CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE
2.1 BACKGROUND

Although, Freudenberger (1974) used the 'term' burnout, not much systematic research appeared until 1979 because of the conceptual and methodological disagreements. McGuire and Metz (1979) conducted the first empirical research on teacher burnout. The following two decades witnessed a growing interest in research on burnout in various work settings and occupational areas.

This chapter presents a brief review of the researches on burnout in order to identify the state of art and the gaps that could provide a rationale to the present study. The chapter is organised into following sections - (I) Antecedents of burnout - (1) Demographic characteristics - gender, age, years of teaching, marital status, grades taught, and the types of students taught, (2) Personal factors - career orientations, life outside work-supports and demands, (3) Worksetting factors and stress - leadership, workload, orientation, feedback, reality shock, role clarity, interaction with colleagues, scope of student contact, stimulation, role conflict and ambiguity, social isolation and autonomy (II) Consequences of burnout, and; (III) Overview and rationale.

2.1a ANTECEDENTS OF BURNOUT

Researchers examining the antecedents of burnout indicated that an individual's inability to deal with excess stress led to burnout (Shaw, Bensky and Dixon, 1981), yet many often confused or equated "stress" with burnout, even in studies on teacher burnout. In fact, stress was the reality of the teaching situation which could be beneficial as well as harmful depending on how a person responded to it (Lofquist and Dawis, 1969). For instance, an able and a challenging class can be stressful as well as a pleasure to teach. If teacher's efforts to meet the student's needs led to their feeling
of increased growth and satisfaction, the stress should be beneficial but, if such efforts resulted in greater emotional difficulties the effects of stress could be harmful, and may eventually lead to burnout.

Researchers were of the view that in a particular job, stress could emanate from a number of situations and experiences in one's personal or professional life. Studies on "teacher burnout" also indicated that organizational conditions and personal characteristics were the sources of stress leading to burnout (Jackson and Schuler, 1983; Schwab, 1983; Iwanicki, 1983). It had often been suggested that stress was inevitable, but not the distress resulting from it (Quick and Quick, 1984). The stress was the spice of life, and essential for growth, development and change (Selye, 1956). It should thus be necessary to identify, define and measure the sources of stress in different domains of teacher's life leading to burnout.

The phenomena of burnout had been examined by relating it to (1) Demographic characteristics, (2) Personal factors, and (3) Worksetting factors and stress. Some of the relevant researches are reviewed below.

2.1.1 Demographic Characteristics: Researchers investigating the importance of demographic characteristics in teacher burnout included the gender, age, years of experience, marital status, grades taught and type of students taught.

(a) Gender: Gender differences in burnout had been given attention. It seemed logical to argue that given the same work demands, women should experience greater burnout than men, as the overall demands on women (work and family) tended to be much higher (Meissner, Humphreys, Meis and Scheu, 1975; and Robinson, Juster and Stafford, 1976; cited in Greenglass, Burke and Ondrack, 1990), but the studies did not
yield consistent results. At times it was difficult to interpret gender differences, because of the possibility of these being confounded with other variables relevant to burnout, such as the type of occupation, hierarchical rank, role overload, role conflict and social support (Greenglass, 1991). Some researchers have examined gender differences in susceptibility to either burnout in general or only to one of its components (Schwab and Iwanicki 1982a; Cahoon and Rowney, 1984; Maslach and Jackson, 1984b, 1985; Etzion and Pines, 1986; Schwab, Jackson and Schuler, 1986; Burke and Greenglass, 1989f; Ogus, Greenglass and Burke, 1990).

Women were found to have more job-satisfaction than males in female-dominated jobs (Greenfeld, Greiner and Wood, 1980). The perceptions of the stimuli as stress inducing also varied between men and women. Bausch (1981) noted that 20 of the educational stressors, identified by the female teachers, encompassed most areas of the educational spectrum, from paper work to the future of education, while the males were mainly concerned with the lack of adequate salary and inconsistent educational methods and philosophies. Burchette (1982) and DiFalco (1982) found gender to be significantly related to the degree of burnout. Males obtained a higher mean on burnout than females as a group. The experience of personal life events during one's past was regarded as potentially stress inducing and contributing to the experience of burnout. The depersonalisation (a component of Maslach Burnout Inventory) scores were significantly higher for males than females across the elementary and high school teachers (Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982b; Anderson and Iwanicki, 1984; Cahoon and Rowney, 1984; Schwab Jackson and Schuler, 1986; Greenglass and Burke, 1988). Anderson and Iwanicki (1984) reported greater feelings of reduced personal accomplishment among females than males.
However, in most studies the gender differences were found small and non significant predictors of burnout (Maslach and Jackson, 1985).

It was asserted that women teachers were at more risk than men in experiencing greater emotional exhaustion (Levine, 1981; Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1981; Ryerson and Marks, 1981; Seagle, 1985), because once the gender role was internalized by women, they were more likely to get emotionally involved with the problems of their students, and thus show a tendency to overextend themselves emotionally. This argument was supported by the findings of Maslach and Jackson (1981) and Fitzgerald and Stark-Admanac (1990; cited in Pretty, McCarthy and Catano, 1992), who found significantly higher levels of emotional exhaustion among females than males in a wide variety of human service professions. The reverse was found true for a sample of educators by Anderson and Iwanicki (1984), while some others found no significant differences in the experience of emotional exhaustion between male and female teachers (Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982b; Maslach and Jackson, 1985).

Some recent research evidence indeed indicated that women were likely to be slightly better than men, as men scored higher on depersonalisation scale than women (Maslach and Jackson, 1984b, 1985; Greenglass and Burke 1988; Ogus, Greenglass and Burke, 1990). In another research related to phases of burnout, Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1988) concluded that there was no evidence to support the general belief that women were at greater risk of burnout than men.

Women were expected to experience greater burnout than men, because of the role overload and role conflict (Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1981; Etzion and Pines, 1986), but the empirical evidence reviewed by Greenglass (1991) did not support it. He argued that multiple roles were not necessarily associated with greater stress or
illness in women. In a study by Sekaran (1986), the women who were part of dual career couples suffered more interrole conflicts than men. In a study of 126 dual-career physician couples, Israeli (1988) found that women were not more burned out than men, and that there were no gender differences in the relationship of burnout with work-family conflict, need for achievement and work involvement. Burke and Greenglass (1989) on a sample of teacher and department heads found women teachers reporting more work-family conflict as well as problems with time management than men, and yet they reported lesser burnout.

The researchers suggested that while both men and women experienced stress, the kinds of stresses differed. In teaching and other female dominated professions perhaps women had more peer support from similar women in the organisation than men. Social support could protect an individual from experiencing strain from the deleterious effects of stressful events. The women showed greater ability to cope with the interpersonal stresses than men. They were less likely to respond to people and their problems in an impersonal and callous manner, since their traditional female role emphasized caring attitude and concern for others (Maslach and Jackson, 1985).

Some studies indicated that women were better able to use coping strategies to reduce burnout than men (Greenglass, Burke and Ondrack, 1990). They were high on responsibility and emotional involvement and made more effective communications (Greenglass, 1991). What had been seen in the past as the characteristic behaviour of women and labelled as a weakness, could in fact be their strength in coping with job strains and in reducing burnout.

In Indian context, gender was found to be related with burnout among school teachers (Gupta and Dan, 1990) but no gender differences in burnout were found
among high school and degree college teachers (Bagchi, 1993; Ratan, 1993; Sahu, 1993).

(b) Age: Age was known to be linked to burnout. Younger professionals experienced feelings of burnout more often than the older professionals. Cherniss, Egnatios and Wacker (1976) offered several possible reasons for this. The new professionals were susceptible to the phenomenon of "professional mystique", i.e. when helpers had an unrealistic understanding of what a professional can or cannot do. Cherniss (1980a) identified some factors which contributed to higher levels of burnout in younger professionals, namely, the individual's lofty social change goals; poor coping skills and resources; inadequate training in practical matters; and lack of insight and awareness of the burnout problem. The maturity that came with age could partly reflected the successful experiences of people in dealing with stressful situations and helped them further in coping with similar situations.

Age appeared to be a salient differentiating variable of emotional exhaustion component of burnout. Teachers in the age range of 20-39 years experienced more intense feelings of emotional exhaustion and fatigue than the 50 year older teachers (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982; Anderson and Iwanicki, 1984; Schwab, Jackson and Schuler, 1986), and special educators (Crane, 1981 and McIntyre, 1981). While Maslach and Jackson (1981) found the younger respondents scoring higher on the depersonalisation, and lower on the personal accomplishment scales, Iwanicki and associates (1981) found no significant age differences on these dimensions among teachers.

Younger teachers consistently reported higher levels of burnout on various components (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Zabel and Zabel, 1982; Stevens and O'Neill,
1983; Russell, Altmaier and Van Velzen, 1987). Gary (1982) found the respondents in their 20's and 30's having higher burnout, which related to their ability to deal with stress from paperwork, time deadlines and bureaucracy. Harrison (1982) found that the age of the teacher affected their perceptions of stress and burnout. Farber (1984) found that the teachers in the age group of 34-44 years were most vulnerable to burnout. Another study revealed that the burnout rose high among the teachers in the peak age range of 41-45 years and then declined (Freidman and Lotan, 1985). Brightwell (1985) found that most special educators left the job by the age of 40 years mainly due to burnout. The research trend that younger teachers were more prone to experience burnout than the older one's was also indicated on a sample of 120 school teachers from Tirupati (Jamuna and Ushashree, 1990).

(c) Years of Teaching - Though the years on the job appeared to be an important logical variable in burnout, research findings did not support it. Bausch (1981) found that teachers with less experience had most distress, particularly in the area of school policy and populace. McIntyre (1981) observed in a sample of 469 special educators that teachers with experience of 1 to 3 years or 7 to 10 years reported more frequent feelings of emotional exhaustion than others. Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) and Anderson and Iwanicki (1984) found no significant differences by experience on the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of MBI. However, Anderson and Iwanicki reported significantly lower levels of personal accomplishment among teachers having 13-24 years of experience than in any other group. Fimian and Blanton (1987) examined stress among teachers (115 pre-interns, 95 student teachers and 38 1st years teachers). They found that the burnout and role problems evidenced by less experienced teachers and trainees were identical to those reported by more
experienced teachers. The years of experience in teaching did not really enhance or reduce the susceptibility of teachers to burnout (Hock, 1988; cited in Greenglass, Burke and Ondrack, 1990). Some other researchers however, noted an insignificant role of the number of years of experience in teacher burnout (Kahill, 1986).

(d) Marital Status Few researches reported significant effects of marital status, albeit the effect of family status on the incidence of burnout among human service professionals (Maslach and Jackson, 1981, 1985; Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982). The teachers having children experienced less burnout on all the three aspects of burnout than those having no children. Bausch (1981) found the marital status of teachers related to lack of job security, the derogatory public view of education and overload due to excessive paper work. Similar findings were reported by Marlin (1987), who on a sample of secondary school teachers noted a relationship of the marital status of teachers to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Greenglass and Burke (1988) found in a study of men and women that 47 percent of variance in burnout of women could be accounted by their marital satisfaction, role conflict, sources of stress and social support. Kilpatrick (1989) concluded from the studies reporting associations between marital status and burnout, that single, widowed and divorced burned out more than the married in human service professions.

(e) Grades Taught - Teacher burnout was found common to high school teachers (Feitler and Tokar, 1982; Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982; Anderson and Iwanicki, 1984; Schwab, Jackson and Schuler 1986). The intermediate and high school teachers exhibited higher levels of depersonalisation than their elementary school counterparts. Anderson and Iwanicki (1984) found high school teachers suffering the most from
feelings of reduced personal accomplishment. In another study, Burke and Greenglass (1989e) found that elementary teachers/administrators exhibited significantly less burnout than the junior and secondary school teachers and administrators. The Secondary school teachers, who reported a more negative work setting, were often more dissatisfied and in greater distress. However, Federman (1984) Reetz (1984) and Joseph (1983) found grade level taught unrelated to burnout.

(f) Types of Students Taught - Anecdotal studies on teacher burnout suggested that, because of the intense effects of direct contact with children, special school teachers were more vulnerable to burnout than the regular school teachers. Special educators were very frequently required to perform custodial and managerial tasks (Mattingly, 1977), and to maintain excessive amount of direct contact with children (Maslach and Pines, 1977). They often perceived lack of job success (Proctor, 1979) and workoverload (Weiskopf, 1980). In a survey of attitudes of regular and special educators towards pupils, administration, personal and working conditions, Abroms (1977) observed that the two did not differ significantly from each other. An in-depth study of the individual responses revealed that the special educators viewed their workload and routine duties as less burdensome than the regular educators, since they were adequately prepared to teach a variety of exceptional children. Weiskopf (1980) noted that with the influx of exceptional students into a regular classroom, even the teachers of the non-handicapped had to assume new and additional duties causing stress, for which the teachers had either limited or no formal training.

Knowles (1980) investigated the relationship among different burnout variables, namely, job satisfaction absenteeism, job stress and locus of control, on 161 special
educators and 161 regular educators. It was found that special educators generally remained more absent, less satisfied with their job and were externally oriented than the regular educators. Furthermore, teachers of the behaviourally disabled children (BD) were more absent, less satisfied with their jobs and found their job more stressful than teachers of mentally retarded or the learning disabled children, although they were internally oriented. Murphy (1986) found that special educators experienced higher levels of emotional exhaustion and lower levels of personal accomplishment than the regular teachers.

Researches showed some contradictory results. Bensky, Shaw, Gouse, Bates, Dixon and Beane (1980) found that the teachers of regular students experienced higher levels of burnout than the teachers of children with learning disabilities. Similar findings were reported by Beck and Gargiulo (1983), who assessed the degree of burnout among instructors of moderately retarded children, mildly retarded children, and regular educators. It was found that the teachers of the non-retarded children reported fewer and weaker feelings of competence, accompanied by more frequent and stronger impersonal attitudes towards students.

Morgan and Reinhart (1985) found that the teachers, who had not taught earlier, did not perceive teaching the emotionally disturbed as excessively difficult. They had greater feelings of community, respect and support system. These teachers had significantly less tension, anxiety, inertia, confusion and bewilderment. Cadavid (1986), in a study of 97 regular and 97 special school teachers, found that the latter performed custodial tasks, experienced greater emotional exhaustion and intense depersonalised feelings, while the former did not experience such feelings. In an investigation examining the experience of job stress by the teachers in special and
regular schools, Ushashree and Jamuna (1990), noted significantly greater stress among the special school teachers.

Further research was evidently needed to identify the primary background variables contributing to teacher burnout. Despite the considerable size of literature, there was lack of systematic empirical research on the topic, making the present knowledge limited. Most of the studies were either anecdotal or descriptive in nature. These studies delineated the sources of educator stress (Friesen and Williams, 1985; Hiebert, 1985; Makinen and Kimuenen, 1986; Schwab, Jackson and Schuler 1986; Friesen, Prokop and Sarros, 1988), but did not examine the effect of these on behaviour, using a theoretical model or the differences between regular and special educators.

2.1.2 Personal Factors

People differed in their vulnerability to stress and in their coping effectiveness. In one of the early papers Freudenberger (1975) suggested that the most "dedicated and committed" human service professionals were more prone to burnout. He also proposed that those with a strong need to be accepted and liked were at a greater risk. The contribution of predisposing factors to the experience of burnout in teachers had been reported by a number of researchers. Bloch (1977) reported that the obsessional, passionate, idealistic and dedicated teachers (as measured by MMPI) were more prone to the "battered teachers syndrome". Similar findings were reported by Pines and Kafry (1978) on a sample of mental health professionals. In a descriptive paper, Lazarus and Launier (1978) suggested that an individual's susceptibility to stress increased by one's belief that the setting was hostile or dangerous and by the feelings of inadequacy. The
predisposing factors acted in fact, as the modifiers of stress, which resulted in different experiences of stress and in coping skills. These were identified by Beehr and Newman (1979) as the 'Personal facet'.

(a) Career Orientations - The career orientations had been employed by researchers to understand the expected work experiences. Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) suggested that all workers wanted certain things from their jobs and had goals for the future, which they wanted to realize through their work situation. While the organisations provided opportunities to fulfill these goals, they also made demand on individuals, and could impede or limit the attainment of career goals. Thus, an individual's attitude toward work could be influenced by the congruence between the career opportunities offered by the organisation and the individual's own career objectives.

Career orientation referred to the meaning of work for the individual. It was necessary to consider one's orientation to both work and family life simultaneously in assessing the meaning of work for people (Schein, 1978). Bailyn (1977, 1978) analyzed the possible patterns of accommodation in dual career families and among men in mid life and mid career. A highly work involved person gave priority to work but could be low on accommodation. A person giving priority to the family and reduced work involvement could be high in accommodation. Bailyn (1977) proposed that individuals could be motivated by non work ethics.

Cherniss (1980a) assumed that for each career orientation there was an optimal work setting. The degree of experienced stress, strain and burnout could be gauged by the fit between an individual's career orientation and the Worksetting. A poor fit resulted in tension and dissatisfaction. Some individuals' accommodated to the job by
changing their career orientations, while others reported a more negative attitude to change which was embodied in burnout. It would thus seem that, by considering both the demands and rewards and the career orientations of individuals' for those jobs, one would be better able to understand, predict, and alleviate burnout. Cherniss (1980a) identified four career orientations among the helping professionals, namely, social activists, careerists, artisans and self-investors.

Social activists wanted to do more in their work than just help the individual clients. Their major purpose in doing the job was to bring about social and institutional changes. They were idealists and visionaries, who saw their work more as a crusade than as a career or job. They were often highly critical of their profession and hoped to transform it through their work. Personal security and status were relatively unimportant to them.

Careerists pursued success as traditionally defined. Prestige, respectability, and financial security were important to them. Careerists tried to impress their supervisors in order to advance their careers. They were interested in credentials, in comparing themselves with other performers, and in competing with them.

Artisans were more interested in the intrinsic quality of their work than in career advancement and financial success. The meeting of their own internal standards was important to them along with the professional development and growth. Artisans sought jobs that provided opportunities for challenges, new experiences, and the development of professional skills as well as the chance to use techniques in a skilful manner. They wanted jobs that could lead to an inner sense of accomplishment and growth.
Self-investors were more involved in their own lives outside the work. They were not strongly engaged in their work. Families, personal explorations and discovery were their central interests. They did not want to change the world at work, their career advancement or success, and did not have high internal standards for own performance. They were minimally committed to their work, as they looked for activities outside the careers to satisfy their needs.

Burke, Deszca and Shearer (1986) examined these four career orientations and burnout among police officers. Social activists reported greater stress, the least satisfying work setting and greater burnout. They exhibited poorer individual well-being. Self-investors reported least job satisfaction and few negative consequences of job demands on personal, home and family life. Careerists and artisans reported greatest work satisfaction, least stress, the most satisfying work setting and least burnout. Social activist and careerist orientations weakened over time, while the artisan orientation became stronger.

In a later study, Burke and Deszca (1987) compared the work experiences, satisfaction, and the well-being of 218 men and women police officers, who had changed their careers with police officers who did not. Police officers who had changed their careers were significantly less satisfied, and reported poorer psychological well-being, than those who had not changed their career orientations. Similar results were obtained by Burke and Greenglass (1988), which considered the effects of four career orientations of teachers, at the start of the career and a year later, teachers by using a longitudinal study design. Self-investors (a type of non-work orientation) reported experiencing greater stress, least satisfying work setting, greater work alienation (less job satisfaction, greater absenteeism). Social activists reported the
poorest emotional and physical well-being. Carerists reported least marital satisfaction, and greatest conflict between work, parental and self roles. Artisans exhibited the most positive work and life experiences. The concept of person-job or person-culture fit was proposed to explain the distress of the self-investors and social activists (Burke and Deszca, 1988; Burke and Greenglass, 1989b).

Some interesting and unanticipated findings were noted about the self-investors. They, consistent with their low commitment to work, exhibited higher intentions to leave the job, were relatively dissatisfied with their jobs, took off more sick days in the preceding six months than others, and reported job demands having less negative impact on home and family and on their weekends and vacations. The demands for exemplary behaviour as a member of the larger social community posed less of a problem to them. The individuals having a social activist orientation run a greater risk of experiencing a more negative work setting, heightened stress, greater degree of burnout, and poorer well-being.

Self-investors fell in between the social activists and the careerists and artisans. The self-investors were alienated from their work, but paid a less heavy price than the social activists. They suffered greater negative impact of job demands on home and family life and thus Type A behaviour. The careerists and the artisans were characterized by a more positively viewed work setting, less stress and burnout, and greater job satisfaction.

Career orientations thus seemed useful in examining the incidence of professional burnout among men and women in teaching. (b) Life outside work: Supports and demands - Early researches on job stress and coping focused predominantly on Worksetting, ignoring the factors in individuals' life
outside the work. However, in the late 1970's this bias was corrected (Kane, 1977; Piotrowski, 1979; Perlman and Hartman, 1979; Cherniss, 1980a). Piotrowski (1979) found that maintaining an impermeable boundary between job and home was not possible. The effects of heavy emotional demands from the work also spilled to the professional personal life. Piotrowski (1979) found that the need to be alone and free from any demands outside the work were common to those professionals, whose jobs were difficult, frustrating or especially demanding. The personal relationships outside the work imposed demands and obligations and created a possibility of role conflict that added to the strain in the job (Cherniss, 1980a). Work-family role conflicts seriously impeded an individual's adaptability to a job. Family could be an important replenishing resource, as the close and supportive personal relationships helped in alleviating the strains of work (Cherniss, 1980a). Support in private life was found associated with burnout by Maslach and Jackson, (1982), Etzion (1984), Nowack, Gibbons and Hanson (1985).

Contradictory findings were reported in another research, in that life stress inclusive of work stress and non-work stress was not found related to burnout (Pande, 1994).

In a research investigation on Doctors (Pradhan, work in progress, cited in Mishra, 1994) family stress was found to be related with burnout only among male doctors. The modifying effect of social support, like from the spouse (Pradhan, work in progress, cited in Mishra, 1994) on the direct relationship of stress and burnout has yet to be established (Jain, 1991). The issue of relation between personal factors and psychological burnout remained alive as the empirical evidence was weak (Maslach, 1982; Russell, Altamaier and Van Velzen, 1987).
2.1.3 Work Setting and Stress Factors

A set of causal variables of burnout were identified by Cherniss and researched subsequently, namely, leadership, workload, orientation, feedback, reality shock, role clarity, interaction with colleagues, scope of student contact, stimulation, role conflict and ambiguity, social isolation and autonomy (Kahn, 1974; Maslach, 1978; Pines, Kafry and Bizon, 1980; Cherniss 1980a; Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1981; Etzion, Kafry and Pines 1982; Farber 1983; Friedman and Lotan, 1985; Shirom 1987). These are discussed below:-

(a) Leadership - The conceptions of what constitutes an "ideal" leader have considerably changed over time, but the issue of the quality of leadership remained intact, and a potential source of stress at work for teachers as well.

The ideal leader was considered warm, friendly and considerate. Magill (1976) observed that no particular authority base was related to the level of school stress, which implied that teachers were expected in reality to interact with a variety of students and colleagues and adjust to different styles. Given their ability and expectations to interact with different leadership styles for teachers, the principal became simply one more person with whom they interacted.

In one of the most convincing researches, on 162 workers in 11 federally funded child abused programmes the role of supervisor in burnout was investigated (Berkeley Planning Associates, 1977). While several Worksetting factors correlated with burnout, the multiple regression analysis indicated leadership as the most important factor. The programmes in which leadership provided a high degree of structure and support tended to have lower levels of burnout. Allred (1980) found that the teachers showed higher morale when the principal exhibited consideration behavior. On the
other hand, poor administrative leadership significantly contributed to teacher resignation, which in turn was positively related to burnout (Virginia, 1981). In an investigation by Carveth (1983), who examined the separate and the combined effects of specified leader behavior on teacher burnout, the major correlates of depersonalization were initiation, structure and demand reconciliation; while the strong predictors of personal accomplishment were tolerance and integration. The consideration aspect of the leader was found inversely related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, and positively to personal accomplishment, though structure was not related to any component of burnout (Cook, 1983). Similar results were found by Rhoades (1987) and Cuneen (1989).

(b) Workload - Work overload and time pressures were inherent in the planning and implementing of individualized education programme (IEP) for students in special schools, which involved conferring with each child's parents, attending meetings, counselling parents, instructing students and holding discussions, performing paper work etc. Jackson (1968) observed that on an average a teacher in a large school interacted with no less than one thousand students, colleagues, administrators and parents each day. Data from several researches confirmed that work overload was a source of stress for employees (Shirom, Eden, Silverwesser and Kellerman, 1973); Selye, 1976; Kasl, 1978).

Work overload could be subjective or objective (French and Caplan, 1973). Subjective overload referred to individuals' feelings that they had either too much work or that the work was too demanding. The objective work overload could be quantitative or qualitative (Cooper and Marshall, 1976). The quantitative overload resulted from having too many tasks per unit of time, and when one had to work
overtime, while qualitative overload resulted from tasks that were difficult for the individual. Both the quantitative and qualitative overload in schools could be stressful to teachers.

In general, it was found that the heavier the workload, the greater was the tendency to burnout (Maslach 1976; Berkeley Planning Associates, 1977). Maslach (1976) observed that the longer hours in themselves did not lead to increased burnout. Rather, it was the greater amount of direct client contact that created interpersonal strain, which was seen as central to the development of burnout. In fact, in a study of job satisfaction and burnout among community mental health centre staff, it was found that even increased client contact did not lead to more burnout, if the contact was with clients having less severe problems, more cooperation, and the work had opportunities for frequent "time outs" from client contact (Chemiss and Egnatios, 1978). In another study, Maslach and Pines (1977) found that when staff members in day care centres were assigned the responsibility for supervising a specific subset of the children in the centre, there was less burnout than when all staff members were jointly responsible for all children on the premises. Thus, the quality as well as the amount of work could affect the staff burnout.

Begley (1982), in a study of 124 special education administrators found that the professionals experiencing continued stress and strain from unrelenting work demands had particularly high burnout. Conway (1984), on a sample of 115 counsellors employed in a Public High School, found burnout scores positively correlated with work overload. Milstein, Golaszewski and Duquette (1984) found that extremes of workload characterised the group of teachers experiencing high levels of burnout,
whereas the ability to plan and a moderate workload characterised the group experiencing low levels of burnout.

Brightwell (1985) found that the teachers working with those exceptional children, whose caseloads were deemed too high, experienced greater emotional exhaustion. Teachers reporting lack of time for completing the administrative tasks and sufficient professional release time also experienced excessive emotional exhaustion. Though workload had been found consistently associated with emotional exhaustion, it did not contribute significantly to depersonalisation or reduced personal accomplishment (Jackson, Schwab and Schuler 1986; Jackson, Turner and Brief, 1987; Leiter, 1988b, 1991a, 1991b).

(c) Teaching Orientations - The burnout literature often criticized the professionals for not giving adequate emphasis in their formal curricula to the orientation of students towards reality of government regulations, organisational complexities and job related interpersonal stresses. The researches on burnout (Kramer, 1974; Edelwich and Brodsky, 1980; Cherniss, 1980a; Pines, Aronson, and Kafry, 1981) indicated five problems in professional training programmes - (i) tend to create unrealistic expectations, (ii) not being practical, thorough or relevant, (iii) not training professionals in interpersonal skills to a sufficient degree, (iv) not providing adequate knowledge about the nature of bureaucratic organisations and how to function effectively within those constraints, (v) not training on how to cope with uncertainty, change, conflict, stress and burnout.

The training programmes were expected to provide a map of unfamiliar environment, and an understanding of the unwritten rules and the lines of power, it was done only on the surface level, however. Honeyford (1982) in England, Gruwez
(1983) in France, Vonk (1983) and Veenman (1984) in Holland, Bayer (1984) in Switzerland and Martinez (1984) in Spain, unanimously observed that the initial training of teachers promoted an stereotyped ideal and positive role of the teachers' image. A series of norms were established about what the teacher should do or what the teachers should be, without teaching them how to cope with the day to day pressures while teaching. The ratings made during job training and the later evaluation indicated a significant relation between poor job preparation and the aspects of burnout (Maslach and Jackson, 1984b). A recent investigation by Burke (1993) supported the above findings, as he found poor orientation significantly associated with burnout. There was evidence, albeit not conclusive, that the correcting of these weaknesses could reduce the chances of burnout.

(d) **Feedback** - Knowledge about one's performance - success or failure was important. The lack of feedback in the form of perceived success on the job contributed to low self-esteem and eventually to the burnout among teachers (Collins, 1977; Freudenberger, 1977; Mattingly, 1977; Pines and Kafry, 1978; Procter, 1979; Jackson and Schuler, 1983).

Edwards (1982), in a research on the developmentally disabled individuals, found that the perception of job success was one of the major discriminating factor related to the experience of burnout. It was found that the individuals working with children, in the mild to moderate range of retardation, viewed their jobs as more successful than individuals working with children in a severe to profound range of mental retardation. Also individuals working with children 6 years old or under experienced less burnout.
The feedback, self-perceived and also in the form of structured reward and punishment, had been found linked to burnout, largely through the impact on personal accomplishment and depersonalisation (Schwab, Jackson and Schuler, 1986). The receipt of the reward/punishment was one accepted way of knowing how well one was doing and what others thought of their work. However, this did not occur often in schools, as the principals, the main source of organisational rewards and punishments for many teachers, failed to provide performance based rewards and punishments (Podsakoff, Todar, Grover and Huber, 1984). Schwab, Jackson and Schuler (1986) probed into the effects of contingent and non-contingent rewards and punishments on burnout and reported that only the punishment contingent on poor performance had a significant relationship to burnout.

(e) Reality Shock - Before entering the profession, a number of teachers thought that they will plan and develop curricula, evaluate students, manage classrooms, serve as role models and act as surrogate parents in shaping the young minds. However, once they entered the profession they found that their training at the colleges of education had not prepared them well for the "real world of teaching" [Sarason, Davidson and Blatt (1962), Sarason (1977 and 1978) and Duke (1984)].

During the first year of teaching, according to Walter (1974), 91 percent found it necessary to seriously revise the idealized image of teaching they had imbibed. After 5 or 6 years of teaching, according to Amiel and Mace-Kradjian (1972) and Stern (1980), their ideal image reached a critical point of "identity crisis", referred as "Praxis Shock" by Veenman (1984), which produced different reactions to teaching. Abraham (1985) classified teachers by these reactions into four groups:
(1) Those having predominance of contradictory feelings without arriving at any practical way of dealing with the conflict between the real and the ideal, which resulted in fluctuations in teaching.

(2) Those refusing to accept the reality due to their inability to put up with the anxiety by reducing personal involvement in the task of teaching.

(3) Those having predominance of anxiety when they realized that they lacked the necessary means to put into practice ideals, although wishing to maintain them and remain personally involved in teaching.

(4) Those accepting the conflict as objective reality and giving it no importance beyond looking for adequate answers within the existing framework.

The role of unrealistically high expectations about professional life of teachers and their subsequent disillusionment with reality was one of the most widely debated issues, and a foremost determinant of burnout [Kramer, 1974; Edelwich and Brodsky, 1980]. Based on interview data, Cherniss (1980a) and Meyer (1982) concluded that subjects with unrealistic pre-employment expectations were implicated in the development of burnout. Having unmet original expectations of job was found linked to burnout by Meadow (1981) and Sturgess and Poulsen (1983). The teachers having unrealistic or lofty career goals developed a sense of failure, when they could not achieve them. These resulted in feelings of reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Stevens and O'Neill (1983) found that the higher expectations of personal effectiveness, clients' progress and eventual independence resulted in low burnout, whereas the negative changes in expectations were related to increased burnout.
(f) **Role Clarity** - It was argued by Repucci (1973) that a clear, strong, and guiding philosophy was necessary to sustain hope, commitment, and morale in human service organisations. Bucher and Stelling (1977) found that the trainees in professional settings characterized by strong, clear, uniform models of practice developed stronger professional commitment and identity than those who went through programmes having diverse and vague goals and approaches to practice. Milstein, Golaszewski and Duquette (1984) conducted a research on 3,400 teachers to examine organisationally based stress and found that the role clarity was an important characteristic of the group of teachers, who experienced lower levels of occupational stress/burnout.

Not only the clarity of one's role, but also the clarity of the institutional goals was important. Greenglass, Burke and Ondrack (1990) found that the unclear institutional goals were associated with high depersonalization among male and female school personnel. Freidman (1991) in a research on 1,597 teachers in 78 elementary schools found that besides the clarity of the organisational goals, the extent to which these goals were perceived as attainable was also of crucial importance.

(g) **Interpersonal Interactions with Colleagues** - Social interactions and support helped to combat stress. Ginker and Spiegel (1945) noted that the soldiers in combat who were members of units, in which cohesion was higher, were less susceptible to excessive stress and neurotic breakdown. Group cohesion helped in reducing the tension and anxiety associated with combat. Colleagues could provide a sympathetic ear when one had a work problem. Talking to colleagues could be a cathartic experience in reducing the emotional tension, and in helping one to acquire better perspective and understanding. They could also provide moral support and
share the risks when involved in conflicts with administrators or other groups in the organisation. Besides they could be a source of feedback about ones' performance that was critical to the development of a sense of competence. The interactions could provide the individuals with support, feedback and an opportunity to learn from one another (Newcomb and Feldman, 1968)

Many a times the older teachers had minimum interactions with the new teachers. Sarason and the colleagues in describing their experiences as psychologists consulting in public schools noted that they were often asked not to go into a new teacher's classroom, because they might be having problems (Sarason, Levine Goldenberg, Cherlin and Bennet, 1966). Thus the new teachers were avoided at the very time they would probably welcome collegial contacts in order to gain knowledge and necessary insight to solve the problems. A less benign interpretation was offered by Ryan (1970) who contended that the older teachers viewed the new teachers both as personal threat and a threat to the social order of the school. As a result they tolerated less deviant behavior of a new teacher than of an older colleague. Warm and positive interactions between older and new teachers were kept limited, though the interactions among colleagues could lower down the susceptibility of professionals to burnout (Maslach, 1976).

The above findings were different from an earlier study on professional burnout, in which burnout was found to be highly contagious in that when a high percentage of the staff in a setting were burned out, even new staff members were likely to feel so (Schwatz and Will, 1961). In fact the more they would interact with colleagues the more quickly and completely will they burnout. In another study on graduates, preparing to take qualifying exams, Mechanic (1962) found that under
stress condition, the interactions with one another merely potentiated anxiety. Cherniss (1980a) also gave some examples in which contact with colleagues increased the strains of the new professional.

Conflict with colleagues had been reported as a major area of stress (Moracco, Danford and D'Arienzo, 1982; Dewe, 1986) in schools ranging between purely academic disagreements to those arising from the exercise of managerial direction. These conflicts tended to escalate, if not dealt with skillfully. Cherniss (1988) investigated the supervisory behaviour and teacher burnout in schools for the mentally retarded, and indicated that the principals of schools having low staff burnout interacted less frequently with others, spent less time observing the staff in their classrooms, spent more time on planning, co-ordinating, and discussions on work related problems.

(h) Scope of Student Contact - Jackson (1968) observed that a teacher could interact with students more than 1000 times on an average day. Maslach (1976) suggested that one of the causes of professional burnout was that they usually had only truncated and largely negative relationships with clients. In a classroom situation, there was more sustained temporal contact between the teacher and student, but a particular student was only one of the thirty/forty in a classroom at any given time, and a typical teacher taught about five or six classes each day. Therefore, the students rarely established any kind of individual contacts with the teacher. The relationship remained limited and impersonal in most cases. Both were cold, mechanical unfulfilling towards each other. When this happened, it was difficult for the teachers to sustain their commitments and concerns for students.
(I) **Stimulation** - The less than expected stimulation, under utilization of skills and boredom characterized many service and other occupations. Teaching was only one of them. Researches showed that the under utilization of potential skills and talent could be a source of stress. Caton, Grossnickle, William and Thomas (1988) investigated stress and burnout among employees in institutes for the mentally retarded. They found under utilization significantly correlated with emotional exhaustion. In another study, on 833 men and women employed in teaching, Burke and Greenglass (1989a) found lack of stimulation to be associated with psychological burnout. Similar findings had been reported earlier by Maslach (1982) and Leiter (1991).

(I) **Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity** - Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964) isolated the constructs of role conflict and role ambiguity as important contributors to organisational stress (Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, 1970; Schuler, Aldag and Brief, 1979). Lack of clarity regarding the procedures of the tasks or about the criteria for performance evaluations (Miles and Perrault, 1976) resulted in role ambiguity. It was defined as lack of clear, consistent information regarding the rights, duties and responsibilities on the job and how these duties and responsibilities could be performed, whereas the role conflict was the simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of inconsistent and expected role behaviours (Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, 1970; Farber, 1983). Role Conflict was the source of multiple stresses (Jackson, Turner and Brief 1987).

Numerous researchers had examined the effect of role conflict and role ambiguity on burnout. Westerhouse (1979) studied the effects of role conflict and ambiguity on work orientation and burnout of 141 high school teachers working at a
private school. Role conflict was found to be a significant variable in the prediction of burnout. In a series of investigations by Schwab and Iwanicki (1982a), on 469 teachers in regular schools, it was found that the role conflict and ambiguity accounted for a significant amount of variation in emotional exhaustion, fatigue and negative attitudes toward students, whereas role ambiguity alone accounted for a significant, though a much smaller, amount of variance in personal accomplishment. They also reported that when high levels of role conflict characterized the work situation, the professionals experienced emotional exhaustion and fatigue as well as negative attitudes towards recipients (Schwab and Iwanicki 1982; Schwab, Jackson and Schuler, 1986; Jackson, Turner and Brief 1987). Similar results were reported by Crane and Iwanicki (1983) in a replication of Schwab and Iwanicki’s study over a group of special education teachers.

The effects of role conflict and role ambiguity were felt not only by the teachers at the subordinate levels, but also by the principals and department heads. In a research on the interrelationships of role conflict and role ambiguity and burnout, Mansfield (1983) on department heads, and Reetz (1984) on special education specialists noted that the role conflict was a strong predictor of depersonalisation and emotional exhaustion, while Schwab, Jackson and Schuler (1986) found role ambiguity significantly predicting only the emotional exhaustion dimension of the Maslach Burnout Inventory. In general, role conflict and role ambiguity were not found highly associated with personal accomplishment. Similar results were reported by Jackson, Schwab and Schuler (1986), although they found role ambiguity significantly related to reduced personal accomplishment. Susan (1985) noted that role conflict accounted for the most variance in total burnout, i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization
and reduced personal accomplishment. The two variables were found related to total
burnout scores of teachers (Fimian and Blanton, 1987).

In a study of teachers working with special children (Harman-Vaught, 1985), the
degree of role conflict was found to be a source of intense feelings of emotional
exhaustion, while role ambiguity caused by teaching exceptional children was the
source of frequent feelings of emotional exhaustion. The role ambiguity was also a
significant source of both intense and frequent feelings of low personal
accomplishment. In Indian School settings, role ambiguity was found to be the most
important predictor of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation in teachers, while
role stagnation was an important predictor of personal accomplishment (Sahu, 1993).
However, Freisen and Sarros (1986) found that role clarity didn't predict any of the
three burnout components among Canadian teachers and administrators. Oehlert
(1989) reinvestigated the Lazarus and Falkman's (1984) hypothesis that role ambiguity
was a critical factor in the creation of stress. Their results indicated a relationship of
role ambiguity with emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment, but not with
depersonalization.

(k) Social Isolation - Teaching was known to be a lonely profession (Sarason
1971), with little experience of a "psychological sense of community" (Sarason, 1974)
on the part of teachers. Also in teaching men were exposed relatively more than
women to the experience of feelings of isolation, lack of support and loneliness
(Kanter, 1977). The preliminary evidence suggested that the teacher centres could
provide social support to teachers (Sparks, 1979; Fibkins, 1983), as the self-help
support groups were found successful in reducing social isolation, in promoting
collegial support, renewing commitment and increasing teachers' sense of professionalism.

Numerous researchers reported that social isolation contributed to the experience of burnout. In a recent investigation, Burke (1993) found that the police officers, who worked in isolation and had no interactions with their co-workers, experienced higher feelings of social isolation, which were significantly related to burnout.

(1) Autonomy - The lack of participation in decision making and control over the work setting itself could be the significant sources of stress (Margolis, Kroes and Quinn 1974; Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison and Pinneau, 1975). The non-involvement of teachers in decision making robbed them of the psychological rewards of their tackling problems and instilled a feeling "What's the use?" or burned out syndrome (Maslach and Pines, 1977; Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1981). Armstrong (1979) in an investigation of workers in child abuse and neglect projects found the centralized decision making and inadequate communication between the workers and the supervisors as highly related to the experience of burnout.

The control involved the perception of being able to influence the job, eg, work scheduling and the development of policies that directly affected the work environment (Schwab, Jackson and Schuler, 1986). An increased participation in the decision making process could enhance the teachers' control over their environment and thus effectively reduce the job related strains (Jackson, 1983). Similar suggestions were made by other researchers (Brown, 1986). In an investigation using Maslach Burnout Inventory, it was found that the participation in decision making contributed significantly only to the depersonalisation component of MBI (Schwab, Jackson and
Schuler, 1986; Jackson, Schwab and Schuler, 1986). Lack of autonomy in terms of job content was related to lowered personal accomplishment among teachers (Jackson, Schwab and Schuler, 1986), and led to low teacher morale and alienation (Vavrus, 1987). Landsbergis (1988) found the job decision latitude contributing to all the three components of MBI. Jobs that combined high workload demands with low decision authority were associated with higher burnout and more job strain (dissatisfaction, sleeping problems, depression/life satisfaction and physical/psychosomatic strain).

One's autonomy increased as one went up the hierarchical position. Burke and Greenglass (1989) observed that among the school based educators, the stress and burnout increased as their position within the hierarchy decreased. Principals perceived the Worksetting as more positive, experienced less stress, lesser burnout, and better emotional health than the teachers, while the department heads experienced intermediate levels of stress.

2.2 CONSEQUENCES OF BURNOUT

The impact of teacher burnout was not limited to the teacher alone, but spilled over to students as well. Burned out or highly stressed teachers were found less effective, less creative and less concerned about their students (Fuller, 1969; Young, 1978; Wilson, 1979). They tended to provide less information, less praise, showed less acceptance of their pupils and interacted less frequently with them (Mancini, Wuest, Clark and Ridosh 1982; Mancini, Wuest, Vantine and Clark, 1984). This could result in extreme type of treatment towards students, such as, the overindulgence or use of harsh punishment. Teachers could also resort to various defense mechanisms like increased absenteeism, turnover, decline in work performance, negative attitude...
change, job dissatisfaction and early retirement to maintain their mental equilibrium (Payne, 1974; Dunham, 1976; Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978; Truch, 1980; Maslach and Jackson, 1981). These had detrimental effects on teachers themselves and their students.

(a) The Attitude Changes - As teachers tried to cope with the stresses of their professional life and career, at times they developed negative attitudes towards students, work and themselves, and life in general. Cherniss (1980a) found that in the first six months of one's career, over 70 percent of the new professionals in nursing, teaching, law and social work experienced negative attitude changes towards clients, the system and themselves. The negative attitude changes outlined by Cherniss (1980a and b) were reduced work goals, reduced personal responsibility for outcomes, less idealism, more emotional detachment and greater self-interest. Research indicated a high correlation of these with another measure of burnout (the MBI), as well as with burnout outcomes, e.g. job satisfaction, turnover intentions and measures of individual well being and health (Burke, Shearer and Deszca, 1984b; Burke, 1987; Burke and Greenglass, 1989a).

Burke and his associates (1984b and 1989a) tested the utility of Cherniss model for police officers and teachers. Their studies showed that a number of Worksetting (workoverload, stimulation, student contact, autonomy, leadership, institutional goals), and personal variables (supports and demands outside the work) had direct effects on burnout (defined as negative attitude changes), as well as indirect effects through experienced stress. They found considerable support for negative attitude changes as one of the consequence of burnout.
Burke, Shearer and Deszca (1984b) found a similar pattern of relationships among the Worksetting and personal variables, sources of stress and scores on Maslach Burnout Inventory. However, no study was found that examined the effects of the emotional and cognitive aspects of burnout (as measured by the MBI) on the attitude changes.

(b) Intentions to Quit - Professionals in social work and rehabilitation agencies left their job at twice the rate per year of professionals in non-service fields. Researchers in the past showed that job design factors, such as role clarity and autonomy were consistently related to turnover (Porter and Steers, 1973), that the burnout could lead to turnover among human service workers (Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach, 1976, 1978b; Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1981), and that the burnout and the intentions to leave one's job were related (Maslach and Jackson, 1979, 1984b, 1984a; Jones, 1980a; Quattrochi-Tubin, Jones and Breedlove 1982; Taylor, Daniel, Leith and Burke, 1990).

The experience of psychological burnout was one reason that quite a few capable teachers' left for other careers (Mark and Anderson, 1978; Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982). Models of turnover (Mowday, Porter and Steers 1982) suggested a process in which job attitudes such as job dissatisfaction influenced the intent to leave, which in turn was predictive of actually leaving, although a number of variables could intervene in the process. The data obtained in a study of public contact workers (Maslach and Jackson, 1984b) supported the relationship of burnout to job dissatisfaction and the desire to change work or quit. Schwab, Jackson and Schuler (1986) found, using Maslach Burnout Inventory, that emotional exhaustion dimension predicted the intention to quit the job among teachers in a limited way, as it explained
only 6 percent of variance, suggesting that the other variables, not included in the regression equation, could be better predictors of turnover intentions.

In a longitudinal study of teachers, the emotional exhaustion reported at Time 1 was found significantly related to their subsequently considering a new teaching job; and both emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation predicted their consideration of leaving the job during the past six months (Jackson, Schwab and Schuler 1986). The rate of actual turnover during the year of the study was low, however.

(c) Psychosomatic Symptoms - The burnout was found related to poor health symptoms, such as, fatigue and physical depletion or exhaustion, sleep difficulties and specific somatic problems such as headaches, gastro-intestinal disturbances, colds and flu (Kahill, 1988), but the relationship to major illness was not consistent. Burnout led to health related problems, such as, insomnia, increased use of medications and alcohol. In a study of men and women in police work (Burke, Shearer and Deszca, 1984b), individuals scoring higher on two burnout measures reported more psychosomatic symptoms (poor appetite, headaches, heart pains); more negative feeling states (impulse to aggression, anger, depression, insomnia); and less job satisfaction. High burnout scores were also associated with tangible signs of poor health (high blood pressure, absenteeism resulting from illness). Similar results were reported in other studies on police officers (Burke, 1987), and teachers (Burke and Greenglass, 1989a). Wolpin (1988) used questionnaires, one year apart on 245 school based educators in Canada and measured the burnout and its presumed predictors and outcomes and found that somatic symptoms were more likely to be caused by burnout rather than the reverse.
The burnout was found linked to emotional symptoms, like depression (Jayaratne and Chess, 1983; Jayaratne, Chess and Kunkel 1986; Firth, McKeown, McIntee and Britton, 1987); guilt (Pines, Aronson and Kafry 1981; Pines and Kafry, 1981), and anxiety and tension (Gold and Michael, 1985; Morgan and Krehbiel, 1985; Fimian and Cross, 1986). In a longitudinal study of men and women teachers, Greenglass and Burke (1990) found that burnout contributed significantly to their subsequent somatization and depression. For women, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and for men, emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment were significant predictors of depression. Burnout didn't contribute to anxiety. The psychological well being of secondary school teachers was not found related to burnout, but the symptoms of occupational stress were positively related to burnout (Ratan, 1993).

2.3 OVERVIEW AND RATIONALE OF PRESENT RESEARCH

The above review revealed that teacher burnout was purportedly a function of stressors that endangered both at the personal and the organisational levels (Cooper and Marshall, 1976; Perlman and Hartman, 1982; Farber, 1983; Ianni and Reuss-Ianni 1983; Iwanicki, 1983), and that the background variables were important in the experience of burnout (Feitler and Tokar, 1982; Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982; Schwab, 1983; Beck and Gargiulo, 1983; Anderson and Iwanicki, 1984; Schwab, Jackson and Schuler, 1986), such as, gender (Cahoon and Rowney, 1984; Maslach and Jackson, 1984b; Burke and Greenglass, 1989f; Ogus, Greenglass and Burke, 1990; Greenglass, 1991); age (Chemiss, Egnatios and Wacker, 1976; Cherniss, 1980a; Anderson and Iwanicki, 1981, McIntyre, 1981; Harrison, 1982; Farber, 1984), years in teaching
(McIntyre, 1981; Bausch, 1981), marital status (Bausch, 1981; Marlin, 1987; Kilpatrick, 1989), grades taught (Feitler and Toker, 1982; Schwab and Iwanicki, 1984; Schwab, 1986; Burke and Greenglass, 1989e), and the type of students taught (Weiskopf, 1980; Knowles, 1980; Bensky, Shaw, Gouse, Bates, Dixon, Beane, 1980; Beck and Gargiulo, 1983; Morgan and Reinhart, 1985; Cadavid, 1986). The reported findings were however not consistent. An analysis of the cumulative findings of the past 15 years consistently showed few significant personal correlates of burnout (Bloch, 1977; Niehouse, 1981; Helliwell, 1981; Pines and Aronson, 1981; Farber, 1983; Jayaratne, Chess and Kunkel 1986), such as, one's career orientations (Cherniss, 1980a; Burke, Deszca and Greenglass, 1988, 1989b), and the support extended and the demands made (Kane, 1977; Pitrowski, 1979; Cherniss, 1980a; Maslach and Jackson, 1982; Etzion, 1984; Nowack, Gibbons and Hanson, 1985).


The spill over effects of burnout like negative attitudinal changes (Cherniss, 1980a; Burke, Shearer and Deszca 1984b; Burke, 1987; Burke and Greenglass, 1989a), intentions to quit (Maslach and Jackson, 1979, 1984b, 1989a; Taylor, Daniel, Leith and Burke, 1990), and psychosomatic symptoms (Burke, Shearer and Deszca 1984b; Burke, 1987; Burke, Greenglass, 1989a; Greenglass and Burke, 1990) were found notable and interesting. Despite the many significant and interpretable findings only a few research investigations were guided by a comprehensive model. Cherniss (1980a) proposed a comprehensive model of burnout for professionals in four fields (mental health, law, public health nursing and school teachers). Some researchers examined the usefulness of Cherniss model (1980a) on police officers (Burke, Shearer and Deszca, 1984b) and teachers (Burke and Greenglass, 1989a), and reported considerable support for the model. There was general paucity of researches comparing the burnout of teachers of special and regular schools either by using this model or an alternative model. The
present study thus found its rationale located in this fact, and attempted to examine the psychological burnout among special and regular educators by using the Cherniss model. The self-reports of the teachers in special and regular schools reinforced the perceptions of higher burnout among the former. The formulation of the study was also influenced by the ecosystemic and socio-psychological perspectives in which the teacher behavior was visualized as the resultant of the dynamic interactions between the attributes of the individual and the social environment.