Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
A careful study and exploration of the selected literature for present study is essential to have insight into work already done within the field. In our country, very little research work has been done as compared to other countries in relation to the field. A brief review of related studies in the area of Professionalism and Burnout are presented in this chapter.

I. PROFESSIONALISM

Teaching as a Profession

Teaching as an activity, unique professional, rational and humane activity in which one creatively and imaginatively uses himself and his knowledge to promote the learning and welfare of others. Moreover, Darling –Hammond and Bransford (2005) insist that it is of paramount importance for teachers to clearly understand their roles and responsibilities as professionals in colleges. As teaching is characteristically viewed as a moral enterprise, it becomes a values-led profession where the practitioners are characterized by the behaviour which shows dedication and commitment (Day, 2004). To view teaching as a profession, the teacher’s sense of professionalism should be enhanced and maintained. Teachers face an enormous challenge in performing their duties as they are required to act professionally and especially, to act ethically (SACE, 2002; Day, 2004). They also have moral insight into what is right and wrong.

Though teachers are different from the simple laborers, from training to the characteristics of the duties, they belong to a distinctive group of professions, quite
different from the more elite expert professions commonly identified with professional status. Pratte & Rury (1991) defined teaching as "a craft profession, built on a conscience of craft, rather than a more conventional ideal of professionalism." Ayers (1990) defined teachers as “economically marginal but symbolically significant workers.”

TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM: DETERMINANTS

Teacher commitment

The Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy (2001) defines teacher professionalism as relating to the inculcated behaviour of teachers who commit themselves to the act of teaching by demonstrating the values that the profession is meant to uphold. In supporting this view, Adendorff (2001) contends that professionalism in teaching is best defined and described not in terms of pay or status or qualifications, but by looking at the distinctive kinds of actions and judgments that teachers typically make. Actions that teachers typically exhibit must reflect the skilful way in which they are doing the job because of the special training they have received (Campbell; 2004).

Leithwood (1999) understands commitment as a “psychological state identifying the objects a person identifies with or desires to be involved with”. Adendorff (2001) viewed teacher commitment as showing the extent of loyalty to the profession. As teachers constitute a strategic factor in education system, their commitment is viewed to reflect the competency of teaching professionals (Adu and Alatundum, 2007). Teachers are therefore members of a profession whose commitments are shaped in terms of the ideals of the profession. Marrow (2007) asserts that members of a profession need to take responsibility for their own
professional actions. Supporting this view is Talbert and McLaughlin (1994) who analyses teacher commitment according to the conditions identified with professionalism where strong teacher communities promote shared norms of practice and enhance teacher’s professional commitments.

**Teacher Efficacy**

Studies accessed further identified and intertwined professional commitment with teacher efficacy. This is a bonded characteristic where a teacher is committed to teaching the subject matter and continued professional growth (Talbert and McLaughlin, 1994; Sadker & Sadker (1991) felt that through commitment, teachers need to reflect on their teaching, talk about it and visit one another’s classes for purposes of assistance. In this case, Talbert and McLaughlin (1994) talks of the teachers who must move away from the insular character of classroom teaching. Teacher commitment is closely associated with job satisfaction, morale, motivation and identity (Day, 2004). This indicates factors influencing professional commitment in teaching as a social calling, beliefs and acceptance of goals and values of a profession.

**Sense of Moral and Social obligation**

This means that teacher professionalism has a social calling that forms the basis of the entitlement to practice. Darling–Hammond (2005) explains teacher professionalism by implying that being a professional involves understanding the social and legal obligations of one’s job based on profession wide research and standards of practice. Another research done by Aldrich (1996) reported that professionalism among teachers is seen among members motivated by the highest ideals and dedicated to the service of the public. Supporting this argument is Sadker
and Sadker (1991) who indicated that the issue of professionalism in teaching is vested by the public with trust and responsibility requiring the highest ideals of professional service.

In viewing teaching as characteristically a moral enterprise, studies argued that it would be a mistake to conceptually view the teacher’s behaviour during class as representing all that is involved in the complex business of teaching (Day, 2004; Banks and Mayes, 2001). Their indication is that the actions in and out of the classroom must be considered if we are to obtain a complete description of his professional activity.

Another emphasis is from the DOE (1996) which proclaims teacher professionalism to incorporate values and ethical commitment, and knowledge and skills required for professional practice. Such a kind of professionalism is bounded by the norms of accountability to the profession (Dillon and Maguire, 2001). This good moral behavior is endorsed by Pitout (1993) who maintains that teachers should demonstrate authentic values and qualities required for the profession.

**FACTORS INFLUENCE ON TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM**

Teacher professionalism is considered to be exerting influence from a number of related factors. These are the factors which stem from the conditions surrounding the job. Day (2004) maintained that these factors may enhance or diminish teacher professionalism among teachers. In elaboration, Conley, Bacharack and Bauer (1989:59) as cited in Bull (2005) also maintained that “if teacher performance in schools is to be improved, it is necessary to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances teacher’s sense of professionalism and decrease their job dissatisfaction.” Day (2004) placed teaching in a journey of hope based
upon a set of ideals. It is these ideals that commit teachers to changing and improving the practice as the needs of students and the demands of society change. Upon this journey of hope, research studies revealed that teachers get shocked in their professional ideals and value system when they came up against reactionary and unsupportive school structures (Wilson, 2004).

**Demographic factors**

Research studies indicated that teachers are more likely to exhibit the problem behaviors associated with dissatisfaction in their professionalism. This stems from job insecurity caused by some specific aspects of teachers’ job. The key variables revolve around age, occupational level, and education (Newstrom and Davis, 2002; Lemmer & Badenhorst, 1997; Wilson, 2004; James,).

**Age**

According to Lemmer and Badenhorst (1997) some factors in adult development may affect negatively teacher professionalism. These are the changes in people’s lives resulting from scheduled and unscheduled events which may be traumatic for some teachers. The areas identified include physiological changes as one is getting older, the search for intimacy, interaction with life’s work and the quest for meaning. In their study, Newstrom and Davis (2002) also indicated that as workers grow older, they initially tend to be slightly more satisfied with their jobs. More so, teachers lower their expectations to more realistic levels and adjust themselves better to their work environments. At a later stage, their satisfaction may suffer as they notice that their expectations are not met. This is the self-concept which may be distorted in the teachers when they face the realities of retirement without achieving their expectations.
Occupational level

Studies acknowledged that occupational levels in a school influences attitudes, job satisfaction and performance levels of teachers Butler and Ehrlich (1991) as cited in Bull (2005). They found that position largely determines the job demands and characteristics of the work environment experienced by teachers. Therefore, Newstrom and Davis (2002) maintained that people with higher-level occupations tend to be more satisfied with their jobs. It is expected that they are usually better paid, have better working conditions and hold jobs that make fuller use of their abilities.

Newestrom and Davis (2002) further argued that some managers hold on to an old myth that high satisfaction always leads to high employee performance but this assumption is not correct. In their argument, satisfied workers actually may be high, average or even low-producers, and they will tend to continue the level of performance that previously brought them satisfaction. This approves the fact that high performance contributes to high job satisfaction. The end result is that better performance typically leads to high economic, sociological and psychological rewards. If these results are seen as fair and equitable, then improved satisfaction develops because employees felt that they are receiving rewards in proportion to their performance. It was due to this reason that Tosi, Rizzo and Caroll (1990) claimed that when work is rewarding, satisfaction follows performance which in turn leads to the outcomes valued by the person. Therefore, satisfaction resulting from work has an influence on the human factor, especially individual needs.
Education Level

Aldrich (1996) states that professions are usually concerned with a defined area of knowledge, while entry to them requires specialized training and the possession of universally recognized qualification. The minimum qualification for teachers is matriculation certificate and 3 years of tertiary education (M+3) (Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1993). There are under-qualified teachers who are already in the system but this does not guarantee them any side of teacher professionalism (Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1993). According to Jones et al. (2006), other teachers experience difficulty in the profession because their training has not equipped them with a repertoire of skills to use in the classroom, or because they have developed unhelpful practices that have gone unchecked.

Practice Related Issues in Professionalism.

While the proponents of the teacher professionalism have concerned about the quality of education, the opponents of the idea focused on the principle of equity in a democratic society. Calls for teacher professionalism seem to entail at least the following three issues: (1) Standards in the profession, (2) quality education for many and (3) professional accountability.

1) Standards in the Profession

Historically, the education of the children was the responsibility of parents or, at least, local and state governments, not that of federal government. Without any national regulation on education, there was no standard in educating the children. Even after the passage of mandatory school attendance laws by many state governments, the educational standards are different by districts. Because of the limited power on education by the government, it has been hard to set up any
national standard in education, either. However, without the national norms for education, it’s hard to set national standards for teachers and to measure whether the institutions met the educational needs of the children.

2) Quality vs. Quantity

Since public education is providing educational services to a large body of clients, there have always been shortages of qualified teachers. The educational authorities usually followed some easy expedients to meet such a demand, such as resorting to emergency credentials other than accredited university teacher education programs, increasing class size, or hiring unqualified teachers. The history of education in the state may be characterized as an effort to accomplish two goals: provide equal educational opportunity and attain excellence in student achievement. While the professionalization of teachers is a method to seek a quality education, the provision of quality educational services to the all levels of students should be pursued, too.

3) Bureaucratic vs. Professional Accountability

With a top-down imposition of change in education, bureaucratic accountability can be asked to the superintendent or the principals of the institutions. However, teacher professionalization will ultimately entail some questions of efficient management of colleges and a possible tyranny of the experts, i.e. professional teachers (Firestone & Bader, 1991). Even after the professionalization of teachers, the nature of public education might be fundamentally different from medicine or law. The outcomes of successful education cannot be measured within a short period of time and professional accountability to each teacher might be
difficult due to the number of teachers involved and variety of other factors in education.

Marrow (2007) contends that there is increasing de-professionalization of the teaching profession. He felt that professionalism tends to be weak among teachers because the criteria of a true profession are not completely met. The idea is that the employer is not doing enough to develop and maintain the standard of teacher professionalism. However, Marrow, further maintained that teachers also perceive and understand themselves as exploited workers. This has had the effect of them being dissatisfied about their status and remuneration. Using the name profession does not ensure that professional status has been achieved. This is although according to the hierarchical structuring of occupations within our society, the professions occupy the top position in terms of prestige and salaries.

Ololube (2007) emphasized that salary increases and benefits are basic needs that might keep the teaching profession intact. Another school of thought is of the opinion that teachers are not truly committed to their profession (Bull, 2005). Supporting this view is Steyn & Van Wyk (1999) who contend that there is a perception that teachers are lazy, unprofessional and uncommitted who only come to school to receive their salaries at the end of the month. These views are disputed by Ololube (2007) who challenges the working conditions of teachers as unhealthy.

These are the situations where teachers felt neglected by their employer and where their voices are not heard. Situations that are not conducive to teaching disconnect teachers from their professional competence and commitment to the ideals of service that characterize teaching as a profession Marrow (2007). Ololube (2007) maintained that educational policies and administration, material rewards and
advancement impact negatively on teaching performance. However, Marrow (2007) pointed out that teachers deserve better working conditions and more prestige.

**Culture**

Jones et al. (2006) mentioned that the culture of different schools varies. He argued that some schools are supportive and develop a collegiate professional culture in which teachers discuss to improve matters of professionalism. On the other hand, some schools have a more closed culture in which it is hard for an individual teacher to ask for or to get support. This is the work situation which Cohen et al. (1997) regarded as simply a job and not a vocation. Support and monitoring should be provided by those with a line-management responsibility for the individual teachers. Jones (2006) further understood the institution with good staff development and performance management policies and process to make easier for both the line-manager and the individual teacher to embark on a programme of support.

**Professional Autonomy**

Professional autonomy is advocated as the rights of practitioners to design and shape the types of learning and continuous professional development activities they identify through evaluation and analysis of their practice (Campbell et al. 2004). Attesting to this definition is Dillon and Maguire (2001) who asserts that teachers need to derive a feeling of responsibility and control over their work as professionals. Robb (2007) maintained that teachers have traditionally been deprived their right to have input into curriculum decisions. Hence Bush and Middlewood (2005) suggest that teachers should be involved in decision – making and own the outcome of discussions.
According to Robb (2007), autonomy is one of the key features of professionalism as it allows how one does one’s work. Teachers have a moral obligation to do the right thing and should not be forced because they are professionals. Medicine and Law are professions that tend to have greater autonomy than does the teaching profession. This is unlike teaching profession where teachers do not have autonomy in their work. This is shown by the introduction of policies which appear to allow little autonomy and ownership by the teachers even to the level of implementation (Campbell, 2004).

Bagwandeen & Louw (1993) felt it essential for teachers to enjoy a high level of autonomy. They insist that autonomy would make teachers free from the bureaucratic system thereby exercising their duties without any interference and control. Supporting this argument is Coutts (1995) who asserts that autonomy is not necessarily a way of avoiding accountability. He accepts teachers as usually responsible and dedicated persons with a high sense of integrity. Their participation will pave way for them to negotiate collectively in matters related to welfare, conditions of service and all matters affecting the effectiveness of teachers (Bagwandeen & Louw, 1993).

II. BURNOUT

Herbert Freudenberger first used the term burnout to describe the physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion, in addition to the detachment and absence of professionalism some people experience. Professionals in the fields of education, social work, and law enforcement tend to show the highest levels of burnout. A person experiencing burnout suffers from a sense of emotional and physical depletion and no longer believes that the pressures or stressors from work are
tolerable. The term "burnout" was initially a very elusive concept because there was no standard definition of it and different people used the term to mean very different things; thus, there was not always a solution for it. There was a wide variety of opinions about what it was and what could be done about it (Maslach et al., 2001).

Despite Freudenberger being known as the pioneer of burn-out to social psychology, it was actually Maslach and her colleagues who were credited years later, in 1986, with the development of burnout as a scientific concept (Cox et al., 1993). Maslach and Jackson defined burnout as physical, emotional and intellectual exhaustion, including physical burnout, chronic fatigue, helplessness, hopelessness, negative ego development and negative attitudes towards occupation, life and other people (Tumkaya, 2006). A burnout risk emerges if occupational demands are higher than the existing conditions and resources (Tumkaya, 2006). Findings suggest that burnout can lead to deterioration in the quality or service provided. It appears to be a factor in job turnover, absenteeism and low morale. Furthermore, burnout seems to be correlated with various self reported indexes of personal disfunction, including physical exhaustion, insomnia, increased use of alcohol and drugs, and marital and family problems (Maslach et al., 1997).

In the initial burnout article, Freudenberg (1974) chronicled the general circumstances leading to burnout and its symptoms among professional staff, chiefly including overwork and emotional strain. Christina Maslach’s early research (1976, 1978) was also focused on the “helping” professions, using interviews and observation to help identify the characteristics of burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Both Maslach and Freudenberger identified important burnout characteristics, including exhaustion, distancing from others, and a drop in effectiveness, that
became the dimensions of the most widely accepted burnout model. The innovation from Maslach was the firm establishment of a construct of burnout including those core dimensions. Through the 1970s and early 1980s the burnout concept became more clearly defined, including its codification in the Maslach Burnout Inventory in 1981 (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). The introduction of a reliable survey instrument enabled the assessment of burnout in a variety of organizational and national settings in the years that followed (Angerer, 2003).

The interaction of personal and of organizational factors causing burnout (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001), and research into the operational antipode of burnout, engagement, have been areas of emphasis (Kanwar, Singh, & Kodwani, 2009). Burnout causes people to suffer emotionally, physically, and mentally. Sources from the early 1970s classify burnout as a subject that requires focus, inquiry, and investigation (Fruedenberger, 1974; Gold, 1984; Maslach, 1982; Veninga & Spradley, 1981). The terms stress and burnout, although often used synonymously, are not the same concept (Gold, 1984). Stress can be a component of burnout, and burnout can be a result of stress if the causes of stress are not resolved. Some experts consider burnout the last step in a succession of fruitless attempts to handle a range of harmful and stressful conditions.

Maslach & Leiter (1997), pioneers in the study of burnout, alleged that work commitments and obligations, as well as workplace climate, could have a tremendous impact on a person’s susceptibility to burnout. Maslach (1982) lists six sources of burnout: work overload, lack of control, insufficient reward, unfairness, breakdown of a sense of community, and value conflict. Administrators can have a significant impact on the presence of burnout factors. Supervisors must realize and
understand their role in sustaining and maintaining a healthy work environment and climate.

The most common characteristics of burnout are fatigue, feeling drained and lack of enthusiasm. Unable to see their accomplishments, burnout victims often feel taken advantage of by co-workers and administration (Grayson & Alvarez, 2008). Further symptoms include helplessness, bleakness, indifference, irritability, anguish, apathy, feeling trapped, dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and pessimism. Gold (1984) reported that feelings of depression, emptiness, or sadness are similar to the sensation of burnout although burnout syndrome includes anger. Saari and Judge (2004) contend that many symptoms of burnout are reoccurring instances of the flu, constant headaches, physical exhaustion, and diminished sense of self worth, domestic issues, substance abuse and lack of concentration. Other physical symptoms include stomach cramps, nausea, migraines, and heart palpitations (Bradley, Parr, & Lan, 2003).

**Gender Differences and Burnout**

Much research has been completed on the topic of burnout and its effects on a wide range of professions. However, a vast majority of this research does not examine what effect(s) gender may play in this process. Maslach and Jackson (1985) found that females in general tend to focus more on caring and nurturing their patients as opposed to their male counterparts and may actually be better at “people-work”. This finding seems to suggest that because females give more of themselves emotionally, they could be more prone to burnout. Similarly, Peltzer et al. (2003) did find that female physicians experienced higher levels of emotional exhaustion when compared to their male counterparts. Other research has also supported the
assumption that females do indeed develop stronger emotional ties with their patients than do males (Gold 1985; Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982b). Stenlund et al. (2007) suggested that total pay and domestic workload could be important causes of burnout specifically for women. Women often have a “second job” when they return home, especially if they have a family. And while it is not always the case, it is usually the female that tends to do a majority of the household chores such as cooking and laundry.

In athletic research, Caccese and Mayerberg (1984) found that female coaches reported significantly higher ratings on both the Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment subscales than do male coaches. However, the researchers found no differences in the depersonalization subscale. In this study, females were also found to be more frustrated by their job and to feel that they were not accomplishing anything worthwhile. However, results of the study also indicated that overall, neither gender was excessively burned out when compared to other professions.

**Teacher and burnout**

Originally, the investigation of burnout focused on a variety of people-oriented professions, such as nurses, physicians, lawyers, social workers, child care workers, police officers, counselors, and probation officers which were found to be inherently stressful (Dale & Weinberg, 1990). A common theme of subsequent research studies and articles revolved around teacher burnout (e.g., Adams, 1988; Austin, 1981; Cedoline, 1982; Figone, 1986). The work environment of teachers is typically characterized by long hours, excessive expenditure of mental and emotional energy, as well as expectations from principals and parents. The work
environment, according to Saari and Judge (2004), relates considerably to burnout, and a healthy climate in middle and secondary schools promotes high teacher morale. A study of the relationship between school climate and teacher burnout found that teachers’ stress levels could be a key factor contributing to an entire school’s psychological climate (Grayson & Alvarez, 2008). Teachers working in an environment that encourages their self-actualization and fosters their self-esteem experience high levels of physical and mental satisfaction. Mertler (2002) maintained that low morale or expressed dissatisfaction generated by a small number of teachers has the ability to affect the morale of co-workers, students, and possibly, the entire organizational climate.

Teachers report that lack of encouragement and poor working conditions contribute to feelings of burnout (Grayson & Alvarez, 2008). Burnout can build or result if the person experiencing burnout lacks a stress-relieving outlet or a support system (Gold, 1984). Student behavior and discipline issues have been identified as prime factors in burnout (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007). In addition to the increased pressure from administration, the consensus amongst teachers is that administrators expect faculty members to work at a grueling, mechanical pace, sometimes to the point of exhaustion (Patterson, Collins, & Abbott, 2004). Through analysis of the state of the current education system, research revealed several social and organizational sources of stress and burnout for teachers (Manassero, et al., 2006; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Dramatic changes in society and substantial education reform considerably increased the complexity and demands of a teacher’s role in their environment. Educators must shoulder burdens that add to their job dissatisfaction, stress, burnout, and health issues.
Organizational burnout factors

Organizational variables that have been recognized as causing burnout in teachers are role ambiguity, role conflict, work overload, lack of decision-making voice, and lack of principal and colleague feedback and support (Cedoline, 1982; Ursprung, 1986), as well as class size (Brenner & Bentall, 1984; Cedoline, 1982; Malanowski & Wood, 1984). For teaching to hold meaning, teachers should (a) receive professional growth opportunities, (b) receive encouragement in demonstrating confidence in their teaching abilities, and (c) believe that the work they are doing has a positive impact on their students, and allows teachers to find meaning in their work and increases self-efficacy to decrease burnout levels.

Many believe that university faculty have lower degrees of stress and burnout than workers in the public and private sector because they have opportunities not typically available to non-academic employees. Faculty can get tenure and sabbatical opportunities and have flexibility in which they can generate grants to buy out teaching obligations and generate additional support for their work (Lackritz, 2004). A public university study conducted by Lackritz (2004) revealed that burnout is clearly a problem in academia, with approximately 20% of all faculty members feeling the highest levels of burnout. Higher education instructors are candidates for burnout because of their relationship with large numbers of students, staff and administration (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix, 1994). Academic burnout, which is defined as an emotional phenomenon associated with high achievement in the academic role, is experienced across all disciplines (Talbot, 2000).

Professors who experience negative emotions at work and who have lost interest in their jobs are likely to be less caring and experience emotional
exhaustion. Professors experiencing depersonalization likely develop negative attitudes toward work and students, dehumanize their students and ultimately, care less about their immediate work environment. When teachers begin to undergo a reduced sense of accomplishment, they experience a loss of sense of efficacy at work (Teven, 2007). The consequences of burnout in higher education include some form of withdrawal behavior or the faculty member may leave the university to enter another line of work. The withdrawal may be subtle, whereas the individual may remain on the faculty payroll, but retreat psychologically from the work environment, making only contributions necessary to hold a position. In extreme cases, disruptive behavior may be evident (Seller & Pearson, 1984-1985).

Lackritz (2004) found that teaching load and number of students taught directly correlate with burnout. Talbot (2000) studied burnout among college nursing faculty members. Of the three dimensions of burnout, faculty members reported experiencing high to moderate levels of emotional exhaustion, low feelings of personal accomplishment and minimal affects on the depersonalization dimension. Singh, Mishra, and Kim (1998), investigated the effects of intrinsic motivation to conduct research in relation to burnout among higher education faculty. They found a positive relationship between perceived lack of research rewards and burnout and a negative relationship between intrinsic motivation to conduct research and professionalism with burnout. Blix et al. (1994) examined burnout among 400 randomly selected tenure-track university teachers and found that burnout correlated positively with stress-related health problems, less productivity at work, inability to manage work stress well and job change consideration.
The association between burnout and unmet professional expectations has been noted, and the affective emotional outcomes associated with stalled advancement are frustration and disappointment. The degree of frustration at work has been related to the effort required to perform in comparison to rewards received; an effort-reward imbalance leads to emotional strain. Bakker, Killmer, Siegrist and Schaufeli (2000) measured the amount of intrinsic effort and extrinsic effort required to perform at work in relation to burnout. Intrinsic effort includes factors related to self-generated Type-A strain, such as competitiveness, irritability, and a need for control that can be measured and combined to provide a measure of frustration experienced in the workplace. These Type-A mental distractions, reflecting a need to maintain control, were found to moderate burdens of work (extrinsic efforts) and feelings of burnout. The primary focus of the research, that an imbalance of extrinsic efforts and rewards is associated with burnout, was also supported. Research assessing the relationship between work stress and health outcomes has found significant relationships.

The study found that frustration mediated the impact of stressful conditions at work, potentially contributing to a vicious cycle like that noted in the interaction of environment and burnout in other studies (Zohar, 1997; Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke, 2004). Overloaded workers experiencing a degree of emotional exhaustion at work may become frustrated, an emotion that further drains their energy resources, contributing to additional exhaustion and depression.

**Burnout in Sports and Physical Education**

These likely antecedents include pressure to win, administrative and parental interference or indifference, disciplinary problems, long hours spent planning,
practicing, traveling and recruiting, continuous and often emotionally volatile interactions with players, and pressure from media coverage (Caccese & Mayerberg, 1984; Kelly & Gill, 1993; Weinberg & Gould, 1999). The dual role responsibilities of being both teacher and coach may create considerable role conflict and ambiguity, which have also been linked to burnout (Capel et al., 1987; Graf, 1992; Hunt, 1984). This being said, it is important to note that the majority of early research on burnout in sport psychology is with athletes and dual role teacher coaches at the high school and collegiate level (Collins, 2002).

Teacher-coaches may experience inter role conflict as they attempt to satisfy the requirements of the different positions. Conflicts occur between coaching responsibilities and teaching responsibilities. The coach must prove competence in terms of wins and losses. The teacher, however, is not held accountable when a student fails to learn the academic material (Figone, 1986). Individuals holding these positions often see coaching as their primary responsibility with winning as a major goal. Graf (1992) cited that the teacher/coach is often fired not due to poor performance in the classroom, but because of a losing record on the playing field. When one individual occupies the position of both teacher and coach, the time demands of both positions create a great deal of stress (Figone, 1986) found that role conflict and role ambiguity were the variables consistently related to burnout in high school coaches.

Burnout is a syndrome of exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment in contrast to engagement with work that is characterized by energy, involvement, and effectiveness. Burnout is often associated with professions that have a high level of stress. Those in the athletic realm are certainly
exposed to stress and pressure. Burnout has been characterized by psychological and physiological symptom. Early recognition of the onset of burnout and the ability to recognize the factors that contribute to burnout can aid in reducing the negative impact of burnout. Early detection can prevent damage to an individual, a coach, a student-athlete, and the athletic program from occurring.

**Conclusion**

The improved status of physical education resulted in increased funding, resources and professional development support. The principle in this study became interested in making the physical education program the best in the state and supported the teachers in their efforts to improve their curriculum and their instructional practice. Despite the fact that college faculty members represent a group vulnerable to burnout, few studies have focused on the occupational stress experience of this group. Of the studies previously published, most are limited in scope. There are still a few unanswered questions regarding teacher professionalism and their burnout.

Reduced levels of burnout within a college system not only benefit teachers, but also develop professionalism. Physical Education faculty in affiliated colleges located in rural and urban areas of different universities in Kerala state are no less susceptible to teacher burnout. Uncovering the factors contributing to professional standards and burnout may supply information that is essential to developing action plans and interventions. The goal of this research is to contribute empirical research to the fields of worksite promotion in higher education, as well as to develop relevant worksite education strategies for this population.