focus on self. It is a direction they give to their lives to something other than self, a cause to serve (patients) or another person to relate to or love. This is akin to the Altruism aspect of Work Value by which people find satisfaction by working to help others.

(d) Work Value And Age.

Hana (1954) used the W.V.I. to demonstrate a lack of age and grade differences in values during the junior and senior high school years. The mean and standard deviations for the 7th and 12th grade boys (N=3832, N=2653 respectively) and girls (N=4312, N=3671 respectively) in

the national sample on which the Form was standardized shows that the differences are of no practical significance.

Boys appear to show some slight decrease in Altruism as they progress from grade 7 to grade 12 and a similar decrease in Esthetic scores is noticeable. Girls show grade changes in values which are generally similar to those suggested in boys, details of which are not of practical value.

(e) Work Value and Sex

Work Values have frequently been observed to differ with sex. Hence means and standard deviations for boys and girls, at 7th and 12th grade levels, are compared. Girls tend to make slightly higher scores on Altruism scale in the 12th grade, but differ less if at all in 7th, at which level sex differences in values are truly negligible. Boys tend to make higher scores on the Independence scale in 12th grade, but the difference in 7th grade is negligible.

The greater concern of girls with human values (and perhaps with achievement, in a school setting), and the greater stress put by boys on independence (and perhaps on material considerations) are such as one might expect to find with a values inventory. None of the differences are clear-cut, for the two sexes overlap considerably on each value scale.

(f) Conclusion.

Values as stated earlier are qualities which are regarded as intrinsically desirable and are desirable ends or means to ends. Work Values therefore are qualities of work or job which are desirable as means or ends which is the satisfaction in a person's life and which ultimately leads him to happiness in life. Work values as a psychological correlate is intrinsically related and desirable for teachers - both tribal and non-tribal - of the High Schools of South Chotanagpur. Together with other psychological correlates, Work Values Inventory is intended to measure the perceived glow-on and burnout in the teachers. The instruments of these correlates will be described in detail in the next chapter.

3.11 REVIEW OF STUDIES ON TRIBAL TEACHERS

As stated earlier teachers in general and tribal teachers in particular have been neglected subjects in research. Hence there are few studies made upon them. According to Third All-India Educational Survey (1979) there are 87,069 teachers belonging to the scheduled tribe group which covers up 3.36 per cent of the total teachers population of India. The total number being 26,38,777 teachers in all stages of schools in the country. The percentage of teachers belonging to scheduled tribes teaching at the secondary stage is 1.37 as a whole in the

country, out of which 68.93 per cent in the rural areas and 31.07 per cent are employed in urban areas.

A few research studies undertaken upon tribal teachers are stated here.

Gore et al (1970, 179-271) in the All-India Report of the Field Studies in the Sociology of Education (NCERT) have made an extensive survey of teachers both Primary and Secondary (pp.179-271). Samples were taken from the schools of eight states of Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab and Rajasthan. Investigation was made on the Socio-Economic Status, the occupational and educational background of teachers, their academic and professional life, their views and opinions on various aspect of educational system and their social attitudes and values.

The method adopted for data collection was a self administered questionnaire for the various categories of respondents.

Due to the nature of Indian society where the profession of teachers was ascribed to a special groups, the new factors to be considered were age, caste, religion, language, the social and economic background of teachers has a comparative influence on the profession of teachers.

With regard to teacher's commitment to the profession it was found that they had acquired the qualifications

not because they were genuinely interested in the occupation but because they were compelled to acquire them, though in general it was found that a smaller percentage of men Secondary teachers went into teaching as their first choice as compared with men and women primary teachers. Women Secondary teachers took to teaching as a first choice in larger percentage than men teachers in every state except Mysore. In Mysore 60 per cent men teachers and 50 per cent women teachers took to teaching as the first choice. In other states the percentage of women teachers who took to teaching as the first choice varies between 56 and 81.

Women teachers as distinguished from men, went into teaching as their first choice in larger percentages than men. Primary women teachers went into teaching as their first choice in larger percentages than secondary women teachers. Also men primary teachers went into teaching as their first choice in larger percentages than men secondary teachers.

In the stratificatory system of the traditional Indian society where teaching was generally the privilege of the Brahmins, caste plays an important role. It was found that in all eight states except Andhra and Mysore, the "other Castes" (Upper Castes) is the single largest caste group among the men and women primary teachers. The percentages of women teachers (70+95) is higher than

men teachers (55-85) in this category.

In Andhra among men teachers the percentage of "other backward castes" teachers is the same as that of the "other castes" teachers. The scheduled castes are nearly half of that percentage.

Among women teachers in Andhra those to whom caste is not applicable e.g., Muslims and Christians form the single largest group. They are 47 per cent of the women primary teachers. The other (upper) castes are 26 per cent and the other backward castes are 21 per cent. The scheduled caste women teachers are 6 per cent.

In Mysore the other backward castes are the single largest group among men teachers (47 per cent). The other castes are the second largest group (31 per cent). The scheduled castes are only 6 per cent.

Among women teachers the other castes and those to whom caste is not applicable are 35 per cent and 33 per cent respectively. The other backward castes are 19 per cent and the scheduled castes are 7 per cent.

In the Secondary stage, in no state including Andhra and Mysore, are the scheduled caste men teachers more than 8 per cent of the sample (average 5 per cent.) In two (Orissa & Rajasthan) there are no scheduled caste teachers and in four states (Andhra, Mysore, Orissa and Rajasthan) there are no scheduled Caste women teachers.

Where they are, they are only 4 per cent.

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The other backward castes are better off than the scheduled castes. There are 24 per cent men teachers in Mysore, 17 per cent in Andhra, 9 per cent in Orissa, 6 per cent in Punjab and Rajasthan each. In Maharashtra, Bengal and Gujarat they are 3 per cent, 1 per cent and 1 per cent respectively.

There are no women teachers of other backward castes in Andhra and Rajasthan but there are 14 per cent in West Bengal, 7 per cent in Mysore, 3 per cent in Maharashtra, 5 per cent in Orissa and 1 per cent each in Gujarat and Punjab.

Another important aspect of teachers measured was their self-concept. It was done by asking them two questions i.e., In Your view how much attention do politicians (leaders of the country) pay to the opinions of people like yourself? The alternative answers provided were (1) a great deal, (2) only a little, (3) none at all, (4) I don't know.

Those who said "only a little" were considered as those believing that their self was important but not much. The difference between them and those who said "a great deal" is of degree. But they are among those who considered their self as important.

The second question asked of them was "Have you ever

talked or written some government official or political leader to tell him your opinion on some political issue, such as what the government should do about education?" the answers provided were (1) many times; (2) sometimes; (3) never.

Here too measurement of self was done as for the first question. Those who said "sometimes" were considered among those who believed that their self was important but a little less than those who said that they wrote "many times".

Comparing the percentages of those who replied "a great deal" and those who said "only a little", it seemed that the primary teachers do not consider themselves unimportant. The percentage of those who believed themselves important is not very large. However, in view of the general impression about primary teachers as a low paid, neglected lot, the percentage of teachers who feel that their opinion is needed "a great deal" cannot be considered too small either.

Considered on the whole the primary teachers, men and women, believed themselves as important in larger percentages than secondary teachers.

On the second question too, the largest percentage of men and women primary and secondary teachers replied that they had never talked or written to any official or

leader. Thus again it appears that the percentage of teachers who have never written or talked to officers and political leaders is generally larger among secondary school teachers than among primary teachers.

The percentage of those who said that they, talked or wrote to officers or leaders "many times" is the smallest among all groups of teachers. Among the men teachers the primary men teachers have slight plurality over the secondary teachers. The percentage of women are generally negligible.

It could be summarised that in no state is the percentage of men teachers who wrote or communicated with Government "many times" or "sometimes" more than 40. In many states the percentage of primary men teachers who give these responses is slightly higher than for secondary men teachers.

Ambasht (1970) investigating "Tribal Education has covered all the tribes of the old Ranchi district. Through Likert type questionnaire, the attitudes of teachers and students were measured. For Primary school children the schedule questionnaire were used which were helped by teachers. These questionnaire were supplemented by schedules, interviews and observations. Taking the sample of 300 students and fifty one teachers selected on stratified random sampling from the three tribes of Oraon,

Munda, Kharia and Non-Tribal teachers of both sexes the investigation was accomplished.

The importance of the traditional institution like Dhumkuria and Giti Ora of the Tribals in educating the youth was dealt with. It was found that the effective working through the agency of modern education among Tribals started as Christian missionaries came i.e., from 1852. He shows the effectiveness of these modern educational agencies by giving the number of schools which depicted its growth, The number of primary schools was 16 in 1871-73 which rose to 172 in 1964. Similarly the number of high schools rose from one in 1895 to 12 in 1964 by one sect of the Church (G.E.L.)

The schools run by the Catholic Church are categorised as Village Primary, Central and Village Upper Primary schools, Boys' Middle and Girls' Middle Schools. Their number upto 1969 is as follows :

	<u>No. of Schools</u>	<u>No. of Teachers</u>	<u>No. of Students</u>
1. Village Primary	340	422	16,026
2. Central and Village upper Primary	74	266	10,757
3. Boys' Middle Schools	52	439	18,161
4. Girls' Middle Schools	27	216	7,968
Total	<u>493</u>	<u>1,343</u>	<u>52,912</u>

He found that "all the 1,343 teachers are tribal Christians and about 90 per cent of the students are

tribals of which very insignificant proportion is of unconverted people." (Ambasht, 1970, p.53).

The Adimjati Seva Mandal too had several Seva Kendra and by 1940 the total number of schools (High, Middle, Upper Primary and Lower Primary) totalled 212 where 456 teachers were employed teaching 17,767 (13,336 boys and 4,431 girls) students.

The findings of this study are the liking of the tribal teachers by students. Out of 300 students +49 were in favour of tribal teachers; +1 for non-Tribal teachers and +213 for tribal Christian teachers, 9 did not answer the questions.

Secondly, the reasons for liking them is -

- because of their belonging to their same religion and being tribal;
- they are clean, tell interesting Bible stories, get loving treatment, help the students, speak their language;
- there are also reasons for not liking them which are;
- because of their change of religion, not liked by them, do not get help from them propagating their religion etc.

The attitudes of teachers towards their students were also taken by means of interviews observation, whereas for attitude towards the teachers, Parents, Guardians,

social workers, students, official and non-official agencies were interviewed.

Majority of the teachers liked their students who were tribals (62.7 per cent). Tribal Christians were honest and faithful (84.3 per cent) and obedient (86.3 per cent).

Toppo (1978) in her study "Dynamics of Educational Development in Tribal India" has brought out the change which has taken place in the Oraons of Ranchi. Besides the Geographical and Socio-Cultural background of Ranchi district the author has included the traditional institutions of the Dhumkuria of the Oraon and the Ghotul of the Muria as well as the Naga's Morung. The role of the Christian Missionaries and the Adimjati Seva Mandal in the educational development of Oraons, has been highlighted together with the constitutional safeguards and the provisions of the Five Year Plans for economic development. The researcher has assiduously investigated the Oraons at modern schools, Colleges, University (Indian & Foreign). She applied the statistical analysis on Schedules on the Oraon students, their school, teachers, parents and guardians, interviewed ten female and fifteen male teachers as well as Oraon College boys and girls.

The effect of education among the oraons (her findings) are the following. A change has taken place in the outlook of the Oraons towards education. A difference

is found between the educated and non-educated Oraon with regard to joint family, village community life, increase of social distance among kinsmen, On traditional dances and songs as well as their views on marriage and material culture.

Rathnaiah (1977) made a survey of the Adilabad District of Andhra Pradesh. The district is tribal populated and inaccessible. The author discovered that due to its inaccessible nature teachers with good quality and training are not attracted. Consequently education in these areas suffer.

It was found that in the area under survey that 80.9 per cent of tribal teachers have low educational qualification i.e., below middle standard 12.4 per cent had their education upto middle standard and only seven per cent are matriculates, whereas the majority (53.7 per cent) of the non-tribal teachers are matriculates and 46.3 per cent of them had their education upto middle standard and there is no teacher below that level of education. Thus a difference between Tribal and non-tribal teachers is found in the general educational qualification.

Regarding the training qualifications of teachers too the difference was discovered. 79.2 per cent of the tribal teachers had their training at the Tribal Training Centres of Marlawai and Ginnedhari and there are no

Secondary grade trained teachers among them. Only 6.2 per cent of the tribals had undergone elementary grade training; whereas among the non-tribal teachers 42.3 per cent are secondary grade trained and 46.3 per cent are elementary grade trained and from these, there are no certificate holders from the Tribal Training Centres. It is significant to note that untrained teachers both among tribals and non-tribals are only a few in number. There are only two tribal women teachers in the two blocks together.

Among tribal teachers 52 per cent are Gonds, 34 per cent Pardhans, and 14 per cent other tribal groups. Among the non-tribal teachers 14 per cent belong to scheduled castes, 44 per cent backward castes and 42 per cent belong to other caste groups.

When the non-Tribal teachers are appointed in the Tribal area, much more is expected of them in regard to learning tribal language and understanding the tribals they are intended to teach. (pp.152-157).

Kar. B.C. (1962) in the Journal of University of Gauhati has given an account of the background of tribal people and described the problems faced by them and the teachers. He has shown the role of teachers in a tribal Community which is a very important one. Teachers become virtually the leaders of the community in such backward areas.

A few researchers while giving general background of tribal population has nevertheless analysed the characteristics of educational system as found among the tribes. They suggested practical problems arising from the contents of textbooks, medium of instruction and above all "the methods of teaching, types of schools and training of tribal teachers" (Chattopadhyaya 1953, pp.1-18), (Chatterji B., 1953, pp.281-291).

### 3.12 STUDIES ON TRIBAL'S SELF-IMAGE AND IDENTITY

Writers like Sahay (1962) point out that there has been little work done so far as the tribal self image is concerned. The reasons pointed out by him are valid too. It is because the tribals are studied from the researchers point of view and not from the former's view point. In this too only a few studies of reference groups of tribes like Santal, the Oraon and the Munda have been attempted.

Three ways have been adopted for this study (Sahay, 1962) :

- i) The first is the etymological way.
- ii) Through the legends and traditions associated with the names of particular tribes.
- iii) By analysing the biographical studies and writings of tribals along with some of their slogans.

By the tribals - the Munda, the Ho, the Santal and Bhumij, speaking a dialect of the Mundari group of languages the term Kol is used (Roy 1915b; 12). It is used in various forms like har, ho, and horo meaning a man (Russell et al 1916 - 501-502). The Munda tribe calls it self by this term. The word Koru is the corruption of Kodaku (Young man ) used by the Hindus when they heard the Mundas call themselves by the term Horoko. Korar is a name given by the Kharia of Chotanagpur to their neighbour which resembles the word Kol (Hasan, 1972: 10). However, this term signifies contempt and hence the Munda tribe of Bihar do not like to be called by this term (Sahay, 1962). The real term for the Mundas in Munda Honko (Sons of the Munda) or Horoko - men (Van Exam) 1973).

Asure of Neterhat plateau call themselves so because they consider themselves powerful and take pride in their ancestors' acts of bravery (Leuva, 1963, 34). Regarding the Oraon, Roy (1915b, 3-7) identifies them by the term Kurukh resembling Krsak or Kisan because of their cultivation nature of the group. But Lakra calls them Uraon- which is a Dravidian term meaning the inhabitants of a village. Birhor is an exact conotation for forest dwellers (Dalton, 1872, 219) as they earn their livelihood by cutting wood to make ropes for sale. The Kisan or Nagesia (in some parts) also give themselves this name as they have been following this occupation of cultivation. (Dalton, 1872, 127).

The Maler call themselves by this name (Male) which is derived from their native word Malto meaning hill man. Maler (plural of Male) is the specific name of the tribe living in the Rajmahal hills (Vidyarthi 1963: 57-59) All other hill tribes of Santal Parganas are called Paharia (hill man).

The Kharia term is considered to be a contraction of Kharkharia meaning the bearer of palanquin or litter (Hiralal 1916: 446) which was opposed by Roy (1937). According to him in Chotanagpur which is the principal Centre of the Dudh Kharia (one of the three sections of the tribe), these people hold a fairly high position and so are not generally employed as palanquin bearers. It is probable that the name Kharia is a variant of the tribal names horo (man) adopted by the Munda, Ho, or Hor adopted by the Ho, Korku adopted by the Korbu or Koraku and Korwa adopted by another branch of what was describes as the "Munda race". (Roy et al 1937: 24-25).

According to recent research by Doongdoong (1981, 2) the term of the tribe is not Kharia but Kharia. The legend of the derivation according to this author is from a place in Burma "Khuria or Khoria" to which the tribes in their way from central Asia to Chotanagpur had passed through (Doongdoong, 1981, 3).

Hans (1965) in self-identification and Destiny of

Tribal Awakening says that all the names given to the tribals are "relative terms". Tribals were seen in relation to themselves and others in a particular time and place, and also 'underdeveloped' meaning relatively speaking, much less developed than others. One of the earliest descriptions of ourselves is the racial name evolved for itself by one race belonging to those speaking the so-called Mon Khmer group of language. They call themselves the 'Horo' race which means the race of 'human beings'. To themselves therefore in the first instance the aboriginal tribes are just human beings (Hans, 1965).

Some group of tribals and tribal leaders identify themselves with the Sarna religion which they follow and which has been handed down to them by their forefathers and which according to them is the best religion and which requires of them regular puja of their ancestors (Vidyarthi 1971a).

Self-Image has also been projected in slogans by the tribals which were raised before the "study Team of Joint Committee of Parliament on de-scheduling of the Scheduled Tribes" which came to Ranchi in 1966. They hailed the tribal culture as the most primitive not bearing any impact of other religions. They also identify themselves with Birsa Bhagwan who fought with the Christian missionaries for the sake of tribal religion. They profess being

primitive and assign to Sarna Devi a position of pride in their culture. The tribals view themselves as "simple, poor and uneducated" but in no way suffer from a sense of inferiority when they say "one can get God even by practising non-tribal sarna religion". They feel proud in practising their tribal religion. (Sahay, 1962).

### 3.13 STUDIES ON CHANGING SELF-IMAGE AND IDENTITY OF TRIBALS

Change is in the nature of things. Even the hardest rocks undergo change to a certain extent when exposed to the agents of erosion. A society of human beings would not survive if it resists change continuously. Sharma (1951) in his article "Tribal Welfare" is of the opinion that "forces that are static always lead to decay and that's the obvious cause of the dying out or the decay of tribal cultures in so many areas of the world." (p.89). As examples he gives the tribes among the Tasmanian and Veddah in Ceylon etc.

Singh (1982) rightly says "Today, the tribes which answer to Anthropologists' conception of the ideal type are rarely to be found. We only find the tribals in transition" Bouteille (1977, 14) opined that in India we cannot have a ready-made definition with which one can go into the field and locate a tribe. None of the tribes exist as a separate society. They have all been absorbed

in varying degree into the wider social structure. The process of absorption has been going on for years.

Boase (1971, 2) states that nearly all the tribal people in India have been in almost continuous contact with their neighbours who live by farming (Vidyarthi, 1976, 25) and a large number of specialized manual industries, to which Vidyarthi (1976-25) adds that the love hate situation between them eventually brought about great changes.

Thus the tribal self-image has undergone a change due to several factors like the forces of Hinduism and Christianity (Majumdar 1944, Ghurye, 1959, 19, Sahay 1962, Singh, 1982; Sinha, 1983; Vidyarthi, 1970) industrialisation, and urbanisation, modernization, education and political awareness.

Majumdar (1944b, 95) observes that from the very early times there has been a gradual and insensible change from the tribe to caste and there are many processes of conversion from tribe to caste. According to him most of the lower castes of to-day had a tribal origin. Majumdar observes this change over is among other things a change of identity and self-image. The process of change starts the moment a tribe identifies itself with Hindus. Here the examples presented by him are of those of the Bhunyas and Mushars of Bihar, the Kharwar of Palamau. Ven Besouw (1978) considers marriage with the Hindu caste is also causing detribalization.

Griffiths (1946, 276-277), Srinivas (1952, 213-214) Sahay (1962), Vidyarthi (1976, 454-474) all agree that change of identify in these ways are still taking place or have taken place in the past. It is from this point of view of change Ghurye (1959, 19) considered the tribals as "backward Hindus". Sahay (1980) states that we talk about conversion from a tribe to caste or use the application 'Hinduised Tribe' in fact it mainly refers to the change over from one type of social structure to the other.

Christianity is also responsible for bringing a definite change in the self image and identify of the tribals. In Bihar one-tenth of the total tribal population is Christian-Kharias are two-thirds, Mundas one-fourth and Oraons one fourth. ( Vidyarthi 1976-459). Sahay (1963) made a detailed study of the tribal Christian converts of Chotanagpur. This study helps us to understand as to how Christianity has brought about a change of self image and identity among the tribal converts.

The tribal converts immediately show some difference in their behaviour and acquire a "sense of superiority" over the non-Christians. They dissociate themselves from the non-christians, thinking that the latter are "inferior" people engaged in "spirit worship" which they considered no religion at all. Whereas they regard themselves the followers of best religion of the world. The reasons for keeping aloof was that the non-Christian, tribals had bad habits of excessive drink, speaking filthy language

and use of vulgar tongue and lack of good manners or civic sense. The Christian converts considered themselves free from such vices and regard themselves better than non-Christians. According to Sahay (1963) even among the various groups of Christians each considers itself superior to the other. Catholics consider themselves true followers of Christianity whilst Lutherans are those who protested against the original Church and the Anglicans the followers of King Henry the Eighth. But the Lutherans pride themselves of being independent listeners of the Bible and have given up the habit of drinking and call the Catholics idol or image worshippers.

A significant development found among the Christian converts is that the denominational loyalty has cut across kinship and ethnic loyalty which brings them in close association with the converts from other tribes and people. This definitely has brought a tremendous transformation in their self image and identity. Its extreme form of development according to Sahay (1963) can be found in the identity of tribal converts within Christian Communities of the same denomination throughout the world, which works through international channels of communications of the Church (Vidyarthi, 1976, 460).

Dhan (1967) considers urbanization as a means of creation of ties cutting across tribal affiliations. The formation of various associations and clubs indicate that

similarity of interests rather than tribal affiliation is the criterion for membership.

Singh (1982) states that the tribal belt of Bihar is in the grip of industrial revolution and consequent rapid urbanization comparatively in a very short span of time (Vidyarthi, 1970).

The region has become subjected to industry - based urban explosion which has changed the ethos, world view, way of life and culture of the tribal population of the region to a considerable extent. Vidyarthi clearly points out that in Chotanagpur urbanization is a companion of industrialization. It involves migration of workers from different regions who wish to get some employment in towns. Urban life experience gives them a sense of pride in the meagre wages they earn.

Sachchidananda (1954-1959) associates modernization with growth of education and Tribal movement in Chotanagpur (Ray, 1980, Verma et al). Sachchidananda (1972b) sets forth the reasons for discontent among the Tribals of Chotanagpur as in tribal areas of other parts of India. The process of modernization, rising expectations and growth of education, a middle class has emerged among the tribals. This class is the most vocal and articulate. Its demands for a separate state of Jharkhand (Ray, 1980, 34) is the rallying cry for tribals of different groups to voice their political opinion.

Dhan (1967) commenting on the urbanization and the Jharkhand movement says that they have encouraged the growth of nationalism (Ray, 1980) amongst the tribes of Chotanagpur. This movement has brought together the tribes men in urban as well as rural areas irrespective of tribal or religious affiliations. As distinct from individual tribal identities, it has projected a wider <sup>i</sup>advasi image and created a new tribal solidarity.

According to Ray (1980) the success of the rebellions of the tribals after the arrival of missionaries is due to the impact of education. The missionaries not only imbibed in them the spirit of nationalism but also taught them to assert their right over land, selfhelp, self reliance. Education made the tribals aware of the injustices meted out to them by the alien people. This without doubt is the changed self image and identity one cannot fail to see in tribals who originally even deserted their land and abode to avoid conflict and to live in peace.

Sahay (1962) points out that education of the tribal people and political education through participation have also exerted a tremendous influence on the tribal self-image and sense of identity. They are getting a sense of identity with their fellow country men with the problems of the country and with political parties of their choice. These factors have also given them a national outlook.

Sachchidananda (1978) credits to the introduction of Christianity in tribal areas of Chotanagpur for accelerating the process of education of women. Ranchi district tops in female literacy in Bihar. It made for multiplication of employment opportunities for women. A large number of them were employed as teachers, doctors, nurses.

### 3.14 CONCLUSION

In the foregoing pages research studies on Glow on and Burnout, Meaning in Life, Self-Concept, Achievement Motive, Work Values, Tribal Teachers' self-concept and changing self-image have been summarised. Studies on teacher Glow-on are absolutely lacking, while teacher burn-out is attracting more attention of the society and the studies are on the increase. Studies on "Meaning in Life" with Burnout is taking foothold in the East with Misra's (1986) study on the secondary school teachers of Calcutta and Mohanty's on Teacher Educators of Orissa.

The present study too places a somewhat central position to meaning in life along with other psychological correlates and glow-on and Burnout. A person with a high

meaning/purpose in life will glow-on highly and another having low level of meaning will be highly burnout. Similarly, a person having high meaning/purpose will have a higher work values, achievement motive and self-concept - all leading him to glow-on. On the other hand a person with low meaning/purpose in life will have lower work-values, lower self-concept and low level of achievement, leading him to burnoutness.

These psychological correlates will be detailed in the following chapter.