INTRODUCTION

1.1 A GENERAL BACKGROUND OF KENYA

The Republic of Kenya lies in the uppermost region of the eastern part of the African continent. It is one of the largest African states and covers a total area of 582,646 Square Kilometers. It lies between 34 to 42 degrees east of the meridian. It is bordered by Tanzania in the south, Uganda in the west, Sudan and Ethiopia in the north and Somalia in the east. Its southern extremity forms part of the Indian ocean seaboard which is about 495 kilometers long. The magnificent port of Mombasa lies on this coast. The climate varies with altitude, the coastal region is hot and humid with temperatures varying between 20°C and 32°C, whereas areas inland 1500 meters above sea level have temperatures varying from 7°C to 27°C. The highlands and western areas receive ample rainfall but most of northern Kenya is very dry (The Europa Year Book 1988).

Kenya was formerly a British Colony (inland) and Protectorate (along the coast). Kenya achieved independence on 12th December 1963. Although Kenya was the creation of European ambitions and rivalries in East Africa, it would be an error to assume that its people had little history before its final boundaries were negotiated by the colonialists. For this newly created country contained a multiplicity of
KEY

PROVINCES
1. Eastern Province.
2. Coast Province.
3. Central Province.
4. Rift Valley Province.
5. Nyanza Province.
6. Western Province.
7. North-Eastern Province.
8. Nairobi Province.
Introduction

tribes. Any country is in a sense an artificial creation (Cowder 1976). Kenya today is inhabited by a large number of ethnic groups speaking several languages. The national population census divides the population on linguistic basis for the social and cultural ethnic groups are closely associated with linguistic divisions. The largest linguistic group is the Bantu group which forms 63% of the total population. This is followed by the Nilotic group (over 34%) and the Cushitic group (about 3.2%). Then there is a very minute sprinkling of Asians, Arabs and Europeans who together form much less than 1/2 percent of the total population. The present population of Kenya is approximately 20 million and its annual growth rate is the highest in the world. It is estimated that if the present growth rate is not checked it's population at the end of this century would shoot up to 37 million. At the 1984 world population conference, Kenya's total population was estimated at 19.4 million and was doubling every 18 years. As is the case with all African countries, the population of Kenya is predominantly rural with only 18% in the urban area. (Mburugu and Ojany 1988; Ominde and Oucho 1988).

Kenya has enjoyed remarkable political stability and economic progress over the past twentyeight years. Specifically the country has attained a level of self-sufficiency, in food production, unsurpassed by any African
country. All these have occurred without any major discoveries in mineral resources or a breakthrough in industrial technology.

Administratively, Kenya is divided into eight provinces. These are:

1. The Eastern Province.
2. The Coast province.
3. The Central province.
4. The Rift Valley Province.
5. The Nyanza Province.
6. The Western Province.
7. The North-Eastern Province.
8. The Nairobi Province.

1.2 EDUCATION IN KENYA:

Formal education was introduced in Kenya by Christian Missionaries in the middle of the 19th century basically to promote evangelism, but later it became an instrument for production of skilled labour for the colonisers' farms. The dominant role played by the missionaries in determining the type of education suitable for the Africans persisted throughout the colonial period. They built schools managed and supervised them, determined the curriculum and influenced the direction of education policy. They also established training colleges for teachers and provided funds for running costs of education with only a small subsidy from the government in the form of grants. The missionary-colonial pattern of education inherited by Kenya in 1963, posed challenges both of quality and quantity and
of relevance and utility. Thus there was an urgent need after independence to redesign the curricula to suit the needs and aspirations of the people. A number of commissions were set up from time to time to suggest changes and reforms in the educational system. The Ominde Commission (1964) was the first education commission set up in post-independent Kenya. Both the Ominde Commission (1964) and later the Conference of Education Employment and Rural Development (1966) emphasize that the nature and scope of the curricula in schools and colleges required change to give effective relevance to the life of a developing African country. In an effort to meet the national educational objectives, the Government passed the Education Act of 1968, revised in 1980, by which the management and administration of the country's education system had to be streamlined. This was followed by the Ndegwa Commission 1971; Gachathi commission 1976; Mackay commission 1981; Kariithi commission 1983 and the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower training for the next decade and beyond 1988 (Ministry of Education 1987; Kinyanjui and Gakuru 1988).

1.2.1 The National Educational Objectives:

As articulated in 1963 in the KANU (ruling party) Manifesto and elaborated upon in Sessional Paper No.10 on "African Socialism and its Application on Planning in Kenya, 1965" and further spelt out in the various development
Introduction

plans, the Government considers the following to be the most important objectives of its education system:

1. Education must serve to foster national unity.
2. Education must serve the needs of national development.
3. Education must foster, develop and communicate the rich and varied cultures of Kenya.
4. Education must prepare and equip the youth of this country with the knowledge, skills and expertise necessary to enable them collectively, to play an effective role in the life of the nation whilst ensuring that the opportunities are provided for the full development of individual talents and personality.
5. Education must promote social justice and morality by instilling the right attitudes necessary for training in social obligations and responsibilities.
6. Kenya is a member of the international community, and hence, its educational system must foster positive attitudes and consciousness towards other nations (Ministry of Education 1987).

1.2.2 ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION OF EDUCATION IN KENYA.

Education in Kenya comes under the Ministry of Education with its head quarters in Nairobi.
**HIERARCHICAL ORGANISATION OF MINISTRY HEADQUARTERS**

- **MINISTER**
  - Head of the Ministry and Member of the cabinet.

- **ASSISTANT MINISTERS**
  - To Assist the Minister.

- **PERMANENT SECRETARY**
  - Overall Chief Executive Ministry of Education. Incharge of Accounting, Formulation and implementation of Govt. policy on Education and controller on the implementation of Govt. policy on matters related to Parastatal bodies and institutions under the university.

- **DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION**
  - Head of the Professional Section pertaining to Education.

- **DEPUTY SECRETARY**
  - Administration and Finance Development and Planing.

- **CHIEF INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS**
  - Head of Inspectorate Division Responsible for Inspection of programmes regarding Administration Training operations, Examinations, Teacher Education & Physical facilities.

- **DEPUTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION (ADMINISTRATION)**
  - Head of Administration and Management of programmes relating to school administration, Grants services, Admissions, Transfers & Discipline, Equipment & Material.

- **DEPUTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION (DEVELOPMENT)**
  - Head of Education policy and programmes relating to pre-primary and Special Education, Secondary, Teacher Education, Technical Education University and Staff Development.

(Source: Ministry of Education 1987)
1.2.2.1 Organisation of Field Services:

Provincial Education Offices:

The Ministry of Education branches out from the headquarters to eight Provincial Education offices in the Republic and each is headed by a Provincial Education Officer. Each Provincial Education office has Senior Education Officers, a Provincial Inspector of Schools and Education Officers who assist the Provincial Education Officer to manage, administer, inspect and supervise all Educational Institutions in the Province. There is also the Provincial Schools Auditor who audits schools accounts and advises Heads of Institutions on proper accounting procedures.

District Education Offices:

There are 40 District Education offices in the Republic each headed by a District Education Officer. Large Districts and most of the Districts are now headed by Senior Education Officers. In order to effectively deal with the management, administration, inspection and supervision of primary and secondary schools, the District Education Officer is assisted by a number of Education Officers, a District Inspector of Schools, Assistant Education Officers and Teachers Advisory Center Tutors. Each District is divided into a number of Educational Divisions responsible for the administration and promotion of education at divisional
Introduction

level. The structure of these offices consist of a divisional headquarters, several educational zones, a Teachers Advisory Centre per zone and zonal course and subject panels. Every 30 primary schools make an educational Zone (Ministry of Education 1987).

1.2.3 THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN KENYA.

Education is not compulsory. The Government provides or assists in provision of schools. Primary Education begins at five years of age. In 1985 the education system was changed from its original seven years of primary education and six years of secondary education to the 8.4.4 system involving eight years of primary education, four years of secondary education and four years of university education (The Europa Year Book 1988).

MOI (1986) pointed out the reasons for restructuring the system of education as:

1) To permit an education that can respond effectively to the challenges of the times and the needs of the people.

2) To replace the elitist education system with a system which can cope with the rapid growth in population.

3) Ensure equal opportunities and promote equity and parity of treatment in sharing educational
Resources.

4) Impart technical and scientific knowledge at each stage by promoting technical and vocational education.

5) To improve the rating of true abilities by the operation of continuous assessment.

6) Improve the per capita cost-effectiveness of education by reducing the number of unemployable drop-outs, while also improving opportunities for tertiary education and training.

7) To improve the available pool of potential scientific and technological resources for the management of the increasingly complex development of the environment.

8) Foster national unity and respect for Kenya's rich cultural heritage, by enabling Kenyans to learn more about the beliefs and life styles of various ethnic communities in the country.

The 8.4.4 system of education has a practically oriented curricula. Students receive training in technical and vocational skills which students graduating at the various levels of the schooling system can go in for either self-employment, salaried employment or further training, thus providing a wide range of employment opportunities. The eighth standard schools leavers have opportunities for
further technical training in their jobs, without necessarily going through the formal school system (Kinyanjui and Gakuru 1988).

The total enrollment at primary level increased from 900,000 in 1963 to about 4.7 million in 1985. In January 1980 fees was completely abolished and the goal of free primary education was reached. In 1981 an estimated 69% of children in the relevant age-group attended Primary schools but secondary enrollment was equivalent to only 17%. In 1987 522,261 students enrolled for secondary education. Education is multi-racial at all levels but is hampered by a lack of qualified teachers (The Europa Year Book 1988). The Ministry of Education (1987) report on quantitative growth of secondary education in Kenya 1983-1985 indicated that pupils/teachers ratio in 1985 was 20:1.

TABLE-1:1
GROWTH OF SECONDARY EDUCATION,
1963-1987 (SELECTED YEARS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>No. of SCHOOLS</th>
<th>No. of TEACHERS</th>
<th>No. of STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>1,602</td>
<td>31,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>4,644</td>
<td>101,361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>964</td>
<td>7,388</td>
<td>175,325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>1,773</td>
<td>14,286</td>
<td>352,452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>2,230</td>
<td>18,837</td>
<td>493,710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>2,592</td>
<td>24,251</td>
<td>522,261</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Ministry of Information and Broadcasting 1988).
CHART 1:2

STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION 8.4.4.

SOURCE: MINISTRY OF EDUCATION 1987
1.2.4 TEACHER EDUCATION IN KENYA:

By 1935, teacher training programme had gained momentum to such an extent that the PIM Report of 1936 recommended further extension in the training facilities. At the time of independence, Kenya inherited 37 small independent colleges training primary teachers. There were practically no training facilities for high school teachers and even as late as 1969 two-thirds of the teachers in government and aided schools were expatriates. During the post-independent period, the government was obliged to recruit many of its public servants from the ranks of the teaching profession. This deflated the ranks of trained teachers forcing the government to recruit untrained teachers to teach in secondary schools.

The phenomenal expansion of secondary education in the first decade of independence (1963-1973) imposed severe demands on post secondary school development. The government therefore mounted crash programmes designed to upgrade those already in the profession. In 1971, Kenyatta University college was opened for both graduate and diploma teachers. In the following years, several diploma colleges were also started including Kenya science Teachers college and Kenya Technical Teachers College. Nairobi and Mombasa Polytechnics supply high and middle level technically oriented manpower to schools (Kinyanjui and Gakuru 1988)
In 1990, the government keeping in view the drastic changes brought about by the 8.4.4 educational reform and the need for more competent and qualified teachers to cater for the training of the students in technical and vocational skills in the 8.4.4 broad based curriculum, took over some non-university colleges, i.e. Siriba Teachers Training College, the Maseno Government Training Institute, Laikipia Teacher Training College, the Jomo Kenyatta Institute of Agriculture and Technology, the Kenya Institute of Administration and Government Secretariat College Nairobi and turned them into constituent colleges of education of the four national universities:– Nairobi, Kenyatta, Moi and Egerton University (The Weekly Review 1990).

1.2.5 ROLE OF TEACHERS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS

a) The Headmaster/Mistress

The Head of the school is appointed by the Teacher Service Commission (TSC) and must have considerable experience. The Head is responsible for the running and control of the school maintenance and its tone and standards. The organisation and control of the staff, both teaching and non teaching, is all part of the Head's duties. The accounts and all matters concerning building and boarding facilities are all his concern. It is his responsibility to supervise the work of the bursar and
accounts clerk. The school Head is also the channel through which teachers communicate with higher authorities particularly the Provincial Education Officer, the Ministry of Education, and the Teacher Service Commission (TSC).

b) The Teachers Responsibilities.

The high school teacher teaches a maximum of 28 periods per week. Apart from teaching, the teacher supervises and assesses the students homework.

A teacher can be appointed by the head of the school as:

i) Head of the Department - Here the teacher is required to organise the subject throughout the school, organise the setting and marking of school examinations in the subject, assist newly qualified teachers by advising them on the teaching of the subject and directing them to useful reference material.

ii) Class Teacher - He is incharge of a class and is the first person on the teaching staff to whom the pupils of that class turn for advise and assistance. The class teacher also maintaind the class register and supervises the cleanliness and organisation of the school.

iii) Duties of a Housemaster/mistress generally concern the welfare and discipline of students and the organisation of students within the community.
iv) A careers master/Guidance Counsellor has the responsibilities of advising students regarding the course of study within their ability for the career they wish to follow, and providing information about employment opportunities and prospects (Ministry of Education 1987).

1.3 THE TEACHER SERVICE COMMISSION (TSC)

Prior to July, 1967, teachers in the country were under various bodies such as local Authorities, Central government and various churches. These arrangements created a number of problems because there was no uniformity in such matters as terms and conditions of service. Therefore the government decided to unify the teaching service and in July 1967, it established the Teacher Service Commission (T.S.C) under an Act of Parliament which became the sole employer for all teachers in the country.

The commission is assisted by two other bodies:- the Teacher Service Appeals Tribunal and Teacher Service Remuneration Committee dealing with discipline and pay scales respectively. The teacher service commission maintains a teachers register which records their qualifications experience and achievements. By 1983 over 195,000 teachers had been registered. The number of teachers currently employed by the commission totals over 122,000
Introduction


CHART-1:3

STRUCTURAL ORGANISATION OF THE TEACHER SERVICE COMMISSION (TSC)

Teacher Service Commission (T.S.C.)
- Commission Chairman
- Deputy Commission Chairman
- Commission Secretary (Admn. Duties)
- Deputy Commission Secretary

- Planning Dept.
- Discipline Dept.
- Secondary Dept.
- Primary Dept.
- Technical Dept.
- Principal Co-ordinator
- Chief Staffing Officer
- Provincial Staffing Officers
- Provincial Education Officers (PEO)
- District Education Officers (DEO)
- Education Officers
- Head Masters
- Deputy Head Masters
- Teachers

(Source: Ministry of Education 1987).
1.4 THE HUMAN FACTOR IN EDUCATION

For work in our schools we need the right type of human beings, the right type of teacher will follow (Jacks 1969).

Education has both a quantitative and qualitative aspect. The former depends on amount of money available, the buildings the apparatus and similar material aids: the latter depends almost entirely on the nature and personality of the teachers in whose hands lies the destiny of the human race. The quality of education in a country and the quality of its culture depend on the quality of its teachers. Textbooks, class-rooms and other teaching aids are necessary for a modern teacher, but the greatest and most enduring educative force is the character and personality of the teacher himself (D'Souza 1969).

Although schools may have excellent material resources in the form of equipment, buildings and text books, and although curricula may be approximately adapted 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 (Ryans 1961).

Today there is a change in the concept of work, man does not work only for a living. His work has to be viewed in the context of his immediate environment and his wider
social needs. The worker wants appreciation because the work he does is an extension of his self. It has been pointed out that workers get motivated when their jobs afford them opportunity to feel involved and their needs and wants coincide with the organisational objectives. For this, it is necessary that the management understands the worker and the needs related to his work.

What really satisfies a worker and acts as a motivator to work is the nature of the job he does and its content in relation to the social environment he works in. Although wages, working conditions, and welfare are important, the extent to which the job gives him satisfaction and the way he is treated as a human being motivates him to work. He works because the work provides him, besides the means of earning, recognition, fellowship, and social life around him. It is, therefore, necessary for the management not only to provide the worker good physical environment and welfare amenities to keep him happy and healthy but also other essential ingredients which make the work itself "human", rewarding and challenging.

One of the first things, an aware person looking at todays organisations notices is that a great many people are not excited about their jobs (Weiler 1977). Under frustration and discontentment a man is not able to put his best in the task assigned to him. The causes of discontent
and frustration are varied. In the modern setup, unemployment, job security and recognition are responsible for teachers job frustration (Rai, 1970).

There is mounting evidence that prolonged occupational stress can lead to both mental and physical ill-health (Kyriacou 1987). There is also a growing concern to improve the quality of teachers working conditions as stress and burnout have been reported to significantly impair the relationship a teacher has with his students and the quality of teaching and commitment that he is able to display (Davis, 1981; Srivastava, 1983; Belcastro and Gold, 1984). There has also been a recent increase in the number of teachers claiming early retirement 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).

Whenever an individual encounters a demand, resources are mobilized to meet it. When demands and resources are relatively balanced stress is minimal. However, when the balance is destroyed because the demands escalate or the resources for meeting them dwindle then stress develops.

The experience of stress results from the teachers perception that:

1) Certain demands are being made upon him,
2) He is unable to, or had difficulty in meeting those
demands.

3) Failure to do so threatens his mental and physical well-being (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978a)

The demands made upon the teacher could be self imposed or imposed by others. The most potent threats to well-being range from fear of losing face or esteem both in our own eyes and the eyes of others, to fear of dismissal for incompetence.

Teacher burnout derives mainly from ineffective school management practices and the teachers own inadequacy in some respects. The negative image of the present school system, the absence of effective cooperation from parents and a focus away from the learning and development of students are additional problems (Cassel 1985; Farber, 1985).

A variety of physiological changes and subjective feelings of stress are likely to be experienced when environmental demands (stressors) threaten well-being. Although it is argued that some stress for some people has positive effect (Krause, 1979; Pfeiffer, Siegel, Taylor and Shuler, 1979) most of the life stress research has focused on unpleasant or disease producing stress (Selye, 1978). Such stress has been implicated in the etiology of numerous physical and mental health problems (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974; Gunderson & Rahe, 1974; Sarason & Spielberger, 1975, 1976; Selye, 1978; Spielberger & Sarason,
Mental health is absolutely necessary if one has to face one's personal and professional problems adequately. It is all the more necessary for a teacher since he is involved in the delicate task of teaching young children. The emotional difficulties of teachers are often revealed in their treatment of students. When teachers lose control or result to sadistic forms of punishment there is little doubt that their behaviour springs from some emotional instability. Teachers who are not properly adjusted in their personal lives often make poor teachers (Fleischut, 1983, Wong, 1984).

Given the importance of the teachers perception of threat and control regarding the experience of stress, Locus of Control as a personality dimension has been widely explored. There is some evidence to indicate that teachers with a belief in external locus of control report more stress and may be more stress prone (McIntyre 1984; Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1979b).

The role of the teacher's perception of his circumstances and the degree of control he perceives he has over them should be widely acknowledged as crucial (Phillips and Lee, 1980; Payne and Fletcher, 1983; Tellenbuck, Brenner and Lofgren, 1983). The demand for competence and efficiency in teaching is an important factor that contributes to job
stress. Teacher satisfaction is closely related to achieving "results with students" and feeling that one had "influenced students". Even when teachers are motivated enough to achieve efficacy and success in their work, their efforts can be frustrated by the element of unpredictability and lack of personal control in their jobs (Lortie, 1973). When a teacher feels ineffective and perceives that his career depends upon chance, fate or other extraneous factors, his mental health is naturally affected (Carter, 1984; Rodolfo & Richard, 1985) and is likely to be more burned out and dissatisfied (Roberts, 1987; Cooper, 1987).

1.5 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF BURNOUT, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND MENTAL HEALTH.

1.5.1 BURNOUT

In recent years the concept of job 'burnout' has attained tremendous popularity, mainly due to the early work of Freudenberger, (1974) and Maslach, (1976). Their efforts and the work of others they stimulated, led to the great and significant importance attached to this area which was previously a concern confined to the fields of professional athletics and performing arts only in the 1930's.

Burnout is a "loss of concern for the people with whom one is working in response to Job-related stress" (Maslach
Websters International Dictionary (1976) states that "burnout means to fail, to wear out, or become exhausted by reason of excessive demands on energy stress or resources".

Focusing on changes in motivation Cherniss (1980a) defined burnout as a "psychological withdrawal" from work in response to "excessive stress" or "dissatisfaction".

Meyer (1980) states that "Burnout is the psychological state of mind of a professional worker who feels overworked, overwhelmed, and alienated from other staff, from clients, and eventually from himself".

Burnout is used to refer to the situation in which, what was formerly a calling becomes merely a "job". One no longer lives to work but works to live.

In other words the term refers to loss of "enthusiasm, excitement" and a "sense of Mission" in one's work, (Lesson 1981) has given support to this definition.

Cherniss (1980b) examined the signs or symptoms of burnout mentioned in the literature and attempted to reconcile these conceptual definitions listed in Table 1:2
TABLE 1:2
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
6. Negativism
7. Isolation and Withdrawal
8. Feelings of tiredness and exhaustion all day
9. Frequent clock-watching
10. Great fatigue after work
11. Loss of positive feelings towards client.
13. Stereotyping clients.
14. Inability to concentrate or listen to what client is saying.
17. Increasingly "going by the book".
18. Sleep disorders.
19. Avoiding discussion of work with colleagues.
Introduction

21. More approving of behaviour-control measures such as tranquilizers.
22. Frequent colds & 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 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" (Cherniss 1980b). However, reviewing various definitions from the different disciplines, it is possible to conclude that, though there exist some differences, there are some marked similarities among the definitions of burnout.

1. Burnout occurs at an individual level. Few instances of organisations burning out have been reported. However, it has not been clear whether this means individual workers are experiencing burnout or that some unique occurrence takes place at the organisational level.
2. Burnout is an internal psychological experience
involving feelings, attitudes, motives, and expectations.

3. Burnout is a negative experience for the individual in that it concerns problems of distress, discomfort, dysfunction and negative consequences. Although the experience is negative some have argued that it may still serve as a positive function, as when it leads to personal growth, or acts as screening device to "weed out" incompetent employees (Maslach 1982b).

1.5.1.1 BURNOUT AND RELATED PHENOMENON: A DISTINCTION

1. The burnout syndrome is not the same as temporary 'Fatigue' or 'strain' although these may be early signs of burnout. "Burnout includes changes in attitudes towards one's work and clients as well as the feelings of exhaustion and tension that sometimes occur" (Cherniss 1980b). Burnout is a broad term that encompass fatigue or strain.

2. Burnout is different from socialization and acculturation. The changes that occur in burnout are a direct response to overload and stress caused by the job. Burnout is an adaptation to stress.

3. Finally burnout may lead to turnover (Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach, 1976; 1978b; Pines, Aronson & Kafry, 1981). A few studies have reported empirical relationships between the various measures of burnout.
and intention to leave one's job (Jones, 1980a; Kafry, 1981; Maslach & Jackson, 1979; Martin, 1985).

However the relationship between burnout and turnover is more complicated than may be supposed. Many factors residing in the job, the person or the external environment may contribute to job turnover (Shinn, 1982). Burnout may cause staff to quit, but staff may burnout and yet remain on the job. Also people may leave their jobs for positive or irrelavant reasons rather than to escape a bad work situation. Turnover is an agency, maybe a sign of high burnout among staff (Cherniss, 1980b) thus turnover and burnout are different.

Deriving their assumptions about burnout primarily from personal experiences with the syndrome, from co-workers, and previous studies, Carroll and White, (1982) listed 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 humans must be considered as potential causes of burnout.

2. Burnout is a holistic or 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
Introduction
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, (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
can burnout repeatedly over the course of an entire
career or if the process has discrete stages (Caroll &
reported two stages of burnout from his study, the
experiencing stage and reaction stage.

7. 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. Signs of burnout may vary with duration of burnout and
with respect to their consistency and intensity.

9. Burnout 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 to burnout.

16. Burnout is not a 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.

Brill, (1984) states that burnout is an exactation mediated, job related, dysphoric and dysfunctional state in an individual without major psychopathology who has: (i) Functioned for a time with adequate performance and effectiveness in the same job situation and (ii) who will not recover to previous levels without help or environmental rearrangement.

Savick & Cooley, (1984), identified and explained many pitfalls and sources of error in developing theory and research about burnout. They suggested further investigations in the area of individual characteristics and their interaction with the burnout phenomenon.

Harris, (1984); contends that the process of burnout is a gradual one that may involve individual and organisational states. Harris was further of the opinion that feelings associated with burnout include hopelessness, disenchantement and emotional exhaustion and that attitudes and behaviours are manifested in negativism, inflexibility and powerlessness. Possible somahz state associated with the condition are physical exhaustion, proneness to accidents, and increased susceptibility to illness. Organisational variables include bureaucratization, communication, level of decision making, role models, job expectations, physical
environment and psychological environment. Increased use of sick time, decreased use of overtime in small increments of time are seen as signs within the organisations of burnout. Changes in behaviour, in communications, isolation, work errors, sick time, risk taking and tardiness indicate but do not diagnose burnout. Harris (1984), suggests that organisational burnout involves the potential for burning out of employees. Intervention after a solid assessment can be based on solid knowledge only.

Zastrow (1985) suggests that burnout is caused by two types of factors: distressing events and certain kind of self defeating thought about distressing events.

Gillespie & Cohen, (1985) contend that causes of worker burnout are
1. Overloaded responsibilities.
2. Lack of recognition
3. Poor communications.
The three categories point out to worker's dissatisfaction with their supervisors as one of the major sources of burnout.

Cassel, (1985) argues that teacher burnout derives mainly from ineffective school-management practices (e.g Mainstreaming, lack of selective grouping of students, the absence of learning laboratories) and from inadequate teacher preparation as evidenced by lack of computer
literacy and inappropriate use of contingency management. Additional problems are noted with respect to the negative image of the present school system, the absence of effective cooperation from parents, and a focus away from learning and development of students. These problems must be addressed in efforts to improve present school system in terms of teacher burnout.

Hviid, (1985) has reviewed various definitions of burnout and the occurrence of this syndrome among social workers and psychologists. Hviid (1985), contends that factors that lead to this phenomenon include exhaustion, dejection, disappointment, anger, sleep disorders, guilt, defection, poor working relations with colleagues, family problems, and periods of illness.

Paine, (1982) states that "the consequences of high levels of job stress, personal frustration, and inadequate coping skills have major personal, organisational and social costs- and these costs are probably increasing".

Maslach, (1981) reviewed the various definitions of burnout and concluded that: burnout is a transactional process consisting of the following stages:
1. An imbalance between resource and demand (stress).
2. Immediate, short term emotional response to this imbalance is characterised by feelings of anxiety, tension, fatigue and exhaustion (strain).
3. A number of changes in attitudes and behaviour. Such as a tendency to treat client in a detached and mechanical fashion.

Burnout thus refers to a transactional process consisting of job stress, worker strain and psychological accommodation. It represents a response to an intolerable work situation. The process begins when the worker experiences strain and stress that cannot be alleviated through active problem-solving. The changes in attitude and behaviour associated with burnout provide a psychological escape and ensure that further stress will not be added to the strain already being experienced.

If the worker remains committed in a situation where failure and disappointment are frequent, the strain would be great. By adapting a cynical way of life the worker reduces the guilt and frustration associated with the work. Detachment from clients helps protect the worker psychologically.

An effective way to avoid the burden of guilt is to externalize it and blame clients or the system. This rationalizes withdrawal and preoccupation with one's needs.

In general the greater and more chronic the stress and the more helpless the worker is, to change the situation, the more likely will burnout occur and the more severe it will be.
Carroll & White, (1982) state that burnout is a construct used to explain observable decrements in the typical quality and quantity of work performed by a person on the job.

Carroll & White, (1982) proposed an ecological perspective of burnout. They argue that since burnout is a work-related concept, the work environment generally receives considerable attention; however other environments or ecosystems also play an important role in determining whether or not, to what degree and in what fashion a person will experience burnout.

1.5.1.2 THE ECOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF BURNOUT

According to this perspective, burnout is viewed as a form of ecological dysfunction (Carroll, 1980). Ecology concerns the interrelationships of organisms and their environments or ecosystems.

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 personal variables (such as poor physical health and unresolved emotional conflicts) and environmental variables (such as poor supervision and excessive paperwork) generates burnout. The influence of the other ecosystems (for instance the family) also counts. This interaction can be expressed by the formula

\[ BO = f (P \leftrightarrow E) \]

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
2 Environmental Components
   a Microsystem
   b Mesosystem
   c Exosystem
   d Macrosystem.

1.5.1.2.1. The Person (Worker) Element of the Ecological Model:

All elements that can influence a person's work performance, for example, physical and mental health status, the amount of education and training completed; and the person's coping skills, frustration, tolerance, goals, needs, interests and values, must be considered and evaluated.
1.5.1.2.2. Environmental Components of the Ecological Model:

a. The Microsystem:
   This element pertains to the smallest organised ecosystem within which the person performs most of his/her work (such as the office, the home).

b. The Mesosystem:
   This element of ecological model represents the next highest level of organisation of the work environment. It encompasses all the microsystems that together form a larger whole (all the office, departments and bureaus of an institution or company).

c. The Exosystem:
   This element encompasses those elements of the larger environment that impinge most directly and frequently on the mesosystem. For a typical company or institutions the exosystem would include the board of directors, the surrounding, neighbourhood, or community, local legislative bodies, funding sources, and regulatory agencies.

d. The Macrosystem:
   Elements and forces developing to the macrosystem are perceived as larger, more impersonal, more distant and global than those of the Micro, Meso, and Exosystems. The influence of the macrosystem is often experienced
indirectly but is of the same power as the other three components of the life space. Macrosystem influences that would lead to burnout include high interest rate, inflation, high unemployment, racial and sexual prejudice, and natural disasters.

1.5.1.3 APPROACHES OF PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT

Carroll and White, (1982) report that approaches to burnout which neglect the balance between individual and environmental factors worsen the situation, because failure to effect meaningful changes in the ecosystem only add to existing level of bitterness, cynicism and hopelessness already in the system.

1.5.1.3.1 The Authoritarian Moral Approach:

McGregor, (1960) "theory X" of management is based on the assumption that most people dislike work, lack ambition, are essentially passive, avoid responsibility, resist change and are self-oriented and unconcerned with the needs of organisations.

The manager thus takes up the role of directing, motivating, manipulating, persuading, controlling, rewarding and punishing the worker to respond effectively to the needs of the organisation.

When the staff becomes increasingly burned out in such organisations, due to high stress conditions, they do indeed
avoid responsibilities, develop malicious attitude towards the organisation, and commit acts of sabotage (decrease production, damage equipment etc.) against organisational leadership.

1.5.1.3.2. The Training Approach:

This approach defines burnout as a reflection of skill deficiency especially in the area of stress management. Iwanicki, (1983); Riccio, (1983); Sparks, (1983) recommend that most discussion of coping with stress calls for developing professional skills and understanding to identify sources of stress and deal with demands of being a teacher and utilizing effective coping strategies and techniques.

Training approach that focus only on deficiencies in stress management skills may distract the organisation from eliminating sources of stress and frustration and/or increasing supports within the work environment. Also such training can immunize the workers against stress generated from intolerable conditions within the work environment.

For proper diagnosis of the conditions responsible for inadequate performance and high levels of stress and frustration in the worker, training approach should not focus exclusively on skill development to remediate burnout (Carroll & White, 1982).

1.5.1.3.3. The Work Environment Approach:
Introduction

The work environment perspective is essentially sensitive to the extent to which an organisation is "open" or "close" to external inputs and specific role conditions that may subject workers to conflict, stress and frustration (White, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c, 1980, 1981a, 1981b). Thus, burnout is seen as a breakdown due to inadequate structures, policies, functions within the work environment and it is considered to be due to the progressive loss of support and sources of replenishment, which increases the workers vulnerability to burnout.

The work environment approach does not address stress originating from ecosystem components outside the work environment (the Ecosystem and Mesosystem) and inadequate emphasis is typically afforded to the personal sources of stress and frustration.

1.5.1.4. SIGNS OF BURNOUT WITHIN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT (MICROSYSTEM & MESOSYSTEM)

1. Significant decrements in the quality of services provided to clients or customers.
2. Increasingly interrelate in a distrusting, competitive and hostile manner;
3. Bureaucratic "turf" becomes increasingly sharply defined and jealousy guarded,
4. Frequent authority conflicts emerge and with greater rancour;
5. An increasingly isolated elitist group, which does not seek meaningful input from lower-level staff, make important organisational decisions.

6. Communications within the system are poor.

7. Staff interactions are marked by stereotyped, forced role.

8. Poor staff morale.

9. Lack of punctuality and attendance for important meetings and appointments.

10. The management spending more and more time away from the organisation and then reducing the amount of time spent in direct contact with line staff.

11. Increased absenteeism especially sick leave.

12. Higher staff turnover and a decrease in average length of stay on the job.

13. Increased staff firings and/or forced resignations.


15. Increased employees theft.

16. Increased use of drug or alcohol on the job or during breaks.

17. Worsening relationships between the organisation and other agencies/companies, funding services, regulatory agencies, legislative bodies, boards and surrounding communities.
1.5.1.5 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.
   b. Career-Related Goals and Attitudes.
   c. Previous Experience & Educational History.
   d. Age and Sex.

   Carroll & 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 persons' 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 directives 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 favourable.

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 support in those settings. The period of rapid social change in the human services that began in the 1960s has further eroded public confidence and support and has increased political pressure and external demands. 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 than existed before. The growing importance of values such as authenticity, novelty, and self-actualization during this same 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 1980a).

Burnout is a syndrome which has gained attention as a problem among workers in helping professions and is defined as a phenomenon in which professionals lose energy and enthusiasm for their jobs, idealism changes into mechanical practicability. Workers begin to depersonalise the clients they are helping. 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 personnel ambitions and idealistic desires to help people are thwarted. Unlike industrial workers who tend to be less personally committed to their jobs, human service workers are frequently dedicated to ideals extended beyond the job
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)

1.5.2. LOCUS OF CONTROL

Research and theoretical literature indicates that locus of control construct is an important psychological variable and a personality dimension which appears to differentiate individuals according to a generalized belief or expectancy attitude about control that this expectancy can be measured and that these measures are predictive of behaviour in a variety of circumstances.

The largest body of empirical data about perceived control derives from Rotter's (1966) social learning theory. It is in this theory that perceived control occupies a central place with a systematic formulation. Rotter's (1966)
theory states that; "a persons' actions are predicted on the basis of his values, his expectations and situations in which he finds himself".

There is an equal emphasis upon value, expectancy of reinforcement, and situational specificity that make Rotters' theory unique among learning theories. It accentuates value or motive of predictive formulas. For explicating the place of perceived control within social learning theory, Rotter (1966) put forth a formula which reads as follows:

$$NP = f(FM \text{ and } Nv) = \text{Need Potential is a function of freedom of movement and need value.}$$

The potentiality of occurrence of a set of behaviours that lead to satisfaction of some need (need potential) is a function of both the expectancies that the behaviours will lead to these reinforcements (Freedom of Movement) and that strength or value of these reinforcements (need value). It is with the term "freedom of movement" that we approach the location of locus of control construct in social learning theory.

Rotter (1954) defines freedom of movement as the mean expectancy of obtaining positive satisfaction as a result of set or related behaviour directed towards the accomplishment of a group of functionally related reinforcement. A persons freedom of movement is low if he has a high expectancy of
failure as a result of the behaviour with which he tries to obtain the reinforcements that constitute a particular need.

In essence FM is a generalized expectancy of success resulting from man's ability to remember and reflect upon a lifetime of specific expectancy behaviour outcome sequences.

Perceived control is defined as a generalized expectancy for internal as opposed to external control reinforcements. Like FM, it is an abstraction deriving from a series of specific expectancy behaviour and outcome cycles.

In the social learning theory a reinforcement acts to strengthen an expectancy that a particular behaviour or event will be followed by the reinforcement in future. Once an expectancy for such a behaviour-reinforcement sequence is built up, the failure of the reinforcement to occur will reduce or extinguish the expectancy. As an infant develops and acquires more experience, he learns to differentiate events which are causally related to preceding events and those which are not. It follows a general hypothesis that when the reinforcement is seen as not contingent upon the subject's own behaviour, its occurrence will not increase an expectancy as much as when it is seen as contingent upon one's own behaviour. Conversely its non-occurrence will not reduce any expectancy so much as when it is seen as
contingent. It seems likely that depending upon the individuals history of reinforcement, individuals would differ in the degree to which they attribute reinforcements to their own actions (Rotter 1966).

Locus of control is an expectancy variable that describes the perception of control that one has over the reinforcement that follows ones behaviour. The effects of reward of reinforcement preceding behaviour depend in part on whether the person perceives the reward as contingent on his own behaviour or independent of it. Acquisition and performance differ in situations perceived as determined by skill or chance.

In the words of DuCette and Wolk (1972) an internal person perceives that he is in control of his fate and that effort and reward will be co-related. But an external person perceives that powerful others or the systems determine how well he can do and that rewards are distributed by such powerful others in a random fashion.

Rotter (1975) points out that when a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as not being contingent on his action, then it is perceived as a result of chance, luck, fate, as under the control of powerful others or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, it is labelled as a belief in external
control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his behaviour or his own relatively permanent characteristics, it is labelled as belief in internal control.

Thus the three basic constructs of social learning theory by Rotter (1966) are:

1. Behaviour Potential
2. Expectancy
3. Reinforcement value.

There has been wide interpretation of Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory. Some authors interpret it in terms of causal attribution. Mostly since the research of Weiner and his colleagues (Weiner, 1972; Weiner & Kukla, 1970; Weiner, Nierenberg & Goldstein, 1976) locus of control has often been considered an attribution process to a cause labelled internal or external in relation to the individual.

Using Rotter's (1966) definition, the locus of control represents an individual's perception of being able or unable to control what happens to him. This formulation of the locus of control interprets the notion in terms of control, over events. As such it reflects an aspect depicted by Palenzuela (1984) as "perceived behavioural outcome contigency". In the same way, it also seems reasonable to think that internal control is manifest as an individual's tendency to perceive himself as the cause of what happens to him, and external control as a tendency to attribute this
causality to external forces. This second formulation is an interpretation in terms of "causal attribution" by reference to the attribution theory described mainly by Heider (1958) and Kelley (1967).

These two formulations of locus of control, although apparently equivalent give rise to conceptually very different interpretations. Indeed there is a difference between an individual's perceiving of a given determinant as a cause of what happens to him (causal attribution) and his believing that he can control what happens to him (behavioural outcome contingency). In the first case, the individual identifies the probable cause of an event, and each of these causes can be classified as internal or external in relation to himself.

In the second case, however once causality has been attributed to his own various personal characteristics or to the environment, the individual analyzes the forces involved and he senses whether he can influence the outcome in question through his own behaviour.

A very important point to note is the fact that an individuals belief that an internal cause has an influence on events does not necessarily mean that he believes he can control the event in question. Conversely, when he believes that an external cause has an influence it does not mean that he believes he cannot control the event. This basic
distinction appears to come through the following statements by Wong and Sproule (1984): "external causality does not necessarily imply the absence of internal control". For example, an individual perceiving the influence of external determinants on a given event can very easily believe that he can control this event, if he is able to manipulate his environment and thus influence the event in question. Attributing influences to internal or external causes is a concept which differs from that of perceiving control.

If one refers to the "ideal" definition formulated by Rotter, Seaman and Liverant (1962) when they undertook the construction of the I-E scale, "..... internal control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being a consequence of one's own actions and thereby under personal control. Whereas external control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behaviour in certain situations and therefore beyond personal control". It appears from this first definition that the aspect of an individual's control over reinforcement (perceived behavioural outcome contingent) is closer to Rotter's concept than it is to the aspect of causal attribution. This is a position which seems to have had the implicit support of several early researches on locus of control. The terms used by these authors to characterise an internal or external locus of control are
very revealing in this regard. For example, on the subject of the internal locus of control such expressions are found as "views the outcome of events as the consequences of his own control" (Cromwell, 1967), "a general expectancy that people can control events" (Coan, Fairchild & Dabyns, 1973), "possess power...over what happens to him" (Lefcourt, 1966), "has power over what happens to him" (Mischel, Zeiss & Zeiss, 1974), "are usually able to influence the outcome of situations" (Crandall, Katkovsky & Crandall, 1965), "beliefs about their ability to influence their environment and exert control over it". (Gemmill & Heisler, 1972), "believe they are skilled in manipulating the environment to get what they want" (Collins, Martin, Asmore & Rose, 1973), "the subjects expectancy that his own behaviour would change the probability that reinforcement might occur" (Stephen & Delys, 1973), "expectation that one's actions generally make a difference...to increase the subjective probability that any desired outcome can be secured by a particular behaviour" (Abramowitz, 1973).

As far as the external locus of control is concerned, the expressions are also quite significant: "they feel that they have little control over their environment" (Tesser & Grossman, 1969), "feel their destinies are beyond their own control" (Levenson, 1975), "as perceived lack of control an awareness that one's efforts to cope with the world are not
effective (Phares, 1976), "lacks power over what happens to him" (Lefcourt, 1966), "has no power over what happens to him" (Mischel et al., 1974), "believes that the events in his life are for the most part beyond his influence" (Broedling, 1975).

The internal-external locus of control has been operationalized many times by measurements of the causal attribution type. Examples of these are the Crandall Intelligence Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (Crandall, Katkovsky & Crandall, 1965), the Stephens-Delys reinforcement contingency interview (Stephens & Delys, 1973), the Stanford Preschool Internal-External scale (Mischel, Zeiss & Zeiss, 1974), the internal, powerful others and chance scale (Levenson, 1974), the multidimensional-multiattributational causality scale (Lefcourt, Von Baryer, Ware & Cox, 1979). The Levenson scale has been analysed by Petterson and Brodeleau (1982) as a case in point to illustrate the misinterpretation and confusion which have generated to show how a new formulation could lead to clear empirical results. The situation remains unchanged today as can be found in some recent articles (Fleming & Spooner, 1985; Lamb, Lalljee & Spooner, 1985; Miller, Lefcourt & Ware, 1983; Tenenbaum, Furst & Weingarten, 1984).

After having reviewed other perspectives concerning

Pettersen (1987) in dealing with a theoretical clarification on the concept of locus of control, defined internal locus of control as the perception that an individual has of being able to influence the occurrence of reinforcements around him by his behaviour. In the same way, the external locus of control expresses the perception of an individual who believes that influencing reinforcement around him is not within his control. In other words, it is the perception of change, the possibility that a reinforcement might occur.

This definition excludes the conception of locus of control which involves different sources of control such as, chance, luck, destiny, the influence of others and the complexity of the environment in the case of external sources and the individual's own personal characteristics and behaviour in the case of internal sources.

According to International Dictionary of Education (1977), Locus of control is; "personality construct refering
to an individual's perception of the place of events as determined internally by his/her own behaviour against luck, fate or external forces".

Research findings indicate that locus of control has proved to be extremely useful in the prediction of a variety of behaviours. Individuals tend to be very highly discriminative in their social behaviour, hence the effects of individual differences tend to be relatively specific, dependant on the particulars of the psychological situation in which behaviours occur (Michel, Zeiss & Zeiss, 1974).

Due to various outcomes individuals change their expectancies for success and failure (Phares, 1957). Internals are specially prone to react against covert or subtle influence (Ritchie & Phares, 1969; Biando & McDonald, 1970). Gore and Rotter (1963) have related the I-E control dimension to factors of social-action taking; Crown & Liverant (1963) to conformity behaviour; Phares (1965) to ability to persuade others and Rotter & Mulry, (1965) to decision time.

Results of these investigations have shown that the individual who tends to perceive reinforcement as contingent upon his behaviour is more likely to attend to, and to learn and remember information that will affect his future goals (Seeman, 1963; Seeman & Evans, 1962) and is generally more concerned with his ability particularly his failures (Efran,
The individual who seems to be more internal also appears to have a better need for independence (Crown & Liverant; 1963). Internals tend to become more sensitive to external changes and more likely to respond to them than externals (Lefcourt, 1972; Phares, 1973; Cheung & Chau, 1982).

Given the importance of the teacher's perception of threat and control regarding the experience of stress, locus of control as a personality dimension has been widely explored. There is some evidence to indicate that teachers with a belief in external locus of control report more stress and may be more stress-prone (McIntyre, 1984; Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1979b; Phillips and Lee, 1980; Payne and Fletcher, 1983; Tellenbuck, Brenner and Lofgren, 1983) all emphasize that the role of the teacher's perception of his circumstances and the degree of control he perceives he has over them should be widely acknowledged as crucial.

1.5.3. MENTAL HEALTH

The preamble of the 'Charter' of the World Health Organisation (1980) points out that "A nation's greatest asset is its people, the more so when they are endowed with the highest attainable standard of health, which promotes creativeness, dynamism, determination, productivity and the self-confidence to move ahead. Health is basic requirement,
not only for the fulfilment of human aspirations but also for the enjoyment by all mankind of a better quality of life".

According to the above statement, every teacher is also entitled to enjoy such privilege to maintain perfect health.

• World Health Organisation (1952) defines health as "a state of complete physical mental and social well-being, and not merely an absence of disease or infirmity".

• According to Wolman's Dictionary of Behavioural Science (1973), "Mental health is a state of relatively good adjustment, feeling of well-being and actualization of one's potentialities and capacities".

Longman's Dictionary of Psychology and Psychiatry (1984) states; "Mental health is a state of mind characterised by emotional well-being, relative freedom from anxiety and disabling symptoms, and a capacity to establish constructive relationship and cope with ordinary demands and stress of life".

Numerous attempts have been made to define the concept of mental health. However, the approaches to this concept have differed widely depending on the various fields presented by the authors.

In the present day field of mental health, clinicians are concerned with disturbed behaviour of all sorts, and its severity and duration. At one extreme are grossly and
visibly deranged people once called insane, mad and lunatic and diagnosed as psychotic. At the other are unhappy people unable to cope effectively with life demands, limited in their ability to love, work or find meaning in their lives either over extended periods or in brief stress-related episodes.

There has been a steady increase in the range of human problems which have come within the ken of mental health fields. With growing psychological-mindedness and the reduced stigma for seeking professional help, clinicians of today are seeing a wide range of "minor maladjustments". The development of the psychodynamic and psychosocial frameworks over the past century have provided concepts and techniques for dealing with the confusion, worries, anxieties and personality problems of people who could hardly be called insane.

Consequently the borders of normal and pathological are becoming increasingly hard to define, nor what is one should be in the purview of mental health workers and what is properly outside. Increasingly the borders expand as professionals reconceptualize their roles and competencies and the public and social institutions reach out for their help.

Overall there has been a shifting of emphasis from psychological illness to psychological health. Szasz (1961)
Introduction

argues that psychological disturbances should be "... regarded as the expression of man's struggle with the problem of how he should live".

WHO (1981) stated; "The scope of mental health programmes has been enlarged to include not only psychiatry and neurology but also the psychosocial, biological and other aspects of health and development in general".

There is no clear consensus as to a definition of normality against which particular types of deviant or disordered behaviour can be considered abnormal. Discussions of normality and abnormality, mental health and illness, are inevitably filled with value-laden terms (Jahoda, 1958; Smith, 1961).

Offer and Sabshin (1966) have surveyed the many meanings of normality which have arisen in psychology, psychiatry, sociology and anthropology. Normality is then the wide range of functioning which has in common that it does not represent a disease state. In this context, Offer and Sabshin (1966) note that health refers to a reasonable rather than an optimal state.

Views of positive mental health (Jahoda, 1958) or those which emphasise the goal of psychological development as self-actualization (Maslow, 1954; Goldstein, 1939) becoming "fully functioning person" (Rogers, 1961) or attaining the "Mature personality" (Allport 1961) are of this class.
Introduction

Attempts to describe mental health in ideal terms have generally led to lists of qualities which characterize the mature healthy person. On analysis there is considerable agreement among the proposed concepts.

Definitions of mental health can be grouped into three categories as medical, psychological and social phenomenon.

1.5.3.1 Mental Health as a Medical Phenomenon:

Those who view mental illness in disease terms believe that constitutional factors are largely responsible for many mental conditions and that genetic and biological factors play an important, if not prominent, part in exploring the causes of mental illness.

1.5.3.2 Mental Health as a Psychological Phenomenon:

Those who view mental illness as primarily disturbances of the personality conceive of such problems as repertoires of behaviour and patterns of feeling which have become deeply rooted as a result of the child's social development and which persist through time, although they are inappropriate to effective social functioning and personal comfort.

1.5.3.3 Mental Health as a Social Phenomenon:

Such theorists maintain that persons are labelled mentally ill because they fail to conform to certain social standards either because of their own unique understandings
and viewpoints or because of their failure to develop certain social skills which others define as necessary. They argue that such difficulties are problems in living which develop because of confusion in communication, maintenance of particular social rules, and enforcement of certain moral standards.

1.5.3.4. The Social Stress Perspective:

The social-stress perspective is not based on an elaborate theory or concept. It is increasingly used as a rationale for public policy in mental health. This perspective assumes that every person has his breaking point and that mental illness and psychiatric disability are products largely of the cumulation of stress in people's lives. This perspective does not draw clear distinctions between psychoses and other kinds of problems causing psychological and social disability but great weight is given to the idea that mental illness is environmentally caused.

Psychiatrists agree that environmental influences have an important impact on the development and course of some mental illnesses. They differ, however in theories of how environmental forces influence and interact with biological and personality influences.

The inter-relationship of the medical, psychological,
social, environmental orientation of mental health is, quite
evident. Indeed in psychiatry there is the rapidly growing
field of social psychiatry. Persons working in this field
usually take a broad perspective and make every effort to
include concepts of social role as well as personality in
their thinking about mental health (Leighton 1960).

It is obvious that an essential element of a social
psychology of mental health is the concern with the
interactions of individuals and social variables, and thus
there are many features common to social psychiatry and
social psychology though neither has handled well the
problem of defining a workable concept of mental health.

Mental health covers an elusive and defuse field and
the term itself encompasses a multiplicity of meanings.
Jahoda (1958) points out that there is hardly a term in
current thought as difficult to define as the term mental
health.

Jahoda (1958), who was commissioned by the Joint
commission of mental illness and health, made a
comprehensive survey of the criteria suggested in the
literature and the solutions proposed by her for the
criterion problem meant a step forward. However her truly
important contribution is her synthesis resulting in the
formulation of six criteria of positive mental health which
she describes as follows:
Introduction

1) Attitudes towards the self; they're the accessibility of the self to consciousness; the correctness of the selfconcept; its relation to the sense of identity and the acceptance by the individual of his own self.

2) Growth, development, and self-actualization; the extent the individual utilizes his abilities; his orientation toward the future and his investment in living.

3) Integration :the extent to which the psychic forces are balanced; a unifying outlook on life and a resistance to stress.

4) Autonomy: the aim here is to ascertain whether the self reliant person is able to decide with relative ease and speed what suits his own needs best.

5) Perception of reality; a relative freedom from need-distortion and the existence of empathy.

6) Environmental Mastery; under this heading is listed: Ability to love, work and play; adequacy in interpersonal relationships; adaption and adjustment; and efficiency in problem solving.

Shoben (1957) proposes a model of integrative adjustment which is characterised by "self-control, personal responsibility, social responsibility, democratic social interest and ideals". Behaviour according to Shoben is normal to the extent that it expresses man's most unique capacities for symbolization and social involvement.
Among his criteria of the fully functioning person, Rogers (1961) emphasizes the capacity for awareness and openness to experience.

Maslow (1954) notes that self-actualizing people are also invariably creative in the sense of giving to whatever they do a personal and distinctive quality.

Allport (1961) describes that a mature personality is synonymous with soundness of health as having six salient qualities:

1) Extension of human endeavour beyond immediate self-interest.

2) Warm relating to others. Because of self-extension, the mature person is more capable of intimacy but also of respect and comparison.

3) Emotional security (self-acceptance). This is reflected both in frustration tolerance and in trust.

4) Realist perception skills, and assignments. This includes not only accurate judgement, but the capacity to lose oneself in one's work.

5) Self-objectification; i.e. insight and humour: To know oneself and to laugh at oneself requires mature detachment.

6) A unifying philosophy of life. The mature person has a sense of direction and purpose and a broad personal philosophy.
Engel (1962), Menninger, Mayman and Pruyser (1963) have emphasized in the shift from static disease state to the processes which move human adaptation from a pole of mental health towards one of mental illness.

Opposing a discrete disease orientation Menninger et.al (1963) propose that all psychological diseases are the same in quality though differing in quantity. They represent positions towards health or towards illness along a single scale. At the extremes, between life and death, position is determined by streses, internal and external acting upon the person and his coping resources. Neither is there a fixed state of mental health nor disease entities but rather degrees of effectiveness (or contrawise dysorganisation, dysfunction or discontrol) of the adaptational processes.

According to Auckerman (1961), "positive mental health is a process not a static quality in the possession of anyone. It is not self-sustained. It can be maintained only by continuous striving, and the emotional support of others is needed to keep it.

Korner (1962), describes mental health as a set of goals, intimately related to social values and may take on different forms in different societies.

Peck and Mitchel (1962), mental hygienists, feel that characteristics like rationality, autonomy, initiative, emotional maturity, self-realizing drive, self-acceptance
and respect for others must be included in a definition of mental health.

Dunn (1964) suggests that mental health or well-being must involve a balance among several components (Neuromuscular, chemicals, mind, body) of the individual and the society in which he lives.

The National Association for Mental Health of America (1964) describes a mentally healthy person as "one who feels comfortable about himself, feels right about other people, and is able to meet the demands of life".

Bower (1966) relates mental health to the competence with which an individual lives in his environment and the competence of social institutions (home, school, work, recreation etc.) to make this living as effective as possible. This approach considers mental health in terms of the quality of interaction between an individual and his environment rather than its interapsychic manifestations.

Mereness and Karnosh (1966) wrote that, to diagnose mental illness the individual must be studied in a totality as he is engaged with varying degrees of success in adjusting to his environment and as his environment affects him.

The only reasonable approach to the study of etiology of mental illness is a consideration of an individual's total life experiences with emphasis upon genetic,
physiological, intrapersonal, interpersonal and cultural factors each of which may have contributed to his problems.

Kaplan (1971), writes, "Mental Health involves a continuous adaptation to changing circumstances, a dynamic process where a living reacting being strives to achieve a balance between internal demands and the requirements of a changing environment".

Skinner (1960), quoting U.N.E.S.C.O. documents writes, "the whole mental health turns upon the solutions sought and found to the twin problems of maintaining personal security and moving forward to resolve the continual challenges presented by the environment".

Advisory Committee on Medical Research Subcommittee (1985) included not only the hazards of the physical environment but also those that were a consequence of human behaviour in the term "environmental". The influences determined by behaviour were very important in some of the diseases of poverty, especially in relation to the diseases of maladaptation and in developed countries today they are probably the major determinants of ill health.

Various researchers: Schroeder (1965), Bennett, (1973), Vandewiele, (1979), Sharma, (1983), Brown, (1985), have explored the area and concluded that mental health and mental illness are dynamic concepts and to a large extent are culturally determined and are defined differently in
different parts of the world.

Townsend (1975), states "It is an established fact that cultures vary in the way they view mental disorders".

Verma (1986) states "mental health sustaining influences of culture are characterised by social roles and institutions which reduce uncertainties and channelize gratifications, and by customs and rituals, sanctions and prohibitions, symbolism and folkways which serve culturally sanctioned defensive functions in the face of anxiety and guilt".

In developing countries infectious diseases, parasitic diseases and malnutrition lead to many cases of mental disorder (WHO 1975).

A study in Africa revealed close correlation between adherence to traditional beliefs and low blood pressure as long as individuals remain within the framework of the extended rural family. Among migrants to the impersonal urban environment, efforts to sustain these beliefs were associated with a greater risk of hypertension (WHO 1976).

Social and environmental factors such as worries, anxieties, emotional stress, tension, frustration, urbanisation, changing family structure, population mobility, economic insecurity, cruelty, rejection, neglect and the like, determine the individuals attitudes and also provides the "framework" within which mental health is
Our so called social problems are to be viewed as arising from the frantic efforts of individuals lacking any sure direction and sanctions or guiding conception of life, to find someway of protecting themselves or of merely existing on any terms they can manage in a society being remade by technology. Having no strong loyalties and no consistent values or realizable ideals to cherish, the individual's conduct is naturally conflicting, confused, neurotic and anti-social. If we accept the conception of society as the patient, absolve the individual from guilt and regard these various social problems as symptoms of progressive cultural change, we can at least relieve some of our anxiety since we then have a definite and possibly manageable problem.

Websters International Dictionary (1976) states; "The science of preventing the development of psychosis, neurosis or other personality disturbances is called mental health".

According to the International Dictionary of Education (1977) "Mental health or mental hygiene is the maintenance of satisfactory personality adjustment and a relative absence of "mental disorder".

Health and development are inseparable. Good health enables people to lead productive life socially and economically. Kenya today, like many other developing
countries, is engaged in a massive development effort; never have science and technology, human ingenuity and social development faced greater challenges. Health is a fundamental right of every individual. It gives rise to satisfaction with life, as well as to physical and mental efficiency. It is, therefore, important to explore the psycho-social factors and working conditions of teachers under which they work and the effects it produces on their mental health.

In the modern world the complexities of modern living develop emotional stresses of many kinds. Freedom means opportunity and opportunity means competition. We are in a changing world where scientific knowledge doubles every few years, and where customs are undergoing rapid transformation, especially in the third world countries. National, social and economic security are often uncertain. There is too much excitement and too little rest for many persons. Psychosomatic medicine has revealed many bodily ailments arising from emotional stress. Mental disease is a major health problem today than it was twenty years ago. It thus becomes imperative for any organisation which deals with human service workers to pay attention to mental health since such workers are very important assets of the society.

Teachers are part and parcel of the community and their professional life is very much influenced by the factors
Tsung-Yi Lin (1983) pointed out that "Mental health programmes which aim to cultivate and promote human development should take the family and school as strategic targets, for these two social institutions represent the foci of the most intensive human interaction where conduct and learning are fostered and modified".

The Working Group on Health Education of children and young people (1978) pointed out that "school teachers are ill-prepared on health issues".

1.6. EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM

Today we are witnessing the struggle of a number of developing countries trying to achieve economic growth and stability. They need essentially everything in order to provide their rapidly growing population with food, housing, schools, health services, transport, communication and industries. With resources of modern technology, plus outside help in the form of foreign assistance, the developmental changes in these countries will be compressed into a relatively short period; but the rapid pace, however desirable economically, may have dangerous psychological, social and political consequences.

The surge of large numbers of unskilled migrants to the cities of Asia and African and the ensuing complications in terms of alcoholism, delinquency, and other manifestations
of social or mental disorder on one hand and on the other, the impoverished old people left behind in the countryside who are suddenly deprived of care within the family are different facets of some social process.

The present population trends in developing countries have important economic and social implications which will affect the struggle against hunger and poverty in the world. Substantial economic progress has been made in developing countries in recent years, but the rapid population increase in most cases, absorbed the greater part of it (David 1966). The third World is undoubtedly in a state of very rapid demographic transition. Already there are changes in mortality and mobility in most countries and soon there will be much more widespread fertility decline. Without this, population growth rates of the third world countries remain high or become even higher because there is still scope and hope for further control of mortality (Mountjoy 1980). Rapid population growth has created excessive demands on economic social and medical resources, all of which are proving inadequate in developing countries. Changes are generating new fears and new threats to the mental health of individuals and communities (David 1966).

As the world becomes increasingly interdependent and the economic future of developed countries hinges more and more on success in meeting the problems facing the Third
World, interest in the area of selection and training of human resource in developing countries is heightened. In their search for help in understanding and facing their problems, organisations in developing countries are confronted with the task of skilled manpower training.

The task of producing effective teachers is crucial to the educational system for teaching contributes to the realization of educational goals and thereby human welfare. Teacher training institutions are answerable to the community for the quality of teachers they turnout. This quality depends to a considerable extent upon the teacher training programmes.

Today teacher training programmes fail to create an awareness among the teachers about their role in the process of education. The problems related to teacher education have been pointed out by educationists, philosophers and researchers. In the present decade dissatisfaction among teachers has further increased as is reflected in the views expressed by Bost (1983) that teachers do not feel, that their undergraduate training courses have adequately prepared them to handle disciplinary problems, manage a class and counsel students.

In developing countries many educational reforms, changes and innovations are being introduced to prepare the youth to become more aware and self-reliant. At the same
time great demands are being put upon the teachers to impart the best quality of education. These demands are sometimes too drastic for the teacher to adequately cope with. Thus the teacher becomes emotionally overextended and exhausted exhibits a callous attitude towards students, develops low morale and his mental health status is affected.

The need for skilled manpower in the developing countries is very crucial. Basic education and related skills training are among the fundamental requirements for sustained economic and social development in all sectors. An educated citizenry and a skilled workforce are essential to the efficient functioning of market economies and to the many technical and personal choices leading to changes in productivity, fertility health, nutrition and other basic indicators of development. In the wage economic, education and skills training increase people's opinions for remunerative employment. With educated and trained workers, a wider range of investments become attractive and feasible. Where most adolescents and young adults do not have a basic education, employers pay the price through reduced efficiency, increased supervision or increased on the job training costs. The unskilled workers are in otherwords inefficient and ineffective and those who are skilled are overburdened. This mixture of trained and untrained manpower brings about role conflict, ambiguity, overload,
frustration and can cause workers especially the skilled personnel to quit the job.

1.7 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study is entitled:
"Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health of Teachers in Eastern Province of Kenya".

1.8 OBJECTIVES:
The main objectives of this study are
1. To study the level of Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health of teachers.
2. To study the difference between various groups of teachers on the basis of Sex, School Location (Urban and Rural), Teaching Experience, School Type (Government and Private), Educational Qualification (Training Preparation) and Marital Status in respect of Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health.
3. To ascertain the difference between the more and less burned out teachers in respect of Locus of Control and Mental Health.
4. To find the relationship between the variables of Burnout and Mental Health.
5. To find the relationship between Locus of Control and Mental Health.
6. To construct a scale for measuring the mental health of teachers in the Eastern province of Kenya.

1.9. HYPOTHESES

1.9.1. Hypotheses in Relation to Differential Analysis.

1. There will exist significant differences between Male and Female High School teachers in respect of Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health.

2. There will exist significant differences between Urban and Rural High School teachers in respect of Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health.

3. There will exist significant differences between teachers with

   (1) 0-9 years and 10-19 years of teaching experience.
   (2) 0-9 years and 20-29 years of teaching experience.
   (3) 10-19 years and 20-29 years of teaching experience in respect of Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health.

4. There will exist significant differences between teachers in Government and Private High Schools in respect of Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health.

5. There will exist significant differences between Trained and Untrained High School teachers in respect of Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health.

6. There will exist significant differences between Married and Unmarried High School teachers in respect of Burnout, Locus of Control and Mental Health.
Introduction

7. There will exist significant differences between internally controlled teachers and externally controlled teachers in respect of Burnout and Mental Health.

8. There will exist significant differences between more and less Burned out teachers in respect of Locus of control and Mental Health.

1.9.2 Hypotheses in Relation to Correlation:

1. There exists a negative relationship between the Predictive measures of Burnout and the criterion Variable of Mental Health.

2. There exists a negative correlation between the Predictive measures of Locus of Control and the criterion Variable of Mental Health.

3. There exists a positive relationship between the measures of Burnout and Locus of Control.

4. There exists a positive relationship between Internal Locus of Control and Burnout measures.

5. There exists a negative relationship between Internal Locus of Control and Mental Health.

6. There exists a negative relationship between External Locus of Control and Burnout measures.

7. There exists a positive relationship between External Locus of Control and Mental Health.
1.10 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Kenya being a developing country has recently introduced a new system of education. It is expected that teachers responsibilities will increase since in the new system of education the emphasis is on technical and vocational skills. These added responsibilities may lead to problems of adjustment for teachers with regard to new subjects which students have to learn and which the teachers have also to learn. "With the advent of the 8.4.4 education system the teachers had found themselves faced with the teaching of unfamiliar subjects such as carving, metal and wood work with a possibility of ceramics being introduced. Thus in order to equip the teachers with the requirements of the new system, in service courses had become of major importance" (Gacece 1991, The Chief Advisor of Schools). Also the nature of the subjects i.e. technical and vocational skills as compared to the previous academic skills only will mean more time devoted to teaching students practically, how to use the acquired skills. In otherwords, the new structure of education in Kenya has placed some new demands on the teachers.

The high population growth rate in Kenya and in many other developing countries in Africa and Asia has affected the education system in many ways. There is high enrollment in schools as the population grows coupled with the need for
more educational facilities in terms of buildings and personnel. Thus the quality of schools in terms of facilities available and the quality of teachers in these schools is significant. This quality depends to a considerable extent, upon the teacher training programmes. Apart from developing teaching skills the programmes should be geared to developing a sound and healthy attitude in teachers towards their work. This may be made possible by inculcating such values in student teachers that are directly related to their effective behaviour and providing insight into the duties and moral responsibilities of their role.

This study will therefore prove to be of immense significance in Kenya as it will highlight those factors that have adverse effect on the teachers mental health upon whom the success of the new system of education will depend.

Since this area is relatively unexplored, it is hoped that it will be of intense practical value because of the novelty, relevance and utility in the field of education and it will be of great significance to the Third World countries which are undergoing many upheavals especially in education.