CHAPTER - II

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
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The present study is an attempt to measure Burnout and understand its relationship with self-concept and introversion-extraversion. To do full justice with study, it is imperative to have a critical look at the various concepts involved in the study, i.e. Burnout, Self-concept and Introversion-Extraversion.

The Conceptual Framework of this study implies that each person consistently makes effort to meet his needs or demands. But at the same time he is under pressure from the environment to behave in a certain way. The theoretical concepts and their relevant significance have been continuously and consistently kept in mind throughout this study. Not to get entangled in the theoretical framework, an effort has been made to remain concise and to the-point without sacrificing the details wherever necessary. For any research work, it is essential to provide a convincing theoretical framework which should have the support of the latest available body of knowledge related to the area of the investigation. In this chapter, an attempt has been made to provide the necessary theoretical foundation for the present research problem. The theoretical framework is the description of the nature of the variables of burnout, self-concept and introversion-extraversion as follows:

2.1 BURNOUT

The concept of burnout has not been unanimously agreed upon by the different disciplines. “The popularity of the concept is a major barrier to defining it, for it has become an appealing label for many different phenomena. It has come to mean different things to different people” (Chemiss, 1980). Burnout is an internal psychological experience involving feelings, attitudes, motives, and expectations.

“Any condition that makes the body mobilize its resources and burn more energy than it normally does” (Morgan, 1965).

“Environment conditions that require behavioral adjustment” (Benson, 1974) and again Selye (1974) “The non-specific response of the body for any demand made upon it.” The world authority on stress, whose research originated the work with
overstressed animals, stated, “complete freedom from stress is death” and he advised, “live with stress and enjoy it”.

Berkely Planning Associates (1977) defined burnout as the extent to which a worker has become separated or withdrawn from the original meaning or purpose of his work—the degree to which a worker expressed estrangement from clients, co-workers and agency.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978), “Teacher burnout may be defined as a response of negative effect (such as anger or depression) by a teacher usually accompanied by potentially pathogenic, physiological and biochemical changes (such as increased heart rate or release of adrenocorticotropic hormones into the blood stream) resulting from aspects of the teachers and mediated by the perception that the demands made upon these teachers constituted a threat to his self-esteem or well-being and by coping mechanisms activated to reduce the perceived threat. As they pointed out, interpersonal characteristics (such as enduring personality traits) may interact with an individual’s perceptions of stressful (burnout) stimuli so that stress reaction will vary differentially among individuals, even when the objective external conditions are the same”.

Maslach (1976) referred it as the loss of concern for the people with whom one is working in response to the job related stress. The investigator considered that burnout is linked with numerous variables which are negative and especially affect those who are dedicated and committed to their work.

“When difficulties arise, administrators are prone to see the problem in terms of people who are not doing their job well, rather than of shortcomings in the institution itself. It is assumed that problems are due to errors, faulty judgement, or laziness on the part of the employees, and as administrators it is their job to improve employee performance”.

This type of response obviously reinforces self-depreciation and increases job burnout.

Cherniss (1981) further investigated the signs or symptoms of burnout mentioned in the literature and attempted to reconcile these conceptual framework listed in table 2.1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Signs and Symptoms of Job-Stress and Worker Burnout in Human Service Programmes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>High resistance to going to work everyday.</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>A sense of failure.</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Anger and resentment.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Guilt and blame.</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Discouragement and indifference.</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Isolation and withdrawal.</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>Feelings of tiredness and exhaustion all the day.</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Great fatigue after work.</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>Loss of positive feelings towards client.</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>Stereotyping clients.</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>Inability to concentrate or listen to what client is saying.</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>Increasingly “going by the book”.</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>Sleep disorders.</td>
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<td>19.</td>
<td>Avoiding discussion of work with colleagues.</td>
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<td>21.</td>
<td>Move approving of behaviour-control measures such as tranquilizers.</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>Frequent colds and flus.</td>
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<td>23.</td>
<td>Frequent headaches and gastrointestinal disturbances.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Rigidity in thinking and resistance to change.</td>
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</table>
25. Suspicion and paranoia.
26. Excessive use of drugs.
27. Marital and family conflict.

The investigator further reported that all these signs or symptoms may be present or not present in any particular case. When one observes any of these signs or symptoms in himself/herself or among others, there is much possibility of burnout.

Silverstain (1982) defined burnout as a process whereby committed professionals disengage from their work in response to job-stress. It represents a response to an intolerable work situation.

2.1.1 Burnout And Related Phenomenon: A Distinction

Burnout syndrome is appealing for at least two reasons. Firstly, it subsumes all of the most common definitions that have been used in the literature. Secondly, it provides a framework for thinking about the causes of and solution to the problem.

Before considering the significance of burnout for human service, we should end this definition of the concept by distinguishing it from related phenomena – First, Burnout is not the same as temporary fatigue or stress and strain although such feelings may be an early signs of burnout. Secondly, Burnout is different from socialization and acculturation, the process in which a staff person’s attitude and behaviour changes in response to social influence exerted by colleagues or clients. For instance McPherson (1972) described “how older teachers in a public school influence newer ones to emphasise order and maintain control in their classrooms”. The negative changes that occur in burnout may also occur in response to the socializing influence of supervisors or colleagues. In burnout, however, these changes are direct response to overload and stress caused by the job.

Finally, burnout may lead to turnover (Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach, 1976 and 1978; Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1981). A few studies have reported empirical relationship between the measures of burnout and intention to one’s job (Jones, 1980; Kafry, 1981; Maslach and Jackson, 1979; Martin, 1985). However, the relationship between burnout and turnover is more complicated than that may be supposed. Burnout may cause staff to quit, but staff may burnout and yet remain on the job.
Turnover is an agency, may be a sign of high burnout among staff. Thus, turnover and burnout are different.

Carroll and White (1982) from their personal experiences with the burnout syndrome, from co-workers and previous studies derived a list of the following assumptions of burnout:

1. Burnout is caused by prolonged exposure to stress and frustration. All personal and environmental factors that generate stress and frustration for human beings must be considered as potential causes of burnout.

2. Burnout is a holistic and psycho-biologic-social concept.

3. The quality of interpersonal relationships that distinguish the work environment and other ecosystems of the worker is especially important to consider.

4. Recognition of burnout signs in the individual will depend as much as on the sign’s origin, severity, duration and the observer’s theoretical orientation to burnout, his/her experience and sensitivity to burnout and the honesty of the observer.

5. Signs of burnout occur slowly, overtime with ever increasing severity.

6. Burnout is a process not an event. Cherniss (1980a) conducted a longitudinal study on the process of burnout during the first three years of employment. However, little is known whether or not an individual burnout repeatedly over the course of an entire career or if the process has discrete stages (Carroll and White, 1981; Edelwich and Brodsky, 1980). Meyer (1980) revealed from his study two stages of burnout i.e. the experiencing stage and reaction stage.

7. The process of burnout occurs in varying degrees for the individual.

8. The symptoms of burnout may vary with duration of burnout and with respect to their consistency and intensity.

9. Burnout syndrome may be experienced more than once by the same individual.

10. A worker’s awareness of his/her burnout status and concomitant decrement in the quantity and quality of work performance may vary from complete denial to nearly full consciousness of the experience.

11. Burnout can be infectious.
12. Burnout is especially common and severe among professionals who deliver direct care and assistance to emotionally distressed clients in public institutions.

13. When the aggregate level of stress and frustration among workers within the work environment prevents the completion of tasks essential to the primary/elementary mission/purpose of the organisation. The organisation itself may be described as burned-out.

14. Certain characteristics are shared by all burned-out workers and organisations.

15. There is no relation in personality traits or personality configuration that, in and of itself, will cause someone to burnout, but some personality characteristics may make someone more vulnerable to burnout.

16. Burnout is not disease even though physical disorders may arise as a consequence of burnout.

17. Burnout is more likely to occur among highly motivated workers than among less motivated.

18. Burnout may lead to subsequent personal and professional growth and development, as well as greater despair and trauma.

2.1.2 Dimensions of Burnout

Maslach Burnout Inventory measures professional burnout. It is designed to assess the three dimensions of the burnout syndrome (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Burnout has three dimensions:

1. Emotional Exhaustion
2. Depersonalization
3. Personal Accomplishment

1. Emotional Exhaustion

The dimension on which there is the most agreement is exhaustion. It is also described as wearing out, loss of energy, depletion, debilitation and fatigue. It may make the person feelingless and spiritless.
2. **Depersonalization**

Depersonalization dimension is a negative shift in response to others, depersonalization, negative or inappropriate attitudes towards clients, loss of idealism, and irritability.

3. **Personal Accomplishment**

The third dimension is a negative response towards oneself and one’s personal accomplishment, also described as depression, low morale, withdrawal, reduced productivity or capability and an inability to cope (Christina Maslach, 1981).

2.1.3 **The Ecological Perspective of Burnout**

Carroll (1980) pointed out burnout as a form of ecological dysfunction. Ecology refers to the inter-relationships of organisms and their environments or ecosystems. According to this perspective, burnout occurs whenever a person with inadequate stress management and inadequate need-gratifying skills must work in a stressful and need frustrating work environment.

The dynamic interaction of environmental variables (such as poor supervision and unresolved excessive paperwork) with personal variables (such as poor physical health and unresolved emotional conflicts) generates burnout. The influence of the other ecosystems (for instance the family) also counts. This interaction can be expressed by the formula BO = f (P< - >E). According to the ecological model (Carroll and White, 1982) the individual’s work environment and larger life space contains the following components.

1. The person (worker).
2. Environmental components.
   a). Microsystem
   b). Mesosystem
   c). Exosystem
   d). Macrosystem

1. **The Person (Worker) Element of the Ecological Model**

According to this model, all components, which affect one’s performance must be studied and evaluated. It may be the person’s coping skills, physical and
2. **Environmental Components of the Ecological Model**

a). **The Microsystem**

This element of ecological model belongs to the smallest organised ecosystem within which the person performs most of his/her work, this is called Microsystems. Such as the home and the office are part of it.

b). **The Mesosystem**

In the hierarchy of work environment, Mesosystem is on second rank. It consists of all micro-systems such as all the departments, offices and bureaus of an institution etc.

c). **The Exosystem**

In a typical company, board of directors, or institutions surroundings, neighborhood, community, local legislative parties, funding sources and regulatory agencies all form exosystem.

d). **The Macrosystem**

Macrosystems is as effective as the rest three are but it affects indirectly, i.e. more impersonal, more distant and global than those of the Micro, Meso, and Exosystems. High unemployment, inflation, high interest rate, sexual and racial bias and natural catastrophes, and above all burnout, is influenced by Macrosystems.

According to the Oxford English Dictionary (Simpson & Weiner, 1989), “Burnout is physical or emotional exhaustion, especially caused by stress at work, depression and disillusionment.”

2.1.4 **Factors Contributing to the Experience of Burnout**

Factors contributing to job stress and burnout in human service programmes can be found in three different levels of analysis.
I. The individual factors include:

(a) Personality Traits

The introvert is governed primarily by subjective factors. On the other hand, Extravert action is determined primarily by objective factors but not values. The extravert’s inner needs and inner life tend to succumb to external necessity. Thus, introvert tend to be subjective. This, of course, is the opposite of the extravert.

(b) Career–Related Goals and Aptitudes.

(c) Previous Experience and Educational History.

(d) Age and Sex.

Carroll and White (1982) discussing personal factors in the ecological perspective that contribute to burnout pointed out the following:

(a) Inadequate training and/or education.

(b) Stress and frustration.

(c) Deficits in general job skills.

(d) Significant unresolved unconscious conflicts.

(e) Inability or refusal to seek assistance from others.

II. The system or organisational factors include:

(a) Role Structures: Specific characteristics of role that contribute to job stress and strain include: role conflict, role ambiguity, the amount of challenge, variety and autonomy available in the role.

(b) The Power Structure: Power structure characterised by centralized hierarchical decision-making and a high degree of formalization which curtails the autonomy and control of the staff members. Such a power structure frustrates the staff person’s quest for psychological success. Burnout is an all too common consequence when autonomy and control are limited by the power structure of a human service.

(c) The Normative Structure: This structure influences job stress and burnout in at least four different ways: (1) the strength, clarity and degree of
staff identification with a guiding philosophy of treatment; (2) the strength and pervasiveness of the bureaucratic mentality; (3) the emphasis on learning, experimentation and the production of knowledge as program goals, and (4) the degree of concern for staff and the impact of the work settings on them.

III. Supervision and Social Support:

Supervisors monitor and evaluate the work of subordinates, ensuring a certain level of accountability and conformity to the organisational roles. They also communicate important administrative decisions and directions which pass down the chain of command. Supervision, however, in the human services is intended to serve and support the worker, it serves a “professional development” function as well as an administrative control function.

The quality of supervision is influenced by role pressures on the supervisor as well as the supervisor’s attitudes, skills and knowledge.

Differences in treatment, ideology, personal values, status, resources, and power can easily lead to mistrust, competition and conflict. Role conflict, ambiguity, and overload also can interfere with social support. The role structure can also severely limit opportunities for social interaction and support. Finally, informal norms of social interaction may interfere with support even when other factors are favorable.

IV. The Historical and Cultural Factors:

Workers and programs function in a cultural and historical milieu that strongly shapes thought and action. The decline of community during the last 150 years has increased the organisational demands on human service agencies and reduced public confidence and social support in those settings. The period of rapid social change in the human services that began in the 1960s has further recorded public confidence and support and has increased political pressure and external demand. This period of reform has also led to unrealistic expectations for change that inevitably gave way to disappointment, bitterness, and a greater sense of hopelessness that existed before. The growing importance of values such as authenticity, novelty, and self-actualization during this period eventually led to new and often unrealistic demands for work, economic security. An opportunity to serve society no longer were adequate rewards for many who entered the work force. Finally, the professional mystique contributed
to unrealistic expectations concerning work in human service programmes (Cherniss 1980b).

Burnout is a syndrome which has gained attention as a problem among workers in helping professions and is debited as a phenomenon in which professionals lose energy and enthusiasm for their jobs, idealism changes into mechanical practicability. Burnout progresses until employees, disillusioned by feelings of powerlessness and vulnerability, may leave their jobs or professions.

Until recently workers in human services rarely expressed frustrations openly or protested about job conditions. Yet burnout is particularly devastating to workers in helping fields because frequently both personal ambitions and idealistic desires to help people are thwarted. Unlike industrial workers who tend to their jobs, human service workers are frequently dedicated to ideals extended beyond the job into their lives (Lesson 1981).

Dealing with teachers’ stress and burnout Kyriacou (1987) states that there is mounting evidence that prolonged occupational stress can lead to both mental and physical ill-health, a general concern to improve the quality of teachers’ working lives and a concern that stress and burnout may significantly impair the working relationship a teacher has with his pupils and the quality of teaching and commitment he is able to display. There has also been a recent increase in the number of teachers claiming early retirement pensions on grounds of ill-health precipitated by stress and attempts by teacher unions to include an element in their salary claims to cover stress (Remley 1985).

According to Spielberger (1979) the term stress is used to refer to a complex psycho-biological process that consists of three major elements. The process is initiated by a situation or stimulus that is potentially harmful or dangerous stressor. If a stressor is interpreted as dangerous or threatening, an anxiety reaction will be elicited. Thus, the definition of stress refers to the following temporal events.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Stressor</th>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>Anxiety State</th>
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Kyriacou (1989) viewed stress as a negative feeling or unpleasant emotional state resulting from work as a teacher. The hypothetical concept of stress can be illuminated for any individual not only by reference to stressors but also by
measurement of the strain of the actual responses or consequences exhibited (physically or psychologically). Thus, the concept can be tied at both ends to antecedents and responses, leading some investigators to state that the investigation of stressors and strains in the study of stress and burnout.

If the National Union of Teachers in the U.K. were to be believed, “occupational stress is now very much greater for the vast majority of teachers than for most of other professions (NUT, 1990).”

Stress is “the demands including appraisal of threat, placed on an organism rather than the response of the organism to those demands” (Backwith, 1996).

Mensana organisation (1998) recognizes the symptoms of excessive job stress (job burnout). The list is a long one, fatigue, insomnia, high blood pressure, headaches, ulcers, heartburn, inability to concentrate or relax, change in appetite, waning sexual interest among others, a hopeless feeling of overload being unable to leave job problems behind at night or during the weekend, a trapped, immobilized feeling- this is the stage where there is definite problem.

Work overload and personality conflict are two of the most common causes of job-burnout. Too much responsibility is another cause. People in management jobs complain most often about overload, but they have an advantage of which they may not be aware of flexibility. Through discussion, even confrontation, they may be able to change their work place problem. Technological changes are threat to many workers, especially the older ones who feel they have earned their place in “the system”. In some cases, work - place burnout may arise because we genuinely cannot handle over job. We may promote as “the peter principle” would have it, to “the level of our incompetence”.

Elliss (1999) defined burnout as a feeling of tension that is both emotional and physical. It can occur in specific situations. Different people perceive different situations as burned-out. Burnout management refers to the effort to control and reduce the tension that occurs with a situation that is considered difficult or unmanageable.

According to Shetty (2000), “Stress appears when our bodies react to a challenge, mental or physical, by increasing metabolism, elevating blood pressure, shooting up heart beat and breathing rate. Most of the time we do not fight against stress and this gets us into trouble. A surplus of unused adrenaline causing through our bodies can lead to a host of psychological problems.
Finally, the above cited conceptual framework and definitions of burnout when taken together, suggest that we are dealing with transactional process. Moreover, burnout cannot be defined specifically as a process in which a previously committed professional disengages from his/her work in response to stress or strain experienced, in the job (Cherniss, 1981). Hence, burnout should be distinguished from turnover. Burnout may cause staff to quit, but staff may burnout and remain on the job. People may leave jobs for positive or irrelevant reasons rather than to escape a bad work situation. To summarise, Burnout is a process that begins with excessive and prolonged levels of job stress. This stress produces strain in the individual (feeling of tension, irritability, frustration, fatigue and worry). The process is completed when the workers defensively cope with the job stress by psychologically detaching themselves from the job and becoming apathetic, cynical or rigid. According to the critics, “Burnout is simply old wine in a new bottle” trendy name for a problem that has been around for a long time. “They used to call it depression, but not known as Burnout” (Trumpets one newspaper headline, 1980).

2.2 SELF – CONCEPT

Self - concept is the individual’s conception and evaluation of himself, including his values, abilities, goals and personal worth (Goldenson, 1984). Good (1959) defined self-concept in relation to the individual’s, phenomenal field. “Self-concept”, for him, refers to those part of the phenomenal field which the individual has differentiated as relatively stable and definite parts or characteristics of him.

Self - concept as used in professional literature is a group of feelings and cognitive processes which are inferred from observed or manifest behaviour. It is the person’s total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a direct force in behaviour (La benne and Greene, 1969).

It is a core of our being ‘Self’ as stated by Goldenson (1987), is the total concept of the individual consisting of all characteristics, attributes, conscious and unconscious mental and physical. According to Sherif (1966) ‘Self’ is a developmental form of the individual consisting of inter-related attitudes that the individual has acquired in relation to his own body and his parts, social values, goals and institutions, which define and regulated his relatedness to him in concrete
activities. Thus, 'self' is the sum total of person's ideas about who and what he is, what he thinks of himself to be and what others judge him to be.

Self-concept is one of the most dominating factors influencing the individual behaviour. On the other hand, life experience too affect the self-concept. Self-concept is considered to be the most significant factor in human life as everyone is continuously striving towards self-actualization, and self enhancement, and is constantly wishing to avoid self-condemnation and self - lowering experience. Self-concept consists of all the perceptions, feelings, attitudes, aspirations and values of oneself concerning oneself (Lecky, 1943). He also considered ego as the individual self (James, 1890). In addition to this global concept, he felt that self includes spiritual, material and social aspect. Mental faculties and inclinations comprised the spiritual self. Material possessions constituted the material self. The esteem and regards that a person perceives others have for him forms the social self. James (1890) also gave the self a dynamic quality in terms of self-preservation and seeking.

Factors that influence the formation of self-concept: Self-representation factors differ in their origins. Some self-representations result from inferences that people make about their attitudes and dispositions while watching their own actions. People also make inferences from their internal physiological (arousal) reactions (Bandura, 1977).

Representations of the self also derives from direct attempt at self assessment. Thrope (1983, 86) presents a formal model of self assessment that describes the diagnosticity of a task, based on the person's uncertainty about his or her ability level and the probabilities of success and failure. People may differ in their willingness to seek out potentiality threatening information about the self (Short, 1986). In certain situations they may be more willing to seek out or accept potentially threatening information for example during life transitions (Cantor, 1985) or when making discussions with long term consequences (Thrope, 1986).

In contrast to Freud's (1943) conception of the self or ego as a system of process, Mead's (1934), self is an object of awareness. Mead claims that the person responds to himself with certain feelings and attitudes as others respond to him. He becomes self-conscious (aware) by the way people react to him as an object. Further, various selves can be differentiated by the specific set of responses in different social settings. Home attitudes expressed towards him create a home self, school attitudes
Conceptual Framework

expressed by teacher and classroom experience create a school self, and social attitudes expressed by peers and others in social setting create a social self.

Self-concept is expressed by a life space region which determines present belief about the self (Lewin, 1936). The conceptual framework “life space” is a psychological concept to be distinguished from physical space. It includes the individual’s universe of personal experience as a space in which he moves. Goals, evaluations, ideas, perceptions of significant objects, future plans and events, all form a part of life space of the person. Life space can be considered a complex internal mechanism which produces behaviour. All the variables that determine the direction of behaviour lie in the life space of the individual. If one is to predict behaviour, one must know the life space of the person at the time the behaviour is to be predicted. Similarly, if one desires to change behaviour, one must alter the valences of the subjects life space.

Lundholm (1940), another self-psychologist distinguishes between a subjective-self and an objective-self. The subjective self is mainly what a person comes to think about himself. He views the subjective-self as alterable from the experiences one has in interaction with others in the pursuit of various tasks. This theory is similar to Mead’s (1934) in that the self is primarily an object of awareness.

According to Gale (1969), self-awareness does not happen all at once, but it is dynamic on-going developmental process that begins during infancy and early childhood and continues until death.

According to Eysenck, Arnold and Meili (1972) Self-concept defined as the totality of attitudes, judgments, and values of an individual relating to his behaviour, abilities and qualities. Self-concept embraces awareness of these variables and their evaluation. Self-concept means what an individual thinks about himself. It is his own conception of his intelligence, abilities, academic status, behaviour- temperaments qualities, emotional tendencies and socio - economic status.

According to Encyclopaedia of psychology (1975) “ Self-concept is the totality of an attitudes, judgements and values of an individual relating to his behaviour, abilities and qualities.”
2.2.1 Theory of Self-Concept

In the various attempts made to understand and explain the nature of self-concept, notable psychologists and self-theorists have developed different theoretical models. In his literature Byrne (1984), reviewed four theoretical models as follows:-

(a). Nomothetic Model. (b). Hierarchical Model.
(c). Taxonomic Model and (d). Compensatory Model.

(a). Nomothetic Model: According to Soares and Soares (1983), the first and oldest perspective model may be referred to as the Nomothetic position. In this model, self-concept, is perceived as a unidimensional construct. Accordingly, characteristics descriptive of self-concept are used to explain one’s behaviour in various settings. Marter’s (1983) model of the development of self-conceptions posits a tendency for self descriptions to become increasingly abstract.

(b). Hierarchical Model: The second theoretical perspective of self-concept has been termed as the hierarchical model. This theoretical position holds that self-concept as multidimensional and that the multiple facets of self-concept may be ranked in a hierarchical formation. This model was originally proposed by Shavelson and his colleague (Shavelson et al. 1976; Shavelson and Staurt, 1981). The hierarchical model parallels in many ways Vernon’s (1950) model of intelligence.

(c). Taxonomic Model: The third theoretical view of self-concept supports the notion that self-concept is structured like a series of several specific factors. This perspective has been termed as the taxonomic model (Soares and Soares, 1983), and analogous to Spearman’s (1927), Thurston and Thurston’s (1943), theories of intelligence. Here, facts of self-concept may be relatively independent to each other.

(d). Compensatory Model: Winne and Marx (1981) proposed the compensatory model. This perspective in agreement with the hierarchical and taxonomic models, supports the notion of a general facet of self-concept. However, the compensatory model suggests that the specific facets are inversely related, rather than proportionally or independently.
Hence, lower status on one specific facet of self-concept might be compensated by higher status on another specific facet of self-concept. Thus, conceptions of the self within different domains may be at different developmental stages.

In a recent study by Nurius (1986), self-concept has been viewed as dynamic and future-oriented, including self-knowledge about goals and motives, personal standards, values, rules, and strategies for regulating and controlling, one’s behavior (Nuttin, 1984; Higgins, Strauman, and Klein, 1985; Gollwitzer and Wickland, 1986). The sense of what is possible for one to be, to think, to feel, or to experience, provides a direction or an impetus for action, change, and development.

According to Markus and Nurius (1986a, 1986b) on the basis of past experiences, one’s motives, aspirations, goals, and fears are also cognitively represented within the self-concept in the form of possible selves may represent either future goals to strive for or feared possibilities to avoid. This approach to self-concept extends the work of Rogers (1961) and other researchers. Thus, with many theoretical evaluations, the emerging cognitive analysis of the self-concept builds on and reformulates important earlier models, taking recent advances into account.

Another important dimension of current self-concept theories is that of interaction with the social environment. Human behavior is assumed to be a function of forces both from the person and from the environment (Bandura, 1994). Each thought, feeling, or overt action can be viewed as a function of the individual and the needs, desires, goals, and expectations of those in the social environment and social contacts are the inevitable background against which self-concept emerged and developed.

### 2.2.2 Dimensions of Self-Concept

Self-concept has many dimensions and might be seen as the individual’s organisation of all the qualities that are relevant to his self-evaluation. Self-concept is organised in the sense that the individual perceives himself as a unit, and the qualities that he attributes to himself are fitted together into a meaningful whole. These qualities take the form of both evaluative attributes, which are usually described by the use of adjustment (handsome ambitions and the like), and role or position labels, usually expressed by Rogers (1961), (child, doctor, teacher, and so forth). Four dimensions of self-concept are as follows:
(1). **The Basic Self-concept**: The basic self-concept is the individual’s perception of his abilities and his status. This is the perception of the roles to be played in the outside world. It is the individual’s concept of the kind of person he thinks he is. This concept is influenced by his physical self, his personal appearance, dress and grooming, by his abilities, disposition, his values, beliefs, and aspiration. The self-concept is enhanced when there is intellectual ability to meet problems. The slow reader, for example, may find difficulty in learning, thus causing negative self-concepts to operate in learning situations. Even for the person with intellectual abilities and good learning habits, the self-concept still has its ups and downs.

(2). **The Transitory Perception of Self**: The individual’s self-image may at one time be compulsive, compensatory and unrealistic and at other times insightful and practical. The self-perception which the individual holds at any given point of time may be determined by some “inner-directed” mood or by some “other-directed” influence. Many individuals do not recognize their transitory nature. They are optimistic or pessimistic, elated or depressed, satisfied or dissatisfied in all-or-none sort of way. They are sometimes able to switch rapidly from one extreme to the other. Since there is some tendency for the individual to reflect more on his problems than on his accomplishments, the transitory perception of self is largely negative.

(3). **The Social Self**: “To see yourself as others see you”, may or may not be valid. At one time, when in an optimistic mood, the adolescent perceives that other people see him in good light, when depressed, he perceives that others depreciate him. When others think him stupid, or socially inapt, there is a tendency for him to amplify his feelings of insecurity: “How could any one like me?” More positive views on the part of others may enhance his perception of his social self, somewhat but they play a lesser role when he is down. “There are more ways to get feedback from a loused up social situation than from doing things right.” This perception of college freshman may have something in this statement.

(4). **The Ideal Self**: The concept of the ideal self, the kind of person the adolescent hopes to be, involves relating levels of aspiration to level of ability. It also involves opportunities for self-realisation.

When the ideal self is set at an unrealistic level, frustration is increased. When it is set below one’s level of ability, motivation may become lacking. The adolescent’s level of aspiration tends to go up with success and down with failure. This up-down movement is more exaggerated than that usually found in adults.
ideal self of the adult has evolved slowly through experience. Lacking such experience, the adolescent, depends a great deal on identification with someone else as the ideal—an older brother or sister, a parent or a teacher. This ideal person may stimulate either emulation or resentment, sometimes both.

The concept of one's self is moulded by reward and punishment, praise and blame, and by the feelings of accomplishment that come with solving a problem. During pre-adolescence, both parents and peers influence the self-concept. This situation changes gradually until the young person's self-evaluation is determined more by what his age-mates think of him. Later, cliques and other organisations provide a climate of influence. Finally, the adolescent discovers that self must be determined. Individually, he has to learn the hard way that achieving identity is a long and arduous process. He learns that such identity comes through thinking, feeling, and decision-making. It thrives on social interaction and in the end, the question, "who am I?" still remains. Here we have selective perception as it relates to self-concept (Cattell, 1950).

Where Cattell (1950) expands the self functions, Murphy (1947) points out objectified self, as does Mead (1934) and delimits the self-process primarily to defensive-enhancing functions. Murphy (1947) presents a number of selves dynamically interconnected in the form of a total organisation. He defines "self" as the individual as known to the individual. This derives from a person's conception and perceptions of his total being, including such selves as the frustrated self and the ideal self.

2.2.3 Measurement of Self - Concept

It is true that we cannot see the self-concept, we can observe behaviour. In this instance, and when dealing with all psychological constructs, one infers the nature of the self-concept from observable behaviour over a period of time. The behaviour is known to be symptomatic of the problem; therefore, if a person continues to behave in a particular manner, we may infer a linking mechanism from his behaviour.

In order to obtain information more efficiently, psychometrists have developed a variety of tests to elicit the behaviour pattern. Most of these tests require a person to give information about himself, and this may be somewhat limited. However, no one has the continuity of exposure and an opportunity to observe and evaluate his inner life and thought as the person himself. In order to exploit an individual's likes and
dislikes, interests, and attitudes, the obvious approach is to ask him about them. Rogers (1951) states: “The best vantage point for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself”. While the advantage of self-report is the provision of an “inside view” based on the person’s knowledge and experience about himself, there are some definite limitations. This method is weak from the standpoint of possessing external validity. Self-reports can be easily false unless the goodwill of the subject is obtained. Some subjects cannot view accurate evaluations of themselves because of emotional blocks or defenses. Also, results may be affected by mood fluctuations, by conditions at the time and place of the testing.

The relative status of a person’s self-concept is usually determined through the use of one or more of the following techniques:

1. Introspective self-reflections in personal family, social and school teachers or work settings.
3. Congruence between subjective self-report and action and the objective reports of clinically trained observers.
4. Non-introspective references derived from projective techniques and clinical interviews.

Measurement of self-concept is a tricky job for an observer. Each person can have a true picture of his ownself, while its measurement by another can only be done by way of interference. Also a person may hold certain non-existing notions of himself or some unconscious attitudes of self which are not in conformity with his conscious opinion of himself. Furthermore, a person being conscious of another’s assessing him, may not project his true self.

In order to assess the self-concept of the individual, researchers have used varying techniques in drawing true inferences of self-concept such as observing actual behaviour, conducting interviews, and objective tests. These techniques can be divided into two categories:

(i). **Adjective Check List**: Sarabin (1952) formulated a list of self-defining adjectives. To him it was better than the questionnaire method. Taking most of the words from Gough’s List 284 adjectives and some for Allport’s List, he prepared a
Personality Word List (PWL) of 200 adjectives which he used for studying males and females, and neurotics and non-neurotics.

(ii). **Adjective Rating Scale**: A modification of Adjective Check List by Bills and Bills (1958), for finding out the sum of self-concept, was a Rating Scale of 49 traits. Ideal-self discrepancies were also calculated on this scale.

Deo (1971) revised (PWL) to test self-concept scale which contains 90 statements.

Mehar (1988) opined that the concept is the picture that a person has about himself. So, an individual’s self-conception is his view of himself. It is derived from taking the role of others in social interaction, self-conception is equivalent to the self if the latter is defined as the individual as perceived by the individual in a socially determined frame of reference. A self-conception consists, in addition to (a) a view of identity, of (b) notions of one’s interests and aversions i.e. his attitudes towards objects, cognitively, affectivity and evaluatively, (c) a conception of one’s goals and his success in achieving them, (d) a picture sometimes quite sketchy of the ideological world view; frame of reference through which he views himself and other objects and (e) some kind of evaluation. Bal (1986) revealed that as self-concept goes on increasing the number of irrational fears go on decreasing and that confidence is reflected in the personality of individual.

Moulton (1990) declared that a relation exists between self-concept and personality of individual.

Machado (1998) opines self-concept is self-estimation by individual or as the relation of individual with himself and the world around him.

An individual’s self-concept undergoes a change by the challenge offered by the circumstances of life and the way people respond to them. In the process of pursuing his needs, the child learns something of his own capabilities and sooner or later he clashes with others - his parents, his peers, and his teachers. From them, he receives encouragement and frustrations and adopts his own behaviour accordingly (Evans, 1990).

Thus, it is the concept of self which personifies the teacher as a whole. The self-concept is the teacher’s way of looking at himself. It also signifies his way of thinking, feeling and behaving. In other words, the self-concept is presented as a construct or living mechanism used by psychologists to infer a process from
observable behaviour and to help to explain causal behaviour, we hold that a person’s feelings and cognitive process of which he has a conscious awareness, are the major components of his self-concept. To conclude with James (1950), a man’s self is the sum total of all that he can call his, not his body and psychic powers but his clothes, house, his wife, children or friends etc. Gill (1986) considers self-concept as the pivot around which the person’s whole being revolves. It is considered as a critical variable in educational research. Finally, in a nutshell, self-concept is not determined by genes. It is acquired through life experiences. An individual’s self-concept undergoes gradual change throughout his life time.

2.3 INTROVERSION – EXTRAVERSION

Personality factors are extremely important in organisational setting: Perception, learning and motivation deal with some specific aspects of human behaviour. Personality takes the whole-man concept because it affects the various psychological processes. James and Maslow (1968) opine that it is better to consider the individual aspects of a person’s make-up as bricks and personality as the whole house built of bricks, but held together with sum total of characteristics of the person; to other, it refers to a unitary mode of response to life situations.

Cattell (1950) defined that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation. The goal of psychological research in personality is, thus, to establish laws about what different people will do in all kinds of social and general environmental situations. Personality is the first place concerned with all the behaviour of the individual, both overt and under the skin. It is concerned with a range of behaviour extending from the individual’s political and teaching views to the way he digests the food. However, at one extreme that concerned with behaviour of groups of personalities the most intensive study is left to the social psychologists and the social scientists while at the other extreme that concerned with neurology and physiology the more detailed examination is left to physiological and biological sciences.

Good (1973) defined that omnibus definitions state that personality as the total psychological and social reactions of an individual, the synthesis of his subjective, emotional and mental life, his behaviour and his reactions to the environment: the unique or individual traits of a person are connected to a lesser degree by personality than the term character.
A distinction worth mentioning at the outset is between traits and states. Nearly all of the adjectives that can be used to summarize people’s behavior—like anxious, aggressive, talkative, depressed, sober, etc.—can refer either to characteristic differences between people (traits) or to temporary fluctuation or moods within the same individual (states). Personality is mainly concerned with enduring characteristics of the individual, i.e., traits rather than states.

2.3.1 Theories of Personality Organisation

Personality has been studied from three points of view: types, traits, and overall structure. Type theories portray an individual with respect to a relatively few broad classifications. Trait theories try first to discover the meaning personality dimensions, and second to describe a person in accordance with the degree to which he exhibits these characteristics. Finally, structure theories envisage the individual personality as an organised and dynamic whole rather than as a collection of its variable constituent parts or elements in this present study.

Various schemes for “typing” personality have been proposed by psychologists, the best known being the two-fold classification into introvert and extravert. Introversion and Extraversion are beguiling categories, since we can readily find “reference people” who can be catalogued as “typically” Introvert or Extravert.

I. Eysenck’s Personality Theory

The theoretical orientation of Eysenck’s personality theory developed and modified over the years (1947, 1952, 1960, 1963, 1967, 1969, 1970, 1972, 1980) points four main independent dimensions of personality viz. Introversion – Extraversion (I/E), Neuroticism/stability, Psychoticism and Intelligence. These four dimensions were the resultant of elaborate factor analysis (Eysenck, 1960, Eysenck and Eysenck, 1964). By dimensions Eysenck (1952) means “focal points of frequently occurring group of characteristics concentration of correlated traits which exist along a continuum. Eysenck and Eysenck (1980), Maslow and Taylor (1980), Cattell and Siegal (1980), Gray (1965), Vernon (1980) concluded that dimensions of personality proposed by them seem to be very much the same in different countries and cultures where they have been studied and also gave a cognitive semantic processing analysis of personality development.
II. Eysenck’s Introversion - Extraversion

Eysenck analysed Introversion and Extraversion at two levels. On the descriptive side Eysenck (1957, 1959 and 1969) deduced the main concept of Introversion and Extroversion from categories based on Janet and Jung’s views and supported by Hildebrand’s study (1958) as follows:

Introversion and Extroversion is based on the properties of central nervous system. The biological basis of personality by Eysenck (1967), presents that biological causes (underlie) following the psychological concepts of emotional, excitation and inhibition. In Eysenckian terms (1964).

(1) Exemplary Extravert is social good mixer, needs to have people to talk loves, excitement, is generally impulsive and carefree, easy-going, optimistic, likes to laugh and be merry. His feelings are kept under light control and he tends to be aggressive. He has many social engagement, acts naturally at parties and adapts easily.

(2) A typical introvert is quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people, he is reserved and keeps distance except few intimate friends, plans ahead and looks before he leaps, keeps his feelings under close control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner and does not lose his temper easily. If need be, he can effectively take part in social situation.

Eysenck (1957) gave a clear picture of Introversion and Extraversion based on following hypothesis:

(i) Extraverts compared to Introverts are less able to tolerate tasks of a routine nature as inhibition accumulates to a greater extent in the central nervous system, and it inhibits sustained task-performance.

(ii) Condition ability implies that as extraverts condition less well than Introverts, they become socialized less readily and also develop weaker self-control. Therefore, Extraverts are less likely to be influenced by social and institutional codes of behaviour.

Eysenck (1967), related his conception of the physiological (individual) differences between Extraversion and Introversion to hypothetical inherited differences in the functioning of the “nervous system” to distinction used by Russian researchers especially Sokolov (1963), of organisms with “weak nervous system and organism with strong nervous system” (Gray, 1965). [ The origin of Extraversion and Introversion from Pavlov’s (1927), conceptualization of Excitation and Inhibition in
the brain, from Hull’s (1943), concept of reactive inhibition and from Gray (1965), level of arousal]. It is assumed that introverts have a weak nervous system while the extraverts have a strong one. He also stated that those persons in whom reactive inhibition developed quickly was of a strong nature and dissipated slowly were more likely to develop extraverted patterns of behaviour, whereas individuals in whom reactive inhibitions was quickly dissipated were more prone to develop introverted forms of behaviour (Eysenck, 1957, 1963 & 1967).

Ruch (1992) gave a table which “allows the deduction of hypothesis regarding the relationship between the Eysenckian typology and Pavlov’s Types of Nervous System”. This table is given below:

Table 2.2
The four Hippocratic – Galen temperaments as characterized by the Pavlovian NSPs and the Eysenckian Superfactors E and N (Introvert & Extravert).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hippocrates–Galen Typology</th>
<th>Pavlov’s TNS.</th>
<th>Eysenckian Supper Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Melancholic</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Unstable Introvert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choleric.</td>
<td>Strong unbalanced</td>
<td>Unstable Extravert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phlegmatic.</td>
<td>Strong unbalanced slow</td>
<td>Stable Introvert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanguine.</td>
<td>Strong unbalanced Mobile</td>
<td>Stable Extravert</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NSP = Nervous System Properties. TNS = 4 Types of Nervous System.

According to Ruch (1992) “Pavlov’s weak type is the neurotic introvert according to Eysenck, both models consider them to be Galen’s melancholic temperament type. Similarly, Pavlov’s strong and unbalanced Nervous System (NS) type corresponds with neurotic Extraversion (E). Since both stand for the choleric temperament. Furthermore, the strong, balanced and slow NS type is the stable
introvert and the strong, balanced and mobile NS type can be equated with the Eysenckian stable Extravert.”

Ruch (1992) tested the aforementioned hypothesis in 3 samples of 159, 102 and 112 adults respectively. The objective was to “determine the correspondence between Eysenck’s typology and Pavlov’s TNS”. Most of the results upheld the predictions. The main area of difference referred to the finding that the sanguine temperament and the choleric temperament seem to be equally unbalanced. However, the low balance of the former is a result of the “unexpectedly strong excitatory process in the sanguine temperament” and the “low balance of the latter is due to weak inhibitory processes”.

Eysenck’s (1967), assumptions that the differences between extraverted and introverted persons arose due to the differences in the excitatory and inhibitory potentials of their central nervous system. High neural inhibitions were indicative of extraverted persons because the reasons of their experiences was not long enough to support an inner thought life. Neural stimulus traces persisted in people who were low in neural inhibition. This resulted in the inward direction of attention which was so typical of the introvert.

Eysenck (1947) listed the following differences between Introverts and Extraverts:

(A) The Introvert has a more subjective, the Extravert a more objective outlook;
(B) The Introvert shows a higher degree of cerebral activity; the Extravert a higher degree of behavioral activity.
(C) The Introvert shows a tendency of self-control (inhibition); the Extravert tendency to lack of such control.

Frost (1969), personality of “Extraverts were assertive and lacking in submissiveness and self-criticism as predicted by Eysenck and Eysenck (1964). This was conformed by Schaeffers (1964) hypothetical model of social and emotional behaviour in children which is shown figure 2.1.
Introduction

Fig 2.1

Biscoff (1970) explained the differences between extraverts and introverts by saying, “extravert displays emotions, is inclined to be volatile and favours action over contemplative thought. The introvert hides feelings and seeks solutions to problems through passivity. To achieve true self-actualization and self-control, man must bring both introversive and extroversive characteristics into proper and lasting balance.” The opposite is true for the introvert.

2.3.2 Type Theories

Types of theories is generally known that each person is unique. Most of us find it convenient to classify individuals into groups according to some trait or characteristics which they hold in common. Thus, we “type” people as athletic, studious, fun loving, religious and so on.

Jung’s theory is varied and complex. He proposed that people can be divided generally into two types- Extravert and Introvert, each of which can be subdivided into four subtypes : thinking, feeling, sensation and instruction. According to Jung ((1959), each person is both introvert and extravert, with one type predominating consciously and the other type unconsciously.

In the extravert, according to Jung (1959), we have an individual whose decisions and actions are determined primarily by objective relationships. His attention and interest are centered on the immediate environment. The extraverts’ inner needs and inner life tend to succumb to external necessity. He is an objective,
reality-oriented individual who may, however, go so far in the direction of objectively as to deny many of his own inner needs and aspirations.

The introvert, on the other hand, is governed primarily by subjective factors or objective values, what he does tend to be guided by his old ideas, by absolute standards. He tends to lack flexibility and to adjust to his own inner values. Thus, introvert tend to be subjectively-oriented. This, of course, is the opposite of the extravert (Eysenck, 1962).

### Jung’s Introvert and Extravert Personality Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Types</th>
<th>Thinking</th>
<th>Feeling</th>
<th>Sensation</th>
<th>Instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTROVERT</td>
<td>A philosopher like Kant.</td>
<td>Seen mainly in women who express their confidences in diaries and secret poetry,</td>
<td>An oil painter like Renoir.</td>
<td>A mystical dreamer—may be an artist or an unappreciated “genius”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXTRAVERT</td>
<td>A Scientist like Charls Darwin.</td>
<td>Fashion conscious people interested causes affairs especially common in women.</td>
<td>An outgoing seeker of “sense” experience, as a gourmet or an art lover.</td>
<td>A promoter who has a keen nose for new enterprises showing promise for development.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2.3: Jung’s classification of Personality Types.


Personality (i.e. introvert and extravert) as an important variable of development and behavior in relation to all developmental stages of life, make the
study of this stage more meaningful and scientific. Different aspects of personality can act as effective variables on determining the behaviour and performance of an individual during a particular period of life. Freudenberg (1971) said, “personality is a stable system of complex characteristics by which the life-pattern of the individual may be identified”.

According to Guilford (1959) “An individual’s personality is his unique pattern of traits . . . . . . A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another.” This implies that traits are not absolute. For example, if an individual is “extravert”, he is so in comparison with others who are at the lower rung of that scale.

**Extraversion – Introversion** has a sex bias. Men generally lead in group activities, are slow, deliberate in movement, over conscientious, inclined to stop and think over things before acting, tend to organise things on their own initiative, like to take on new and important responsibilities and seek to avoid troublesome situations, women are opposite on all these points. They are more introverted than men (Eysenck, 1964).

Parvin (1980) describes personality in terms of response. According to him “personality represents those characteristics of a person or of the people that generally account for consistent patterns of response to situation. He also found that introverts are assumed to have lower levels of threshold arousal rather than extraverts.

Regarding the personality characteristics the teacher can choose to be friendly, sympathetic, sarcastic, antagonistic, poised, tolerant, social, adjustable or whatever he may choose. A happy, friendly, tolerant teacher is likely to have pupils who are happy, friendly and tolerant. Similarly an unstable, maladjusted teacher is likely to have a class-room characterized by discontent, disorganized, friction and confusion. Several factors contribute to make up personality. Personality traits are several and attempts to isolate them have not been successful. Among personality traits authoritarianism, locus of control, machiavellianism introversion - extraversion and other have significance for the study of organisational behaviour. Hence, personality helps us understand why employees behave as they do. Motivation centers around personality. Personality also helps in the selection of right people for right jobs. A clear understanding of personality is vital in leading a happy life too.

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