Chapter - 1

INTRODUCTION
INTRODUCTION

There cannot be two opinions that education is essential for economic and cultural development of the country, for national integration and for realising the ideal of a socialistic pattern of society. The inherent soundness of education demands that it should be related to the life, needs and aspirations of the people. It is an infra-structure for national development and India being a 'developing nation' has to be more careful in educational planning. The country became a free nation after a long period of foreign rule. She is on the move with an accelerated pace of renaissance. While appointing the education commission, the Government of India rightly pointed out that the Government of India convinced that education is key to the national development, prosperity and welfare and that no investment is likely to yield greater return than investment in human resources of which the most important is education. Government has also decided to mobilise all the resources of science and technology which can only be done on the foundations of good and progressive education and, to that end, to increase considerably their total investment in the development of education and scientific research. The nation must be prepared to pay for quality in education, and from the value attached to education by all sectors of the people, it is clear that they will do so willingly.

India has yet to catch up with other developed countries in the field of education and thus she has to bring radical improvements in the entire educational programme. The opening sentence of the Education Commission Report (1966) reads: "The destiny of India is now being shaped in her classrooms". This we believe is no mere rhetoric. In a world based on science and technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare
and security of people. On the quality and number of persons coming out of our schools and colleges will depend our success in the great enterprise of national reconstruction the Principal objective of which is to raise the standard of living of our people. National Policy of Education (1986) observes that, in our national perception education is essential for all. This is fundamental to our all round development, material and spiritual.

Kothari Commission (1964-66) reported that education is one and the only instrument that can be used to bring about a change towards the social and economic betterment of India. For this purpose importance is attached to the qualities of the teacher. Nothing in the name of education can take place unless it passes through a competent teacher. Educationists deny the occurrence of education unless a teacher is involved in it. The contents to be passed on are dead log of knowledge unless they are infused life in the association of a teacher. Moreover the teacher is the craftman and the child is raw material which needs to be moulded into the desired end product by using curricula as the medium. Without the potter, the clay will remain clay, no matter of how fine a quality it may be. The more active, influential, forceful and effective the teacher, the more effective, useful is the education. Because it is teacher who has the delicate task of drawing out the best of body, mind and spirit in child and man. He is showered by such like esteem as the builder and architect of nation.

At present, the school education administration system in Panjab State is operating in three stages. At the top, are the Secretary, Director and Technocrats' which are concerned with framing the policies. At the second stage are District Education Officers, Block Education Officers and Heads of Schools who implement these policies, work them out in the field and supervise the teachers. At the third stage are the teachers whose job is to carry out the detailed schemes in pursuance of the desired objectives. Of all these, the role of the teacher is of utmost importance. What the main spring is to the watch,
the fly wheel to the machine or the engine to the steamship, the teacher is to the educational efforts.

Many authorities have recognized the crucial role of teacher in educating the child. More than three decades ago Ryans in 1960 states:

“If competent teachers can be obtained, the likelihood of attaining desirable educational outcomes is substantial. On the other hand, although schools may have excellent material resources in the form of equipments, buildings and text books, and although curricula may be approximately adopted to community requirements, if the teachers are misfits or are indifferent to their responsibilities, the whole programme is likely to be ineffective and largely wasted”.

Right from 1949-50 a number of committees, sub-committees and review committees were appointed which not only examined the existing system of education but also attached much importance to teacher. In this context Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) has rightly observed that, “we are however, convinced that the most important factor in the contemplated educational reconstruction is the teacher his personal qualities, his educational qualifications, his professional training and the place he occupies in the school as well as in the community”. Learning without a teacher turns out to be fake and futile exercise as personality of the educand remains absent and the whole process takes place between the printed pages of books and the learner. No learning can be recognized as education till the human element is actively involved in it and that human element is a teacher.

Kothari Commission (1964-66) in his report highlighted that of all different factors which influence the quality of education and contribution of national development, the quality, competence and character of teachers are undoubtedly the most significant.
Humayun Kabir remarked that without good teachers, even the best of system is bound to fail. With good teachers, even the defects of a system can be largely overcome (Quoted in Bhatnagar and Aggarwal 1986, P.6). Similar view has also been recognized by ministry of education (1985).

The National policy of Education (1986) stated that the status of teacher reflects the socio-ethos of a society and no people can rise above the level of its teachers. He is certainly the hub around which the whole process of education revolves.

Programme of Action (POA) 1992 states teacher’s performance is the most crucial input in the field of education. Whatever policies may be laid down, in the ultimate analysis these have to be interpreted and implemented by teachers as much through their personal example as through teaching-learning processes.

EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM.

It is pitiable that inspite of various suggestions recommended by several committees, sub-committees and review committees, the status of teacher is far from satisfactory. Actually teacher is not getting a fair deal anywhere on the face of this earth, much less in India. Things are pretty bad in villages. A master is often at the receiving end. Apart from its evil tellings on personality of teacher himself, the effects on the children are undoubtedly grave. There is every fear of dissatisfaction and the worst of all the maladjustment being transmitted to children. Such a sadist life must have an adverse influence on the building and receptive minds of the children. As a result nation must suffer on that account.

Since teacher is assigned the most important task of nation building, his virtues, capabilities and high stature is the first presumption. He must rise to such a height as is expected of him by the society. If the society
invests the best in the educational endeavor the teacher is bound and obliged to pay it back in the same coin. But the irony of stark reality is that the society is not paying its due heed to the life of nation builder. This brings about a serious effect on the teacher’s mind and he thinks himself a derelict.

The present condition of the teacher in India cannot be better described than in the words of ‘Secondary Education Commission (1952-53)’. The commission was painfully impressed by the fact that the social status, the salaries and general conditions of teachers are far from satisfactory. The socio-economic status of teachers are very low and they suffer from poverty, neglect, indifference and insecurity. Dr. Shrimali (1965) conducted a survey of the profession and reported that, a majority of teachers do not enter in the profession by choice but are forced into it by circumstances. Usually it is the rejection of other professional courses like engineering, medicine, or career in administration services, or management education. It is only when they have failed to secure more lucrative jobs in other professions that they become teachers.

Teaching is nothing short of pleasure, if the teacher is competent and is concerned with teaching only. But in actual practice the teacher is entrusted not only with academic but also with much of non-academic work, which runs into innumerable items. Under such circumstances it is really unrealistic to expect intelligent, intensive and genuine teaching to be carried on in the class. If not more at least fifty percent of the teacher’s energy is consumed in non-academic pursuits, which are expected of him as a part of his job. There is limit up to which we can load a camel and beyond it even a straw can break his back.

Moreover, the concept of education is passing through various phases. In the past, the knowledge of 3 R’s was considered to be alpha and omega of education in which teacher’s job was quite simple. Soon came the
stage of 3 H’s i.e. education of head, heart and hand. This was followed by the slogan of 3L’s called life long learning. Now the present day thinking in education is that it should consist of 3A’s i.e. education should be according to age, ability and attitude. At the same time the impact of the present civilization has added three more fundamental and primary needs i.e. health, education and recreation. This ever increasing field of education is bringing in its wake multifarious activities for the teacher. To cope with, he must be a good scholar, a good citizen and a good teacher. The multiplication of expectations pledged in the teachers and caused them to develop a sense of frustration. They felt that their personal freedom has been lost.

Furthermore, we are living in a seamless, shrinking, interdependent world in which eighty percent of the global population live in under developed countries and more then sixty percent of these, are even below the subsistence level and live in rural areas. Most of the under developed countries got their independence in the past three-four decades and without an exception planned their development on the lives of so called affluent and highly industrialized countries. Emphasis was given on industrialization and development of higher technology, the benefit of which has been received by largely the developed nations. In this dynamic world, where there is so much conflict, interdependence, a complex web of institutions, cultural diversity, explosion of knowledge and change, much is expected to be given to the children. This naturally involves stress and strain for teachers.

The present home and society are also shifting more and more obligations to the school. The present extremely busy parents cannot attend their children in an ideal manner and the ultimate aim of all round development of children entirely rest upon the school. The stress and strain of society and the rapid developments taking place in every aspect of life are making school’s functions heavy and burdensome.
According to Sylvestor (1977), teachers work in an environment which is isolated from other adults, a working condition shared by few outside the teaching profession. Further, teachers work daily with students who have unique learning styles and abilities, unique personalities, unique problems and unique potentials. During school hours, teachers must cope with numerous stress inducing circumstances including interruptions, student absenteeism, mainstreamed students with special needs, numerous reports, insufficient funding and lack of parents support. The school day does not end when students go home. Preparations and grading must be done after hours. More and more demands are placed on teachers regularly without their consent.

In Walsh's (1979) study of Chicago teachers, 50.6% of the respondents claimed physical or mental illness as a direct result of their jobs.

Trunch (1980) pointed that teachers are becoming an endangered species. One-third of the sample of the study reported that they would not choose the field of teaching again.

Gherman (1981) revealed in his study that in one year organization lost more then nineteen billion dollars because of premature deaths that could have been directly related to occupational stress, more then 26 billion dollars to disability payments caused by occupational stress and an additional seven hundred million dollars for the recruitment of replacements for those suffering from the effects of occupational stress.

More often, teachers in educational institutions are required to spend considerable time in intense involvement with students. Frequently, the staff student interaction is centred around the students' problems and is therefore charged with the feelings of anger, emabrassment, fear, or despair. Because solutions for students' problems are not always obvious and easily obtained, the situation become more ambiguous and frustrating. For the person
who works continuously with people under such circumstances, the chronic stress can be emotionally draining and lead to burnout.

The available data increasingly indicate that the present day teachers is surrounded by so many handicaps. He is over worked, frustrated and to cap it all he is disintegrated. Moreover there are many stress factors like an unappreciative Principal, heavy unacademic work-load, unrealistic expectations, lack of a professional atmosphere, lack of planning time, competition among colleagues, poverty, illiteracy of parents and indisciplined students, deterioration in service conditions, the isolation in which teachers work, phenomenal expansion of the educational system, lowering of standards of teaching training, changes in the value system of society. So attempts should be made for the reduction of these stressful factors which ultimately lead to burnout. Democratic leadership and congenial organizational climate can better reduce stressful factors and foster a healthier educational climate for students, teachers and Principals.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The research proposal selected by the Investigator is stated as, “TEACHER BURNOUT IN RELATION TO ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS.”

THE CONCEPT OF BURNOUT

The topic of burnout has been gaining interest since the mid-1970’s. Some researchers believe the word to be a catch-all phase, but the problem seems to be very real. It is an increasing problem in today’s society due to increased job tensions and job pressures to get more work done in a shorter period of time. It has become an important area of study within numerous disciplines because of its theoretical and practical importance. It was Freudenberger (1974) who first created the term. Earlier it was called “depression”. Freudenberger (1974) described it as a condition that manifests
itself somatically and behaviourally. The Physical symptoms include exhaustion, fatigue, colds headaches, gastrointestinal disturbance and insomniaess essentially a collection of symptoms include quickness to anger, crying, suspiciousness, paranoia, feeling of omnipotence, over confidence, substance abuse, stubbornness, rigidity, cynicism, spending increasing hours of free time at work and withdrawal from non-work. The researcher also pointed out that it is the initially committed who are the most prone to this syndrome.

Since then burnout have been studied in a variety of human service profession, including business organization employees (Golembiewski, Munzenrider and Carter, 1983), lawyers (Maslach and Jackson,1978), police officers (Maslach and Jackson,1982, Pines & Maslach, 1978; Raquepaw & Miller, 1989; Stevens & O’Neill, 1983) and teachers (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984; Beck & Gargiulo, 1983; Belcastro, Gold & Hays, 1983; Belcastro & Hays, 1984; Gold 1984, 1985; Iwanicki & Schwab, 1981; Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982).

In recent years the number of studies reported has mushroomed and international concern with teacher stress and burnout is reflected in numerous studies conducted in different countries, including the U.K (e.g. Kyriacou & Pratt, 1985; Pont & Reid, 1985), the United States (e.g. Farber, 1984; McIntyre, 1984), Israel (e.g. Kremer & Hofman, 1985 Sinilansky, 1984), Australia (e.g. Docking, 1985; Laughlin, 1984) Hong Kong (e.g. Mo, 1991) and India (e.g. Basi, 1990; Sharma, 1991; Catherine, 1992)

This international concern with teacher stress and burnout stems from:

1. The mounting evidence that prolonged occupational stress can lead to both mental and physical ill health.
2. A general concern to improve the quality of teacher's working lives

3. 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.

The burnout syndrome is a physiological and psychological reaction to prolonged exposure to chronic stress and seems to occur with greater regularity among helping professions who give and give of themselves to people in need until there is nothing left to give. The result is a progressive loss of idealism, energy and purpose, leading to physical, emotional and spiritual exhaustion.

Unfortunately, the concept of burnout has not been defined unanimously by different people and suggesting different measures.

According to Webster International Dictionary (1976)-Burnout means to fail, to wearout or become exhausted by reason of excessive demands on energy, strength or resources. It indicates that burnout is the state of emotional exhaustion related to overload. So burnout is a decrease of over commitment.

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 short comings 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.

_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.

According to Reed (1979) burnout is the feeling of being locked into a job routine. It disproportionately strikes in the helping professions. The condition of burnout can last for years.

Cherniss (1980) opined burnout means, psychological withdrawal from work in response to excessive stress or dissatisfaction. It refers to the situation in which what was formerly a “calling” becomes merely a “job”. In other words, burnout means loss of enthusiasm, excitement and a sense of mission in one’s work. Support to this definition was also given by Lesson (1981).

Cherniss (1980 b) further investigated the signs or symptoms of burnout mentioned in the literature and attempted to reconcile these conceptual definitions listed in Table I-1.

**TABLE I-1**

**SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS OF JOB-STRESS AND WORKER BURNOUT IN HUMAN SERVICE PROGRAMS:**

1. High resistance to going to work everyday.
2. A sense of failure.
3. Anger and resentment.
4. Guilt and blame.
5. Discouragement and indifference.
7. Isolation and withdrawal.
8. Feeling of tiredness and exhaustion all day.
10. Great fatigue after work.
11. Loss of positive feelings towards client.
13. Stereotyping clients.
14. Inability of concentrate or listen to what client is saying.
17. Increasingly “going by the book.”
18. Sleep disorders.
19. Avoiding discussion of work with colleagues.
20. Self preoccupation.
21. Move approving of behaviour-control measures such as tranquilizers.
22. Frequent colds and flus.
23. Frequent headaches and gastrointestinal disturbances.
24. Rigidity in thinking and resistance to change.
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/may not be 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.

For **Edelwich and Brodsky** (1980), burnout is defined as a progressive loss of idealism, energy, purpose and concern as a result of conditions of work. In general, burnout is a function of feeling inconsequential feeling that no matter how hard one works, the payoffs in terms of accomplishment, recognition, or appreciations are not there.

**Meyer** (1980) defined burnout as the psychological state of mind of a professional worker who feels over worked, overwhelmed, and alienated from other staff members, from clients, and eventually from himself. In other words, the term refers to loss of enthusiasm, excitement and a sense of mission in one's work. **Lesson** (1981) also supported this definition.

**Ricken** (1980) in his study reported that burnout exists when a person is attempting to perform a job by merely going through the motions. The individual may continue to function, and may still maintain the skills which enabled him or her to originally perform the job. The individual becomes alienated from the work environment.

**Aronson** (1981) simply defined burnout as physical, emotional and mental exhaustion.

**Clouse and Whitaker** (1981) defined burnout as a process which begins with high enthusiasm and dedication, then there is drastic reversal in attitude and behaviour when an individual does not receive positive responses and feedback, enthusiasm falters, however, there are those who are able to maintain enthusiasm in the profession.

**Maslach and Jackson** (1981) said that burnout included emotional exertion resulting from chronic stress in human service profession and occurs
at any level in all jobs. The investigators considered burnout as a job-stress, not just a sub-category of it.

Silverstain (1982) defined burnout as a process whereby committed professionals disengage from their work in response to job stress. Cunningham (1983) considered burnout as a syndrome resulting from prolonged stress, primarily characterized by physical, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion.

Carrola (1983) defined burnout as that which causes low job satisfaction and consequently deterioration of performance on that job.

Glicken (1983) in his study “A counseling approach to employee burnout” revealed that the process of burnout usually occurs in four stages. Stage one is enthusiasm which is characterized by high hopes, high energy and unrealistic expectations. Stage two i.e. stagnation occurs when the job ceases to be a central force in an individual’s life. Stage three that is frustration takes place when individuals question their work effectiveness and the value of the job itself. Stage fourth named as apathy becomes the natural defense mechanism against frustration when workers find themselves in an unsatisfying job they cannot change.

Farber (1984) stated that burnout is usually defined as behaviourally manifest emotional and physical exhaustion derived from stressful situational events not adequately met by effective coping strategies.

In this context Longman’s dictionary (1984) said that burnout is a vague term for exhaustion or failure, especially in one’s job or career. The term is mainly applied to middle aged persons who perform at a high level stress and tension taking role.

Santinello (1990) stated burnout as psycho-physical state accompanied by apathy, detachment and coolness in interpersonal relations by
feelings of emotional exhaustion of one's psychic resources and of helplessness.

Reed (1979) further reported that there are three levels of burnout. First-degree burnout includes short bouts of irritability, fatigue, worry and frustration, Second-degree burnout is similar but can last for two weeks or more. Third degree burnout is more severe, causing physical symptoms which can be long-lasting.

Cedoline (1982) concluded that when burnout proceeds to final stage symptoms of physical distress occur regularly, selfconfidence reaches an all-time low, and perceived work effectiveness is distorted.

According to Clouse and Whitaker (1981), frustration is the first negative sign in the process of burnout. Several factors may contribute to this frustration including student apathy, disciplinary problems, violence, involuntary transfers, various malfunctions of the organization and lack of reward.

The above cited definitions of burnout when taken together, suggest that we are dealing with a transactional process. Moreover, burnout appears to be a process, not an event, consisting of three stages. The first stage refers to imbalance between resources and demand. The second stage is the immediate short term emotional response to this imbalance which is characterized by feeling of anxiety, tension, fatigue and exhaustion. The third stage refers to changes in attitudes and behaviour, such as a tendency to behave in a detached and mechanical fashion i.e. defensive coping.
Burnout, therefore, refers to a transactional process consisting of job stress, worker strain and psychological accommodation. 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, 1980). This definition clearly indicates a response to an intolerable work situation. This definition of burnout is of importance, because, it subsumes all of the most common definitions. Secondly, it provides a framework for thinking about the causes of and solution to the problem.

A perusal of various definitions from the different disciplines suggest that there exists some marked similarities among these definitions of burnout (Cherniss, 1980 b.)

(1) Burnout occurs at an individual level. Although a few instances of organisations burning out have been reported, but it has not been clear whether this means individual workers are prone to burnout or that some unique occurrence take place at the organisational level.

(2) It is an internal psychological experience involving feelings, attitudes, motives and expectations.

(3) As burnout is concerned with problems of distress, discomfort, dysfunction and negative consequences, so it is a negative experience for the individual. Although for someone it may still serve as positive function, as when it leads to personal growth, or acts as screening device to “Weed Out” incompetent employees (Maslach, 1982b).
BURNOUT AND RELATED PHENOMENON: A DISTINCTION

First, the burnout syndrome is not identical with stress or strain, though these two concepts are similar. Moreover these may be early signs of burnout. Stress may have both positive and negative effects (Selye, 1976); indeed, a certain amount stress is necessary to motivate action. So burnout is the result of not of stress per se but of unmediated stress of being stressed and having no “out”, no buffers, no support system, no adequate rewards. In other words, burnout is a broad term that encompass both stress and strain. Secondly, burnout is different from socialization and acculturation. These are processes in which a person’s attitude and behaviour changes in response to social influence exerted by colleagues or clients. For instance McPherson (1972) studied “how older teachers in a public school influence newer ones to emphasize order and maintain control in their classrooms” and reported that the negative changes that occur in burnout may also occur in response to the socializing influence of supervisors and colleagues. The changes that occur in burnout are a direct response to overload and stress caused by the job.

Finally, burnout should be distinguished from turnover (Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach, 1976, 1978b; Pines, Aronson and Kofry, 1981). The burnout syndrome may cause staff to quit but staff may burnout and remain on the job. Also people may leave jobs for positive or irrelevant reasons rather than to escape a bad work situation. Turnover is an agency, may be a sign of high burnout among staff (Cherniss, 1980b). Hence 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 following assumptions of burnout (Quoted on P.29. Catherine, 1992)

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. It is a holistic and psychobiosocial 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 on the sign’s origin, severity, and duration and the observer’s theoretical orientation to burnout, his or 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 (1980 a) 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 can 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. Varying from relatively mild distractions and energy loss to serious and debilitating illness that may result in death.

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 indigent clients in public institutions or agencies.

13. When the aggregate level of stress and frustration among workers within the work environment prevents the completion of tasks essential to the primary 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. However, Some aspects of the burnout process are unique to particular persons, work sites, and organisations.

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

16. Burnout is not a disease even though physical disorders may arise 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.

Carroll and White (1982) defined burnout as a construct used to explain observable dimminutions in the typical quality and quantity of work performed by a person on the job. Since burnout is a work-related concept so the work environment and other ecosystems also play an important role in determining whether or not to what degree and in what fashion a person will experience burnout. For this Carroll and White (1982) proposed an ecological perspective of burnout.

THE ECOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF BURNOUT

Carrol (1980) viewed 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 excessive paperwork) with personal variables (such as poor physical health and unresolved emotional conflicts) generates burnout. This interaction can be expressed by the formula BO = f (P·E). Moreover, individual’s work environment and larger life space contains the following components (Carroll and White, 1982)

1. The Person.

2. Environmental Components.

(a) Microsystems.

(b) Mesosystem.
1. **THE PERSON ELEMENT OF THE ECOLOGICAL MODEL.**

All those elements which can influence a person's work performance, for example, the amount of education and training completed, physical and mental health status, and the person's coping skills, frustration, tolerance, goals, needs, interest, and values, must be considered and evaluated.

2. **ENVIRONMENTAL COMPONENTS OF THE ECOLOGICAL MODEL**

(a) **The Microsystem**

This element of ecological model belong to the smallest organised ecosystem within which the person performs most of his/her work (i.e. such as the office, the home).

(b) **The Mesosystem.**

This element pertains to the next highest level of organisation of the work environment. It encircles all the microsystems that together form a larger whole, for example, such as all the offices, departments and bureaus of an institution or company.

(c) **The Exosystem.**

This element of ecological model encircles those elements of the larger environment that impinge directly and frequently on the mesosystem. For example, for a company or institution exosystem would include the board of directors, the surrounding, neighborhood, or community, local legislative bodies, funding sources, and regulatory agencies.

(d) **The Macrosystem.**

In this system, perceived elements and forces are larger, more impersonal, more distant and global than those of the Micro, Meso, and...
Exosystems. The influence of this system is often experienced indirectly and is of the same power as the other three components of the life space.

THE CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The term climate is often employed as a synonym for setting, milieu, culture, atmosphere, feel and tone. It refers to the organizational climate prevailing in a particular school during a particular period or conditions. Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) identified climate as the set of internal characteristics of the organization, as perceived by its members. It refers to factors such as shared values, social belief and social standards that affect how people behave in organizations (Hoy and Miskel, 1987; p. 187).

The concept of organizational climate of an educational institutions for the first time came into existence in the spring of 1954, when the idea of organizational climate of schools discussed but the study was taken up in September, 1954 by Halpin and Croft. Since then, it has become the most well known concept and measure of school climate (Hoy and clover, 1986). It is a concept which describes the millions of the roles of participants interacting within the sociological and psychological framework of an institution. It shows the pattern of school interaction that takes place within the school family. Guion (1973) remarked usefulness of the term as it identifies precisely the set of independent variables which ought to be changed in order to maintain or even increase the effectiveness of the organization and its members. Prakasam (1979) states that the working atmosphere in the organization where people live and work is one of the most important factors influencing employer’s performance and satisfaction.

Reported literature on organizational climate clearly points out that an employees subjective impressions or perceptions of his organization has a lot of influence on organizational behaviour. According to Schneider and Hall (1972), climate perceptions emerge as a result of the person’s numerous
activities, interactions, feelings and other daily experiences in the organization. They also suggested that the perceived climate may be related to number of outcome variables such individual job-satisfaction, involvement and performance which are important to the organization as well as to himself. It means organizational climate is an important factor which contribute to the failure or success of the teachers.

Although this concept has been the subject of empirical investigations for decades but it fails to arrive at universally agreed definition (Anderson, 1982; Halpin, 1966; Hoy et. al 1990; Miskel and Ogawa, 1988 Stern; 1970; Victor and Cullen, 1987). Moreover conceptual and operational definitions and measurement techniques are highly diverse and even contradictory (James and James, 1974). As a result many definitions have been given.

The dictionary meaning of the word climate is 'character of something'. So according to this meaning organizational climate is the character of an organization. Since the beginning of history man has banded together for material purposes, organization is one of the most venerated form of human activity. When reduced to its fundamental aspect, organization is the form of human association necessary for the attainment of a common purpose (Quoted in Vibha, 1990, p.22)

Moore (1951) defined organization in the social sense that is refers to either the pattern or structure of relations among a number of persons oriented to a set of goals or objectives or to the group as a whole varied as a unity.

For Bernard (1958) formal organization is defined as a system of consciously co-ordinated activities or forces of two or more persons.

Argyris (1959) in his definition included several aspects which are:
(a) Plurality of parts;
(b) Each part achieving specific objectives;
(c) Each maintaining themselves through their interrelations;
(d) Simultaneously adopting to the external environment; and
(e) Thereby maintaining interrelated state of the parts.

This definition is one of the few that explicitly accounts for the vital influence of functional autonomy. The investigator further concludes that the essence of organization is not found in its goals or structure but in the patterning between semi-autonomous and inter-dependent parts.

Cornell in 1955 while discussing school administration spoke of organizational climate as a delicate blending of interpretations or perceptions, as social psychologists would call it, by person in the organization to their jobs or roles in relationship to others and their interpretations to the roles of others in the organization.

The Getzels-Guba (1966) in their model describes the interconnection between the organizational dimension and personal dimensions, which proved a useful framework to describe school as a social system. Getzels (1960) remarked that for shaping the institutional role, the development of the climate within the social system and the personality of the participants, interact dynamically with one another.

Gibbs (1960) designated it as atmosphere. When the new observer comes into a group for the first time, he is able to sense a feeling about the group which he calls as climate.

Foreland and Gilmer (1964) defined it as the overall impressions of an organization of an individual gathered through numerous activities, interactions, feelings etc.
According to Forhand and Filmer (1964), it is set of characteristics that describe an organization and that distinguish it from other organizations, are relatively enduring over time and influence the behaviour of people in the organization (quoted in Vibha, 1990; P.24).

Longsdale (1964) has given a psycho-social flavour and defined it as a global index of the task achievement and the need satisfaction integration.

For Brown (1965) organizational climate referred to the Cathetic patterns giving identity to sub group and interpersonal relations in a living organization.

Katz and Khan (1966) defined organizational climate as a Conglomerate of organization’s taboos, folkways and other cultural factors.

Litwin and Stringer (1968) referred organizational climate to a set of measurable properties of work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour.

Sharma (1968) defined organizational climate as patterns of social interaction that characterize an organization. The main units of interaction in this concept of climate are individuals, the group as a group and the leader.

Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) referred it as an enduring set of internal characteristics that distinguishes one organization from another and influence the behaviour of its members.

Schiender and Syndes (1975) has given a very simple definition of organizational climate as a summary perception which people have of an organization.

Davis (1977) considered it as the "entire social system of a work group". It is clearly a system of concept. Two important aspects of climate are the work place itself and treatment received from management.
For Hoy and Clover (1986), it is set of measurable properties of the work environment of teachers and administrators based on their collective perceptions.

For Hoy and Miskel (1987), it refers to member’s shared perceptions of the work environment of the organization.

According to Neumann et al (1988), organizational climate can be summarized as a relatively enduring quality of the school environment which is affected by the Principal’s leadership, experienced by teachers, and based on collective perceptions.

To, Deer (1990), it is an average of the perceptions individual have of their daily work environment.

The key element involved in the organizational concept can be analyzed into different categories. For Longsdale (1964), Forehand and Gilmer (1964), and Schiender and Syndes (1975), organizational climate is a summary/overall/global perception of the organization. According to Koechler et al (1976), it is more than the structure and processes of the organization. Katz and Khan (1966) defined it as a conglomerate of the organization’s cultural factors. Davis (1977) calls it the social system of a work group. According to Sharma (1968), it reflects pattern of social interaction. McLoughlin (1970), Litwin and Stringer (1968), Hoy and Clover (1986) and Deer (1990) considers it as comprised of measurable properties of work environment. According to Bloom (1964), it is network of forces. Halpin and Croft (1963, 1966); Mitchell (1967) considers it as organizational personality.

So, majority of researchers considered organizational climate as an attribute of an organization-perceptual in nature which is caused as a result of interaction over a period of time. However, some have used it to denate a combination of physical and Psychological climate. Very few have considered it as totality of all organizational variables.
ASPECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE.

The researchers on organizational climate have devised two ways in mapping out the domain of organizational climate. Factoring of items devised to measure organizational climate had yielded dimensional factors. Halpin and Craft (1966) in their research yielded eight dimensions which they further divided into the following two groups: group behaviour and leader behaviour.

Characteristics of the Group (Teachers).

1. Disengagement.
2. Hindrance
3. Esprit
4. Intimacy

Characteristics of the leader

5. Aloofness.
6. Production Emphasis
7. Thrust
8. Consideration.

The above are the aspects of interaction factors structures of the climates. The particular names given to the above dimensions are not those which are commonly used in day-to-day language.

Sharma (1973) also made use of Halpin and Craft's sixty four items in his study of organizational climate of secondary schools of Rajasthan. The investigator, however, had to modify some of the items because of differences in educational settings, functional conditions and relationships and constraints. Investigator further factor analyzed them on the basis of responses given by 1915 respondents of 95 schools who participated in his study. The conclusions, the investigators offers is that in the Indian context, there are some variations in the subtest level factors of the climate.
According to Sharma (1973) the four factor structure (namely Disengagement, Esprit, Intimacy and Production Emphasis) was found to be identical with that of Halpin and Croft (1966). Sharma's further efforts yielded a new nomenclature for the remaining four organizational factors of the SOCDQ, Viz, 'Alienation' for Halpin and Croft's 'Aloofness', 'Psycho-Physical Hindrance, for Hindrance', 'Controls' for 'Consideration and 'Humanized Thrust' for 'Thrust'. This exercise of factor analysis at item levels mark an advance for Indian educational conditions over Halpin and Croft's Conceptualization.

This conceptualization at the subtest level advanced further when the department of Educational Administration, M.S. University; Baroda, in 1975 used these set of items for identifying factors at the item level. The responses were obtained from (1) Secondary school teachers of Thailand on climate items (2) Secondary school teachers of Gujrat state on climate items which were modified to suit Gujrat Conditions, and (3) M.S. University, Baroda, University conditions. In all the three set of items, individual items are grouped together around twelve of items individual items has a coefficient of correlation of 5 or above with individual item. The twelve factor solutions has three sets, each containing four factors, which are presented below:

I. Group Characteristics
   1. Disengagement
   2. Hindrance
   3. Intimacy
   4. Esprit

II Leader Behaviour
   5. Aloofness.
   6. Production Emphasis
   7. Thrust.
8. Consideration.

III Institutional Behaviour.

9. Organizational structure.

10. Communications.

11. Human Relations.


In 1978 Sharma has done conceptualization at the subtest level. His famous test know as SOCDQ was prepared in 1978. In the test, the investigator made use of the same eight dimensions which he used in his previous research work (1973). Sharma has further divided these eight dimensions into two groups. They are: Group-behaviour characteristics and Leader-behaviour characteristics.

(I) Group-behaviour Characteristics.

(1) Disengagement

It refers to the teacher’s tendency to be “not with it”. dimension describes a group which is “going through the motion”, a group that is not geared with respect to the task at hand. In short, this subtest is focused upon the teacher’s behaviour in a task-oriented situation.

(2) Esprit.

It refers to the teacher’s enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task accomplishment.

(3) Intimacy

It refers to the teacher’s enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task accomplishment.
(4) Alienation

It refers to behaviour patterns among the group members including the leader which are characterized by being highly formal and impersonal. It reveals the degree to which the Principal “goes by the book” and adheres to policies rather than dealing with the teachers in an informal face to face situation. It also indicates the emotional distance between the group and the leader and, at the same time, among the group members (Sharma 1973, P.199).

II. Leader-behaviour Characteristics.

(5) Psycho-physical Hindrance.

It refers to the feeling among the groups member that the Principal burdens with routine duties, management demands and other administration requirements which they considered to be unnecessary. At the same time, they perceive the Principal as a person who is highly dictatorial. He is not adjusted to feedback from the staff. His style of communication tends to be unidimensional.

(6) Controls.

It refers to the degree to which the Principal’s behaviour can be characterized as bureaucratic and impersonal in nature.

(7) Humanized Thrust.

It refers to the behaviour of the Principal which is marked by his attempts to motivate the teachers through personal example. He does not ask the teachers to give themselves any more that what they can give themselves willingly. The behaviour of the Principal, though unmistakably task-oriented, is at the same time characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers humanly and tender heartedly. He attempt to do something extra for them in humanistic terms and consequently, his behaviour is viewed favourably by the teachers.
(8) Production Emphasis.

It refers to the behaviour by the Principal, which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and plays the role of a 'Straw boss'. His communication tends to go in only one direction and he is not sensitive to get feedback from the staff.

THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

The concept of leadership has gained a lot of importance now-a-days due to the fact that schools and colleges are no more simple institutions of learning like the older days of 'Gurukuls'. Today, variation in student input, teacher input, on the one hand, and resource crunch, parent awareness, and heightened expectations of the public, specific demands from employment sector, on the other hand, have necessitated the institutional head to be a good leader in addition to looking after the day-to-day administration in taking the institution towards achievements of its goals. The leadership role provided by the heads play a pivotal role in the execution of various activities which helps the teachers and students in achieving their preferred outcomes.

It is well said that an educational institution is what its head makes it. As is the headmaster so is the school is well quoted maxim. He is responsible for creating an image for his institution good or bad. He is important person who can instil enthusiasm among the teachers and encourage them to work for better goals. The quality of institution in the school depends on his initiative and on his efficiency as an institutional leader. Moreover, the leadership behaviour of the head of institution has direct bearing on the effectiveness and efficiency of school programme. The efficiency of teachers and their contribution to education depends, to a large extent, upon what kind of leadership is provided by the head of the institution. It is not only an important determinant but also the essential feature of the head. Educational
research on school effectiveness has recently been dominated by the concept of "Principal as leader" (Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, Wisenbacher, and Edmonds, 1979; Rutter, Maugham, Mortimer, Onston, and Smith 1979; Phi Delta Kappa, 1980). These studies identified the Principal as instructional leader as one of the several critical factors in effective schools. This research led to succeeding studies that further defined and described the characteristics of an effective school leadership (Blumberg and Greenfield, 1980; De Bevoise, 1984; Sweeny, 1982; Wellisch, 1978; Yukel, 1982).

Recent research on high school has also focused on the "Principal as leader" (Boyer, 1983; Lightfoot, 1983, Grant, 1982; Coleman, Hoffer and Kilgore, 1982; Sizer, 1984) and found that the role of the Principal as a leader is critical in creating school conditions that led to higher students academic performance-conditions such as setting high standards and goals, planning and coordinating with staff, having an orientation toward innovation, frequent monitoring of staff and student performance, and involving parents and the community.

Glasman (1984) after reviewing 20 years of research on the Principals concluded that the various roles could best be grouped into two categories: educator and administrator. Likewise, Bidwall (1965) written a major review of research on the school as a formal organization and described the central problem of the Principal as balancing the inherent conflict between attention to teachers (role as educator) and attention to central office (role as administrator). Now the emphasis on Principal as leader may have added a new dimension to the traditional distinction between the dual roles of 'Principal as educator' and 'Principal as administrator.'

So the Principal as leader concept is of increased use because the Principal is a key actor in the educational effectiveness of school. At the same
time, there has been increased attention on the school as the level at which significant and lasting educational improvement takes place, as opposed to that of classroom. Sergiovani (1984) maintains that the Principal’s key function in effective schools is establishing goal consensus among staff and developing an institutional identity, and he cites classic studies on organizational leadership that support this view (e.g. Barnard, 1938; Bennis, 1984).

DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP

According to Good’s dictionary of Education (1959), leadership is the ability and readiness to inspire, guide, or manage others.

Bennis (1959) defined leadership as a process by which an agent induces a subordinate to behave in the desired manner.

Tead (1935) viewed leadership as the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives.

According to Bernard (1938), leadership is the quality of individuals, where they guide people or their activities in organised efforts. Eminent thinkers have divergent views of the concept of leadership:

(a) A leader is one who understands the group.
(b) A leader is one who stimulates the group.
(c) One who influences the group is a leader.
(d) One who accepts the views of the group is a leader.
(e) And one who has the group’s perception is a leader.

For Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) the concept of leaders was that they were people endowed with certain traits or characteristics that especially made them fit for leadership roles. These investigators yielded the scientific evidence between personal traits and leadership.
Halpin (1966) stated that a successful leader contributes to group objectives and also to group relationships. The investigator described leadership behaviour in two dimensions, i.e., initiating structure and consideration.

Kats and Kahn (1966) stated that leadership is the virtue only of the top executive and may take place at any point in the organization hierarchy.

To Hersey and Blanchard (1972) it is process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement. This definition indicates that leadership involves accomplishing goals with and through people. Thus a leader must be concerned about goal and also concerned with human relationships.

McGregor (1978) defined it as, "leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and motives the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations of both leaders and followers." Leadership is thus inseparable from the followers needs and goals as leadership occurs in same kind of a group. So this term refers to leadership behaviour in the group rather than to any sets of traits or personal attributes. It is functional and consists of leadership behaviour and operations. This shift from personal attributes to functional behaviour had marked a significant change in our understanding of the process of leadership. Leadership, therefore, may be considered as a process through which others are influenced towards desired direction. It is a group phenomenon which draws heavily from human relations theory and group dynamics.

**DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP**

There are various leadership styles revolving around two basic polar positions of task-oriented and people-oriented dimensions of leadership (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973). Some are strictly task-oriented whereas other are more concerned about human relationships. The investigation of
Cartwright and Zander (1960), Katz (1960), Likeart (1961), and Halpin (1966) reported such leadership dimensions that the behaviour of specific leader embrace, though not in equal proportion. Robert, Blake and Monton (1978) developed a 'Managerial Grid' for clarifying the dynamics of organizational leadership. This Grid had two axes: one indicated concern for people and other, concern for production. These two concerns interacted and influenced the thinking of a leader. Likeart (1973)'s findings also supported a similar view.

Halpin (1966) concluded from his study that both types of leadership are necessary for proper functioning of an organization. A leader must initiate action and gets the things done. For this, the leader must secure cooperation and continual participation of those whom he seeks to lead. Both dimensions of leadership behaviour contribute to organizational achievement and group maintenance. Halpin and Winer (1952) reported that leaders above average in both Initiating structure and consideration are likely to be more effective. Likeart (1961) discovered that supervisors who are high on human aspects (Consideration) and also high on goals performance (Initiating structure) are the most effective. Reddin (1970) in his 'Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model', pointed out that a single ideal leader behaviour style is not appropriate in all situations. Different situations required different styles, and that the effectiveness of the style depended upon the situation in which it is used. High task and high relationships style is not appropriate in the military where in a more appropriate style might be high task and low relationships, since under combat, success often depends upon immediate response to orders when time, does not permit discussion or explaining decisions (Reddin, 1967). Vroom and Yelton's (1973) normative contingency model and, Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) 'Situational Theory of Leadership' expressed similar views that an effective leader must possess a broad repertoire.
of behavioral styles that enabled him to be more effective in a variety of situations.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) reflected the concept of leadership on the continuum of leadership behavior rather than offering a choice between two styles of leadership such as initiating structure and consideration. It sanctions a range of behavior on a continuum (see figure). This figure describes leadership in a continuum from boss-centered to subordinate-centered, and permits the leader to view his behavior within a context of alternatives ranging from boss-centered to subordinate-centered. No leader behavior is considered as right or wrong.

There is another view of leadership known as ‘Situational Leadership’. For them leadership style is relative to the situation and it varies from situation to situation. It is not a matter of best style, but the most effective style for a particular situation.

According to the leadership contingency model developed by Fielder (1974), three major situational variables seemed to determine whether a given situation is favourable or unfavorable to a leader: (1) his personal relations with the members of the group (2) the degree of structure in the task that the group has been assigned to perform, and (3) the power and authority that his position provides. Fielder (1974) defines the favourableness of the situation as the “degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over his group.” This model defines interaction of the leader and the situation. These situational variables either allow or cause certain kinds of leader characteristics and behavior to be effective. Hence, the contingency view of leadership dictates that the style is contingent upon the situation and that no single leadership style is best in all situations. Although this model indicates that leadership style and behavior may change to meet the needs of
the immediate situation, an indepth study of situational leadership is not necessary for the purposes of this study.

Whether the leader is male or female, authoritarian or democratic, tends to change the style of behavior to fit the situation. The leader, however, tends to be either authoritarian or democratic. A search is considered to be necessary to determine whether these styles of leadership are in any way related to teacher burnout.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted with the following objectives:

1. To study teacher burnout, organizational climate and perceived leadership behaviour of high school Principals.
2. To examine the burnout measures of teachers in respect of urban/rural, gender of teachers, gender of Principals, teaching experience, marital status, age, educational qualification, and type of area.
3. To ascertain the difference between more and less teacher burnout measures in respect of perceived leadership behaviour of high school Principals and organizational climate variables.
4. To study the burnout differentials among teachers in respect of ‘open’ and ‘closed’ organizational climate.
5. To study the relationship between teacher burnout and perceived leadership behaviour of the high school Principals.
6. To find the relationship between teacher burnout and organizational climate.
7. To study the teacher burnout measures in specific combinations with the predictive variables of perceived leadership behaviour and organizational climate.
HYPOTHESES

The study was conducted in the light of the following hypotheses:

(I) Hypotheses in Relation to Differential Analysis.

1. (a) There will be no significant difference on burnout measures between urban and rural high school teachers.

1. (b) There will be no significant difference on teacher burnout measures between male and female high school teachers.

1. (c) There will be no significant difference on burnout measures of teachers posted in schools having male and female Principals.

1. (d) There will be no significant difference on teacher burnout measures among the various lengths of service of the teachers.

1. (e) There will exist no significant difference in burnout measures between married and unmarried high school teachers.

1. (f) There will be no significant difference on burnout measures among teachers in respect of three different age categories (i.e. age less than 420 months, age between 421 to 540 months and age more than 540 months).

1. (g) There exists no significant difference in respect of burnout measures among high school teachers with different educational qualifications.

1. (h) There will be no significant difference between teachers posted in backward and advanced district, namely Hoshiarpur and Jalandhar, on the variables of teacher burnout, perceived leadership behaviour and organizational climate.

2. There will exist significant differences between more and less teacher burnout measures in respect of perceived leadership behaviour and organizational climate variables.
3. Teachers working in schools with 'open' organizational climate experience a significantly lower level of burnout measures than those working in schools with 'closed' organizational climate.

II Hypotheses in Relation to Correlation, Factor Analysis and Regression Analysis.

4. (a) There exists a positive and significant relationship between the variables of perceived leadership behaviour of high school Principals and the Enthusiasm (E_v1) measure of teacher burnout.

4. (b) There exists a negative and significant relationship between the variables of perceived leadership behaviour of high school Principals and the Frustration (F_v2) measure of teacher burnout.

4. (c) There exists a negative and significant relationship between the variables of perceived leadership behaviour of high school Principals and the Alienation (A_v3) measure of teacher burnout.

5. (a) There exists a positive and significant relationship between Disengagement (D_v6) variable of organizational climate and teacher burnout measures.

5. (b) There exists a positive and significant relationship between Alienation (A_v7) variable of organizational climate and teacher burnout measures.

5. (c) There exists a negative and significant relationship between Esprit (E_v8) variable of organizational climate and teacher burnout measures.

5. (d) There exists a negative and significant relationship between Intimacy (I_v9) variable of organizational climate and teacher burnout measures.

5. (e) There exists a positive and significant relationship between Psycho-physical Hindrance (P_v10) variable of organizational climate and teacher burnout measures.
5. (f) There exists a negative and significant relationship between Controls (COvn) variable of organizational climate and teacher burnout measures.

5. (g) There exists a positive and significant relationship between Production Emphasis (PEv12) variable of organizational climate and teacher burnout measures.

5. (h) There exists a negative and significant relationship between Humanized Thrust (HTv13) variable of organizational climate and teacher burnout measures.

6. The criterion measures of teacher burnout will cluster with the predictive variables of perceived leadership behaviour and organizational climate variables.

7. There is significant variance towards teacher burnout measures as contributed by variables of organizational climate and perceived leadership behaviour of high school Principals.

8. The variables of organizational climate and perceived leadership behaviour of high school Principals contributed differently to the prediction of teacher burnout measures.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has been delimited with respect to the following considerations:

1. The study is confined only to the teacher teaching in Government high schools of two districts of Panjab namely Hoshiarpur and Jalandhar.

2. The study is confined only to the restricted sample of 320 teachers.

3. The study is delimited with respect to sample, methods and statistical techniques.
OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS USED

1. **Teacher Burnout**
   For the purpose of present study, teacher burnout has been taken as defined by Clouse and Whitaker (1981), that is, it is measured by three subscales: (I) **Enthusiasm** (II) **Frustration** and (III) **Alienation**.
   (I) **Enthusiasm** is the feeling of inspiration, eagerness, zeal, dedication and commitment.
   (II) **Frustration** is the feeling of worthlessness, bewilderment, discouragement and bafflement.
   (III) **Alienation** is result of frustration experience in the work setting. It is associated with detachment, withdrawal and isolation and may be viewed as a coping mechanism for emotional stress.

2. **Organizational Climate.**
   In the present study organizational climate has been taken as defined by Sharma (1973) that it is resulting condition, within the school, of social interaction among the teachers and between the teachers and the Principal.

3. **Leadership Behaviour.**
   Leadership behaviour or leadership style is the characteristic manner of the leader as perceived by his/her subordinates. Two styles of leadership as proposed by Ohio State Research Board have been used in this study: Initiating Structure and Consideration.

4. Respondent is a **teacher** who completed the research instruments used in this study.

5. **Principal** means the head of the institution of a high school.

6. A **high school** is defined as one where education is imparted upto class ten.
7. A **government school** is one which is wholly owned, administered and funded by the State Department of Education through its hierarchical set up.

8. **Urban schools** are those which are located in towns. A town as per Census of India (1991) is:

(a) A place administered by a statutory body, like a municipal committee and board; or

(b) A place which satisfies the following criterion

   (i) A minimum population of 5000;

   (ii) At least 75 percent of male working population

   (iii) A density of population of 400 per square kilometre.

9. A **rural school** is one located in a village.

10. A **village** is a revenue unit as a segment of rural area for which a separate record of rights exists.