CHAPTER - III

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

3.1.0 Need for Review of Researches and Literature

The major purpose of this review of the available literature is to determine the significant facts which are essentially related to the problem under investigation. For the knowledge emerging from the investigations would enable the investigator to avoid unintentional duplication, as well as it would also provide the understanding and insight for development of a logical framework for the present problem under investigation. Moreover, studies that have been done would provide for formulating research hypothesis and indicating what needs to be done will form the basis for the justification of the study under investigation.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive and clear picture of the related studies and to show how the present study contributes in extending the knowledge in the area under study. With this in view, the investigator intends to present the literature of the review in the following way. Since the study involves three variables i.e. meaning in life, burnout and work orientation, the investigator has planned to review the existing studies under these three heads dividing them into studies in West and studies in East.

3.1.1 Research studies on Meaning in Life in West

The relationship between meaninglessness or scores on the low end of the continuum of the purpose in life test and unsuccessful living has been validated in studies that have shown strong relationships between low purpose/meaning in life scores and deviant behaviours such as psychiatric disorder, delinquency, drug addiction and alcoholism. Psychiatric populations tend to score significantly lower on the meaning in life than non-patient population (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964; 1969; Yarnell, 1971). Pearson and
Sheffield (1974) in a study of 144 British patients with the purpose/meaning in life test and the Eydenck personality inventory (Form-A) found that highly neurotic and socially introverted patients had lower purpose/meaning in life score.

Familetti (1975) noted that delinquent high school boys scored significantly lower on the purpose/meaning in life than non-delinquent boys. Among adults, Black and Gregson (1973) reported that recidivists scored significantly lower than did first time offenders. On the other hand normals scored significantly higher than both first time offenders and recidivists.

Shean and Fechtman (1971) found significantly lower purpose/meaning in life scores among college students who were regular users of Marijuana as compared to non-drug users. Likewise, Padleford (1974) studied high school students and discovered that students with low scores on purpose/meaning in life had significantly higher level of drug involvement than those who scored high in purpose/meaning in life. Parallel findings have been reported with alcoholism. Alcoholics tended to view their lives without any meaning or sense of purpose (Jacobson and Ritter, 1977).

The other end of the continuum in the PIL scores is represented by meaningfulness and it is Frankl's contention that this concept is a reliable criterion of mental health. Kotchen (1960) found a significant positive correlation between meaning orientation and mental health, the criteria of which were responsibility, uniqueness, courage, self-affirmation, faith-commitment, transcendence and world view. Crumbaugh (1968) also found the highest PIL scores among well motivated and successful professional and business population.

Crumbaugh et al (1970) found that a high degree of purpose and meaning in life is both possessed and needed for
success in a religious order.

Crandal and Rasmussen (1975) study on the relationship between PIL and values in college students revealed that (a) low scores on the PIL were associated with the values of pleasure, excitement and comfort, supporting Frankl's contention that a hedonistic approach to life tends to be self-defeating and tends to promote an existential vacuum; (b) high scores on the PIL was associated with the value of salvation, confirming the results of Crumbaugh et.al (1970); (c) PIL scores were found to correlate highly with intrinsic religious orientation and not with extrinsic orientation, suggesting that a genuine intrinsic religious orientation helps to foster greater meaning in life, even among normal range of lay people.

Butler and Carr (1968) studied the relationship between meaning in life and social action and found the more socially active students scoring higher on the PIL but the difference were not significant.

Doerris (1970) on the other hand reported that students with high PIL scores belonged to more campus organisations and the relationship was clearly significant.

Rude (1981) found that male adolescents with low PIL scores differed significantly from their peers in beliefs of capacity, opportunity and identification and they also had significantly lower positive peer ratings.

In relation to PIL and sex the evidence is inconclusive. Butler and Carr (1968), Doerris (1970) and Padleford (1974) found that females scored higher on PIL than males. In contrast, Pearson and Sheffield (1975) reported that males scored higher on PIL than females. However, most of the research has indicated no significant differences between males and females. (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964; Meier and Edwards, 1974; Jacobson and Ritter, 1977)
No substantial relationships are reported between the PIL and educational level (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964), intelligence (Yarnell, 1971). However, Butler and Carr (1968) found that Blacks scored significantly higher than Whites; whereas Padelford (1974) reported that Blacks and Mexican-Americans had lower scores than Whites.

There is very little information available on the relationship between meaning in life and job-satisfaction or work motivation but none on the relationship between meaning in life and work orientation. Sargent (1972) studied the relationship between job-satisfaction, job-involvement and purpose in life and the results showed partial confirmation of the relationship between job-satisfaction and meaning in life. A second study by Sargent (1973) considered the relationship between work motivation and Frankl's will to meaning but found no relationship between work motivation and the PIL.

A study by Ruffin (1982) gave inconclusive results regarding the hypothesis of a relationship between meaning in life and job-satisfaction. The PIL was significantly related to satisfaction with certain aspects of the job but not to other aspects and, the significant relationships were not consistent across groups. Need for further research was indicated by the author.

**Klinger's Research on Meaning**

Klinger (1977) in his study of college students corroborated the findings of Crumbaugh and Maholick (1964) without using the PIL.

In Klinger's study those who feel that their lives are less meaningful than average are also more depressed ($r = .46$, $P < .001$). The problem of extreme meaninglessness (the existential vacuum of Frankl) seem to affect 20% of his student group. This agrees with Frankl's (1969) estimate that
about 20% of patients who come for psychiatric help have problems related to meaninglessness.

In his study Klinger asked college students (N=320) on three campuses how meaningful they regarded their present life to be. 67% of respondents checked the two categories - 'very meaningful' and 'full of meaning'. 138 of them were asked to describe in their own words what it was that made their lives meaningful. The overwhelming majority of answers listed either human relationships of some kind, or goals that lay in the future or the feelings and activities associated with them. Most of the students (89%) mentioned a personal relationship as something that contributes meaning to their lives. Other things they mentioned were future goals; people sacrifice so that they may finish their education, so that they may better the lives of their loved ones. This questionnaire was open-ended.

3.1.1.1.a Research studies on Meaning in Life in East

Sultana (1983) studied the effect of purpose/meaning in life on adjustment of adolescents in Bangladesh and found the following results.

(a) Effect of purpose/meaning in life on Home adjustment

The higher the purpose/meaning in life score, the lesser was the adjustment problem. In terms of mean problem scores, high PIL group had least adjustment problems whereas low PIL group had considerably high rate of adjustment problems.

(b) Effect of purpose/meaning in life on health adjustment

The result shows that the higher the meaning in life scores, lesser was the adjustment problems. Except the high PIL group, within each PIL group, girls seem to be better adjusted to their health than boys. In the high PIL group adolescent boys seem to experience less adjustment problems related to their health than the adolescent girls.
(c) Effect of purpose/meaning in life on social adjustment

Results indicated that higher PIL groups were socially better adjusted than the lower PIL groups. Within each PIL group, adolescent boys experienced less problems in their social adjustment than adolescent girls.

(d) Effect of purpose/meaning in life on emotional adjustment

Result suggested that, adolescents with higher PIL, were comparatively better adjusted to their emotion than adolescents with lower PIL. Adolescents with high PIL were capable of taking a stand against any unfavourable and emotion arousing situation. They were also capable of finding meaning in unavoidable situations and even in sufferings. In emotion arousing situations, adolescents with low PIL faced problems in dealing with the situation. In unavoidable and unfavourable situations, adolescents with low PIL could neither take a stand against unfavourable situation nor could they find meaning in their unavoidable situation.

(e) Effect of purpose/meaning in life on educational adjustment

Significant differences between different PIL groups indicate that Bangladesh adolescents with higher PIL were better adjusted to their education than adolescent with lower PIL. PIL means search for meaning in life in terms of one's works, experiences and attitudes. Actualization of these values makes a person unique and different from other persons. A person with high PIL score tends to be more creative. In the academic setting, he wants to make some creative and useful contribution that will show his uniqueness and individuality.

(f) Effect of purpose/meaning in life on total adjustment

Results suggest that Bangladesh adolescents with high PIL were overall better adjusted than the other PIL groups. A high PIL makes the person oriented toward actualisation
of his creative, experiential and attitudinal values. According to Rogers (1970), the adolescent has the capacity for awareness of his potential which makes him capable of an adaptive and creative living. An adolescent with a high PIL has the capacity of choice, he can be open to all aspects of his experience, which originates within as well as that which originates without. He has the capacity for becoming fully functioning in an open relationship with himself and with life. A barrier between one's experience and one's awareness makes one oriented towards a low PIL which may lead to maladjustment.

In a comparative study of four equally distributed disabled and non-disabled groups of 100 Indian sample, Gon and Mehta (1982) found a trend toward high PIL. All four groups differed significantly on item analysis of PIL. But no significant difference was found in PIL among both the sexes.

In another investigation on an Indian sample, Gonsalvez and Gon (1983) studied the degree and pattern of meaning in life (PIL). The sample was consisted of four psychopathological normal groups. Their finding shows that each of the psychopathological groups experienced a significantly lower degree of meaning in life (PIL) than each of the normal population.

"A study of meaning in life, stress and burnout in teachers of secondary schools in Calcutta" conducted by Misra (1986) suggest the following notable findings:

The lowest score in meaning in life of Calcutta teachers was 55, indicating that none of the teachers perceived his/her life as completely meaningless. The life satisfaction of Calcutta teachers was quite high according to their own perception. Only 1.45% of teachers perceive their lives as meaningless and quite a small percentage of 10.14% regard their lives to be 'slightly' meaningful. Almost half the
sample, nearly 47% regarded their lives to be 'very' meaningful.

However, the level of meaning in life of the teachers was lower than the mean meaning in life (PIL) scores of normal population of other available studies. It was in fact lower than the mean meaning in life (PIL) score of handicapped Indian sample of Mehta's study (1982). The cut-off score of 112 for the high meaning in life group, was according to the norm of Crumbaugh and Maholick (1969), just indicative of definite purpose and meaning in life, as score below that is regarded as an indication of indecisiveness.

The finding suggests that no significant difference exists in the level of meaning in life of male and female teachers belonging to different age groups.

It was also found that Calcutta teachers derive meaning in life primarily from human relationships, friendly and familiar interaction and affective experiences.

Regarding the sources of meaning in life the teachers rated 'job success' as the highest and religion as the weakest, but 'professional growth' came quite low in the hierarchy. Teachers derive meaning from varied sources of life.

Many teachers derive satisfaction, pride, enjoyment and meaning from various aspects and conditions of the work of teaching.

It was also found that the teachers who came from lower end of the middle class consider job security as an important source of meaning.

The positive significant association between meaning in life and sources of meaning in teaching indicated that teachers who have a high meaning in life derive meaning from many sources. It points to the importance of work in one's
life. A person who derives a high level of meaning from his work is also likely to find his existence more meaningful.

3.2.0 General overview on Burnout Research

Research on burnout is of recent origin. Prior to research in this area, writing on burnout made their appearance from 1970 onwards. Many books and articles have been published on the subject but most of them are descriptive, based on author's personal experiences or narratives of burnt out workers. Systematic research on burnout started by Freudenberger (1974).

In one of the earliest studies, Freudenberger 1975 found that, by having a slower pace of life, there is less physical stress from the environment, thus less fatigue and less susceptibility to burnout. The more jobs in rural areas that permit worker autonomy and thus both the type of work as well as level of stress varies from urban to rural areas. The most salient factor in making burnout less frequent in rural areas was the slower rate of social change and the lower probability of encountering role alternatives.

Warnath and Sheton (1976) studied the burnout of counsellors and suggested the following findings: Burnout is especially noticeable in orientation to one's work. It becomes more and more difficult to get out of bed and go back to work - everyday. The familiar burnout syndrome includes more frequent - than - usual day dreaming, continual fantasies about getting away from it all, and chronic watching. Resistance to work may take the form of postponing business appointments, resisting to phone calls and meetings, avoiding travel necessary to make client contacts or using travel to avoid office decisions, walking through department stores or the park during working hours or for extended lunch hours, and unusual absenteeism and tardiness.

A study on sources of stress and burnout in professionals of child care work, Mattingly (1977) got that
high emotional involvement leads to burnout and the indicators of burnout are dehumanization, ill health, fatigue and illness. He did not report any organisational factor for it.

Burnout is intensified by alienation and stress and is most common in rapidly changing times, especially when people feel trapped and unable to control events about them. It appears through a growing separation an estrangement between the worker and his work; between the person and community. The person may maintain the role and the expectations, but the level of performance declines and enthusiasm wanes - is the finding of Garte and Rosenblum (1978).

The earliest statistical treatment of burnout is the Berkley planning Associates' (1977) study on child abuse workers containing analyses ranging from descriptive through multiple regression and discriminant analysis. (1) Among worker characteristics age and supervision responsibilities were significantly related to burnout, i.e. older workers and workers with supervisory responsibility were less likely to burnout. (2) Projects with large case-load size and formalised rule observation were more likely to have burned out workers. (3) Burnout was significantly related to workers' termination from jobs, but not absenteeism. A multiple regression analysis supervision responsibility and case-load size contributed a significant portion of the variance in burnout.

Lamb (1979) studied the staff burnout among the workers working in hospitals. His finding suggests that younger workers especially those under thirty - are far more likely to burnout as are workers with less experience. This may be explained by the fact that age and experience seem to encourage tolerance and more measured expectations from life and probably a longer time orientation to compensate for immediate frustrations. Gann (1979) focussed on individual personality characteristics believed to be significant for understanding burnout. Burnout was not found to be identical
with job dissatisfaction; age, rather than length of experience on job was most strongly related to burnout; high ego level of social service workers were more positively oriented toward clients; and the interaction of ego level and job variables improved prediction of burnout for only its emotional exhaustion component.

3.2.1 Research studies on Teacher Burnout in West

Researches on teacher burnout have appeared from 1974 onwards. In one of the earliest studies Metz (1979) compared teachers who identified themselves as either professionally burnt out or professionally renewed. More male teachers between ages 30 to 49 were self-categorised in the burnt out group with more females of the same age in the renewed group.

Colasudro (1981) investigated the magnitude of burnout as measured by self-diagnosis and an established validating inventory in 213 public school teachers in San Diego. 16% were rated burnt out by the inventory whereas 52% reported themselves burnt out. Burnout was equally frequent at all ages but age group 30-39 was over-represented. The relationship of the variables of sex, grade assignment, ethnic status, marital status, number of children, educational qualifications, tenure, hours devoted to teaching, teaching experience, time or current assignment and percentage of time spent on different duties was not statistically significant to the measured burnout and self-reported burnout. Colasudro concludes from his findings that the problem seems to arise more from high self-expectations than from the demands of the organisation and other extrinsic conditions. As professionals dedicated to high expectations for themselves and their students, teachers may develop a guilt feelings about an inability to deal with today's children and demands of the society resulting in a sense of low personal and professional worth.

Arrenich (1982) investigated factors influencing burnout in 350 North Dakota public school teachers with the MBI.
Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation Frequency and personal Accomplishment frequency were found to be the major contributors to the syndrome.

Bruno (1987) investigated the relationship of organisational climate to the burnout of public school principals and teachers in New Jersey. The result of the study indicated that many of the principals and teachers were experiencing moderate to high levels of burnout, especially in the area of personal accomplishment. The relationship of climate to the burnout of teachers was found to have no significant relationship on any of the burnout variables.

Devorah (1968) studied prevalence of burnout among secondary school teachers in state religious high schools and state secular high schools. The result of the study showed that 74% of teachers of religious high schools were burned outs and 51% teachers of state secular high schools were burned outs. But when we consider only those teachers in this sample who have 6 or more years of experience, 44% of the teachers in state secular schools gave evidence of high burnout, compared with 86% in the religious schools.

Cooper (1986) investigated the factors associated with burnout among special education administrators. The findings of this study indicate that burnout does exist for special education administrators in New York. A considerable number of individuals in the sampled population (39.6%) were in potential danger of burning out and 13.5% experienced full burnout.

Rhoades (1987) examined the specific impact that teacher burnout had upon leadership behaviour within the classrooms of the colleges in the Colorado state system of community colleges. The findings indicated that emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment burnout impacted leadership behaviour and burnout did exist in various demographic areas. The demographic areas were college size, geographic location, experience in the teaching
profession, experience in a specific college, credit hours taught and subject area taught.

Crews (1983) examined the relationship between teacher burnout and organisational design in 306 teachers in North Carolina with the MBI and an organisational Design survey developed by the investigator. Blacks experienced less emotional exhaustion than whites. Academic teachers experienced more depersonalisation than vocational teachers. Those who were in graduate schools reported more personal accomplishment than those not in school. Those reporting dissatisfaction with salary and those who said they would not teach again, if given a chance, experienced more emotional exhaustion, more depersonalisation and less personal accomplishment.

Snapiro (1987) studied the relationship of teacher burnout to individual environmental variables of 464 regular and special education teachers in 42 elementary schools of Pennsylvania. Findings of the investigation suggest that a significant level of burnout was present within the sample, significant positive relationships were found between burnout and the variables of perceived environmental stress and locus of control in others and perceived environmental stress and locus of control in combination contributed to a significant level of the criterion variable burnout. A significant difference was found in the level of burnout experienced by males and females with females reporting significantly less frequent and less intense depersonalisation. Support was not found for the predicted relationships between burnout and the variables of age, years of teaching experience and teaching assignment.

Mcintyre (1981) investigated the relationship of burnout and locus of control with Nowicki - Strickland Adult scale (1973) in 469 special education teachers. Locus of control was significantly correlated with both the dimensions of emotional exhaustion, frequency of personal accomplishment and intensity of depersonalisation.
Metz (1979) reports that males appeared to be more burnt-out than females. The same finding was reported by Arrenich, 1981; McIntyre, 1981; Schwab, 1981 and Shapiro, 1987. However Colasudro (1981) did not find any difference between the scores.

Age was found to be negatively correlated with 30-45 age group being especially vulnerable to it - (Metz, 1979; Colasudro, 1981; McIntyre, 1981; Schwab, 1981; Farber, 1982). The 30s may be a period when the individual begins to suffer feelings of unrest, dissatisfaction, questioning about career choice and disillusionment. The younger teachers perhaps still retain their idealism, enthusiasm and optimism whereas the older ones are likely to have made peace with themselves and have accepted the situation.

Schwab et.al (1986) in their study found that where high levels of role conflict and role ambiguity were present, teachers experienced high levels of emotional exhaustion and fatigue as well as negative attitudes toward students. For these two aspects of burnout, role conflict accounted for the largest portion of explained variance. In regard to feelings of personal accomplishment, role ambiguity had a significant effect.

3.2.1.a Research studies on Teacher Burnout in East

Misra (1986) investigated the stress and burnout in secondary school teachers in Calcutta. Her findings suggest that the burnout of teachers lower than the American norm in two subscales of the MBI, the emotional exhaustion subscale and depersonalisation subscale. The Calcutta teachers experience burnout syndrome.

Her study further suggests that burnout was negatively related with meaning in life. It indicates that high meaning is positively related with low burnout and low meaning is related with high burnout.
3.3.0 Research studies on Work-orientation in West.

Research in this area is in its infancy stage. No study has yet been made on teachers and teacher-educators though some studies have been conducted in Western countries on managers and professionals.

McGregor (1960), Argyris (1972) and Herzberg (1966) have argued that

the human needs like autonomy, discretion and opportunity for self-growth are important factors influencing work orientation.

Investigations of Woodward (1965), Blauner (1964) and Sayles (1958) have laid stress on structural factors like technology as determinants of work orientation.

Moore (1969) suggests that most new members in work organisations have sufficient motivation to perform their assigned role. Thus, the problem of continuance revolves largely around the reward and punishment processes.

Studies of Beynon and Blackburn (1972) have shown that work orientation are influenced by biographical factors in the worker's life, outside the work place.

Cherrington (1980) points out that the differences that are noticed in the work orientation of adults can be traced to the developmental experiences of early childhood and present work environment.

Studies of Bray and Howard (1983) concluded that two motivational characteristics were essential for long term high-quality managerial performance. One is the need for advancement which refers to the extent to which an individual seeks and wants higher and demanding levels of responsibility in a business organisation or other social institution; second, inner work standards which refer to the extent to which espouses high standards of performance, even though
lesser levels would be sufficient to satisfy superiors in the organisation. Gough (1985) based on his studies using the managerial potential scale and the work orientation scale, found two types of managerial performance, (a) those who would be inclined to function in a circumspect, rule following and prudent way and (b) those who are likely to take risks, break new ground and venture into the unknown.

Neff (1968) found that, work - like many other human activities, is highly responsive to the environment in which it takes place.

Jackson (1968) found that the teacher is the manager of routine, enforcer of standardisation in environment.

Simpson (1969) found in teachers that, there was typically a low intrinsic commitment to work. Internal motivation to work in accordance with professional standards was weak and unevenly distributed among teachers.

Simpson (1969) devoted considerable time to the question, what is teaching if it is not a profession? He concluded that teaching is just a job for many teachers, "something they do to earn money or fill time but to which they have little intrinsic professional commitment".

It is also important to note the work behaviour of teachers are learned large part not through formal training they receive but through their own socialisation experiences over the years as students and their exposure to other teachers. Howsam, 1967; Lortie, 1969; studied the control of work behaviour of teachers and found that rules and regulations are sometimes "soft" and sometimes "Hard", Hard rules deal with "cost and efficiency" as well as property and materials.

It is usually taken for granted that there is considerable uniformity in the work behaviour of teachers. In testing this assumption empirically in the organisational attributes project, the investigators administered a
questionnaire to the teachers of the eighteen schools and found the following task areas and proportion of tasks falling into each, are as follows:

Instructional activities, 25%; management 19.7%; planning 16.5%; evaluation 14.1%; Supervision-discipline, 10.1%; special instruction 4.5%; public relation, 3.4%; meetings, 3.3%; professional development, 1.7%; and miscellaneous and other tasks 1.7%.

Conant's (1971) study involved systematic observations of teacher work behaviour in elementary schools, including some in which aides were employed to assist the teacher with routine as well as other tasks. Being unable to find published empirical data on what teachers do during the work day, he constructed activity categories by examining the literature on teaching and discussing the tasks of teachers with educators. In addition to the category he called instruction, which he defined very broadly to include almost any activity that could be instructional in nature, he identified a variety of other categories - routine tasks, non-learning activities, out of class time, planning activities, evaluation activities, administrative activities and others.

When his observations were completed, he discovered that classroom activity was highly concentrated within his first two categories on the average for teachers without aides instruction took up 27.9% of the work day (33.1% for teacher without aides 43.5% of the day (teachers with aides 38.6%). Non-learning activities consumed 11.8% of the work day of teachers without aides and 9.6% of the day for those with them. Out of class time accounted for 15.1% of the day for teachers without aides (with aides 14.5%). All other categories of activities, including planning and evaluation, took up but a small fraction of the work day (p.33). Indeed, if one adds up the percentages reported above, his finds that the four categories of activities account for 98.3% of the work day of teachers without aides and 95.8% of the work day
of those having these assistants.

Conant concluded that "Teachers who worked in conventional, single teacher classrooms had little daily time to teach". (P.3) During the teaching day, teachers without aides devoted an average of ninety-two minutes to instruction, as compared with 109 minutes for those who were assisted by aides. On the other hand, teachers without aides gave an average of 144 minutes to routine work, while those with aides spent 127 minutes on such activity.

Variations in task structure could possibly interpreted to mean that a complex division of labour exists at the school level, and that tasks omitted by one teacher are performed by other teachers. The prevalence of self-contained classroom in most elementary school however, argues against this conclusion. In order to examine the matter in more detail, we obtained data on the nature and extent of patterns of interdependence perceived by respondents. These questions on interdependence were asked; (1) "List the names of those persons both within and outside your school (other than students) upon whom you depend most heavily in order to perform your job effectively"; and (2) who are the persons listed above, if any, whose job is so closely related to yours that you believe the two jobs must be performed collaboratively in order for either of you to perform his work effectively? 

Answers to these questions reveal that the average number of dependence relationships listed by teachers in the conventionally organised schools in our sample varies between 2.8 and 6.7 and the average number of essential relationships ranges from 0.0 to 2.5. The extent of interdependence is, therefore, limited especially as indicated by responses to the second question. Pellegrin and Sethr, 1971; Moore (1987) studied the relationship between school related job factors and perceived improved job performance based on intrinsically/extrinsically oriented teachers. He found intrinsically oriented teachers were more likely to be motivated by using creative talents, having
opportunities for professional growth and receiving praise for their work and extrinsically oriented teachers were more likely to say that receiving salary increases, having a secure job, and having a competent principal would motivate them. The investigation has contributed to the study of teacher motivation and has raised two points of concern: the inconsistency of popular belief that teachers are intrinsically oriented and teachers appear to be more materialistic and less altruistic.

Henderson (1986) investigated the teacher's motivation and perceptions of their work, the influence of the North Carolina career development plan and found that career development plan participants perceived a higher level of skill variety in their work than comparison teachers. There were no significant group difference in growth need strength, but the test employed for the sample as a whole on the growth need strength scale indicated that teachers predominantly desired higher order satisfactions from their work.

3.3.1 Research studies on Work-orientation in East

Indiresan (1986) studied the work-orientation of managers in India. Her study includes self-perceptions referred to as personal orientation and the evaluation of other managers, referred to as perceived orientation. Personal orientation measures the self-perception of the individual towards various aspects of his own work. The managers were required to respond on a four-point scale—always, mostly, sometimes and never.

Perceived orientation measures the work orientation of managers in general, as perceived by the respondent. The managers were required to respond on a five point scale.

The results suggest that in personal orientation, the achievement orientation gets the highest rating followed by the meaning orientation. This is, managers rate themselves as highly achievement oriented and carry out their work with
a deep approach with comprehension and understanding. The significant other orientation has the lowest rating and the reproduction orientation gets a slightly higher rating. This means that managers perceive themselves as not so much concerned about doing things just to please significant others and that they also do not carry out the work in a ritualistic way following instructions.

But it is very significant to note that the order of rating was very different in the perceived orientation. The other managers were perceived to be very high in their reproduction orientation and the next higher rating was given for the significant other orientation. This implies that the respondents see the other managers as showing less initiative and carry out their work just as they were told, to please the significant others.

The study found that individuals have different anchoring points for self-rating and for rating others. She found, in general, the managers from government organisations seem to prefer to work within the framework of rules and regulations, attributing their behaviour to helplessness due to the system. Managers in public limited companies show two extreme tendencies. Some show full independence and others complete compliance. Some justify and even advocate compliance for the smooth functioning of the organisation. Others attributed compliance to external and organisational factors.

3.3.2 Summary and observations

The researches cited in the chapter on meaning in life, burnout and work orientation are, though few, lead us to some trend in thinking. What trends do emerge from each area? The investigator has tried to summarize briefly the generalisations in the following way.

1. The relationship between meaninglessness and meaning in life is significantly negative (Crumbaugh and Maholick,
2. It is observed that the normal population have higher meaning in life in comparison to non-normal population (delinquents, drug addicts, alcoholics) Pearson and Sheffield, 1974; Familleti, 1975; Shean and Fetchman, 1971.

3. Meaning in life is a reliable criterion for mental health. People having higher meaning were showing responsibility, courage, self-affirmation (Kotchen, 1960).

4. Person low in meaning score reflect values of pleasure, excitement which supports Frankl's contention of hedonistic approach to promote existential vacuum. (Crandal and Rasmussen, 1975)

5. High score in meaning in life correspond with values of salvation and intrinsic religious orientation and active life. (Crumbaugh et al., 1970; Butler & Carr, 1968)


7. The results about age and educational level suggest no significant relationship. Still it was found that higher level of education contributed lowly to the meaning in life because of their high aspiration. (Mier and Edwards, 1974; Jacobson & Ritter, 1977; Crumbaugh & Maholick, 1964)

8. High meaning in life seems to be positively related with job satisfaction (Sargent, 1972)

9. Adolescents with low meaning in life feel depressed (Klinger, 1977)

10. Adolescents with high meaning in life were well adjusted in family and society (Sultana, 1983)

11. Adolescents with high meaning in life were emotionally well adjusted whereas adolescents with low meaning in life
12. High in meaning in life adolescent found to be more educationally adjusted and creative in educational settings. (Sultana, 1983)

13. Students with high meaning were found to be open for choices and ready for new experiences. (Sultana, 1983)

14. People having very low meaning in life became psychopathological cases. (Gon & Mehta, 1982)

15. The teachers having low meaning in life had limited perception of life, no value base, lack of feedback and emotional stress. Their performance in teaching was found to be low. (Misra, 1986)

16. Those teachers with high meaning in life showed greater meaning in teaching, job satisfaction, emotional stability and sound feedback mechanism. (Misra, 1986)

17. Slower pace of life and less physical stress, less fatigue contributed to less susceptibility to burnout. (Freudenberger, 1975)

18. Urban areas have higher burnout than rural areas. (Freudenberger, 1975)

19. It was observed that burnout arises from one's orientation to work - resistance, postponement, avoidance, absenteeism, tardiness and late coming. (Warnath & Shelton, 1976)

20. High emotional involvement led to burnout indicating fatigue and illness. (Mattingly, 1977)

21. Responsibility, moderate security led to decrease in burnout. (Berkley planning Associate, 1977)
22. Experienced workers tend to find less burnout than inexperienced one because of maturity. (Lamb, 79 / Gann, 79)

23. Extremely high expectations of teachers and their poor work conditions led to the burnoutness in teachers. (Colasudro, 1981)

24. Emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and lack of sense of personal accomplishment led to burnout in teachers. (Arrenich, 1982)

25. Burnoutness impaires leadership behaviour of teachers in the classroom. (Cooper, 1986)

26. Burnout was significantly related with perceived environmental stress combined with locus of control in self and others produced burnout. (Shapiro, 1987)

27. Role ambiguity and conflict contribute to emotional exhaustion and fatigue which led to burnout. (Schwab et.al, 1986)

28. In India, Misra (1986) found burnout was related with role ambiguity, emotional exhaustion and stress.


30. Worker's development experiences had significant effect on work place behaviour. (Cherrington, 1980)

31. Intrinsically oriented teachers were likely to be motivated using creative talents on professional growth and extrinsically motivated teachers liked salary increases, job security and competent principal. (Moore, 1987)

32. Motivated teachers perceived high level of skill variety in their job and high satisfaction. (Henderson, 1987)
33. Indiresan (1986) found that highly motivated managers were achievement cum meaning oriented whereas low motivated managers were reproductive cum significant other oriented.

It can be seen, therefore, from the research findings that low meaning that is burnoutness may lead to abnormality in life, fatigue, depression, drug addiction, alcoholism, and task orientation in work style and decrease in will to live. Whereas high in meaning in life leads to sense of responsibility, interest in life, emotional balance, sense of accomplishment, job satisfaction and ambition.

The review of literature on burnout shows that it is in its infancy stage. Most of the studies have tried to investigate the prevalence of teacher burnout. Some correlational studies have been attempted to investigate the relationship of burnout with other variables like locus of control, role conflict and role ambiguity. Some studies suggested the factors that cause burnout are low self-concept, emotional exhaustion, mental stress, etc. The factors that contribute for meaning are wider perception, positive value base, emotional balance and job satisfaction.

People with high motivation showed achievement cum meaning orientation in work whereas people with low motivation showed task or reproduction cum significant other orientation.

These studies show the following gaps - there is no study except Indiresan (1986) on work orientation of managers. Even Misra (1986) studied meaning in life, stress and burnout of teachers but she did not include work orientation. But in one of her case studies she gave a hunch that the glow-onness and burnoutness are related to the workstyle of the teachers. Hence, this investigator picked up a cue and was interested to know the effect of meaning on work orientation of teacher-educators.

Also, Misra (1986) did not describe case studies in
detail but the present investigator thought it worthwhile to describe eight case studies in detail to find out the factors contributing to meaning in life and work orientation. The investigator selected to study not only on a small sample but on the entire population of teacher-educators of Orissa. He included one more variable along with meaning in life, burnout and also case studies of eight teacher educators belonging to high and low meaning groups. On the basis of this he arrived at the following problem, 'A STUDY OF MEANING IN LIFE, BURNOUTNESS AND WORK-ORIENTATION OF TEACHER-EDUCATORS OF ORISSA'.