BURNOUT SYNDROME IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION.

by

SIPHO ARNOLD VILAKAZI
BA, B.ED(HONS) (UZ); M.ED (USC); U.E.D

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

In the Department of Educational Planning and Administration

At

The University of Zululand

Promoter: Prof R.V. Gabela

April 2005
DECLARATION

I declare that "Burnout syndrome in the teaching profession" is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Sipho A. Vilakazi

23/07/05

Date
DEDICATION

This piece of work is dedicated to my late mother Gladys (uMaMolotsoane) and my father Thabo, whose love and teachings have sustained me through life.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

1. My promoter Prof R.V. Gabela for his wisdom, guidance and leadership in giving meaning to this study.

2. Prof P.T. Sibaya for his mentorship and input in this study.

3. My colleagues Mr T.A. Mthembu (Dept of Geography), Drs N.J. Sibeko D. Nzima and PAN Nkosi kaNdaba for their valuable contribution to this work.

4. My colleagues in the department – Pam, Nosipho and Thenjiwe for their support and encouragement.

5. Bongi, Sphiwe and Nonhle for helping me with typing.

6. My wife Thokozile (UMaKhumalo) and my children Sthabile and Thabiso, for their love and support.

7. Above all, I thank God, the Almighty for giving me life that I could accomplish this work
SUMMARY

This study set out to investigate the prevalence of burnout among teachers. To this end, the following objectives were formulated: To (a) ascertain the incidence of burnout among teachers in KwaZulu-Natal. (b) determine the manner in which teachers manifest burnout. (c) find out whether there is any association between teachers' biographical factors and burnout. In order to investigate the aims of the study the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey was used. This instrument was administered to a sample of 364 teachers who teach in traditionally black secondary schools in three districts of the Zululand region of the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

Data was analysed by means of the chi-square one-sample test and the analysis of variance (ANOVA). After the analysis and interpretation of data was done, the study came to the following conclusions: (i) teachers differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout. There is a group of teachers who experience low burnout levels, there is also a group that experience moderate burnout levels and a group that experiences high burnout levels. However, the test revealed that the majority of teachers experience low burnout levels. (ii) There is a positive relationship between the variable of the level of education and emotional exhaustion, and between the variable of gender and personal accomplishment. This means that teachers who hold a postgraduate qualification experience high emotional exhaustion compared to their counterparts who hold lower qualifications. This further means that male teachers experience high personal accomplishment
levels compared to their female counterparts. (iii) Finally the study revealed that there is no relationship between teachers’ biographical factors (gender, age, marital status, level of education, position at school, work experience, average number of learners in classes taught, location of school) and burnout.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title page</th>
<th>I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Declaration</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER 1

### GENERAL ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Statement of the problem

1.3 Definition of terms

1.3.1 Burnout

1.3.2 Traditionally black secondary schools

1.4 Objectives of the study

1.5 Research questions

1.6 Hypotheses

1.7 Significance of the study

1.8 Method of investigation

1.8.1 Literature review

1.8.2 Empirical research

1.9 Target population

1.10 Accessible population

1.11 The sample

1.12 Pilot study

1.13 Analysis of data

1.14 Chapter outline

1.14.1 Chapter 1: General orientation


1.14.3 Chapter 3: Research methodology and procedure for collecting data

1.14.4 Chapter 4: Analysis and presentation of data

1.14.5 Chapter 5: Summary, conclusion and recommendations

VII
# CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON BURNOUT AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO STRESS, DEPRESSION AND ANXIETY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Introduction</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Definition and description of the burnout syndrome</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Theoretical perspectives on burnout</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1 An existential perspective</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2 A perspective from Social Comparison Theory</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3 The ecological perspective</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.4 A multidimensional perspective</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Burnout in service professions</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Stages of burnout</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.1 Enthusiasm stage</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.2 Stagnation stage</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.3 Frustration stage</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.4 Apathy stage</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Relationship between burnout, stress, depression and anxiety</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.1 Relationship between stress and burnout</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.1.1 The environmental model</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.1.2 The physiological model</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.1.3 The interactional model</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.2 Relationship between depression, anxiety and burnout</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.2.1 Depression</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.2.2 Anxiety</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7 Factors that contribute to burnout</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7.1 Organisational factors</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7.2 Interpersonal factors</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7.3 Personal factors</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8 Measures to cope with burnout</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.1 Individual strategies for coping with burnout</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.2 Social support as a strategy for coping with burnout</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9 Conclusion</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE FOR COLLECTING DATA

3.1 Introduction 78
3.2 Objectives of the study 79
3.3 Research questions 79
3.4 Hypotheses 79
3.5 Research design and procedures 80
3.5.1 The sample and sampling procedures 81
3.6 Planning for the administration of the research instrument 82
3.6.1 The pilot sample 83
3.6.2 Administration of the instrument in the pilot sample 83
3.6.3 Results of the pilot sample 84
3.6.4 Distribution of subjects in the pilot sample 84
3.6.5 The final sample 86
3.6.6 Administration of the instrument in the final sample 86
3.7 The research instrument 89
3.7.1 The Maslach Burnout Inventory 93
3.8 Planning for data analysis 96
3.9 Conclusion 98
# CHAPTER 4

**ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Introduction</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Details of the final study</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1 Data analysis</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.1Biographical information</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.2Frequency of responses regarding the burnout sub-scales</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.2.1 Emotional exhaustion responses</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.2.2 Depersonalisation responses</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.2.3 Personal accomplishment responses</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.3 Hypotheses investigation</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.3.1 Testing hypothesis number one</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.3.2 Testing hypothesis number two</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1.3.3 Testing hypothesis number three</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 Conclusion</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary 126
5.1.1 The problem 126
5.1.2 The objectives of the study 126
5.1.3 Hypotheses postulated 127
5.1.4 Methodology 127

5.2 Discussion of findings 127
5.2.1 Discussion of findings regarding the biographical data 128
5.2.2 Discussion of findings regarding the objectives of the study 129
5.2.2.1 Findings with regard to objective number one 129
5.2.2.2 Findings with regard to objective number two 131
5.2.2.3 Findings with regard to objective number three 133

5.3 Conclusions 134

5.4 Recommendations 135
5.4.1 Recommendation one 135
5.4.2 Recommendation two 136
5.4.2.1 Recommendation regarding the variable of level of education and emotional exhaustion level 137
5.4.2.2 Recommendation regarding the variable of gender and reduced personal accomplishment level 138
5.4.3 Recommendation three 139

5.5 Avenues for future research 139

5.6 Conclusion 140

Bibliography
TABLES

TABLE 3.1 Distribution of subjects in the pilot sample 85
TABLE 3.2 Distribution of schools in the final sample 87
TABLE 3.3 Distribution of subjects in the final sample 88
TABLE 4.1 Gender 100
TABLE 4.2 Age 100
TABLE 4.3 Marital status 101
TABLE 4.4 Level of education 101
TABLE 4.5 Position at school 102
TABLE 4.6 Work experience 102
TABLE 4.7 Average number of learners in classes taught 103
TABLE 4.8 Location of school 103
TABLE 4.9 Responses on emotional exhaustion items 104
TABLE 4.10 Responses on depersonalisation items 105
TABLE 4.11 Responses on personal accomplishment items 106
TABLE 4.12 Categories and emotional exhaustion levels 108
TABLE 4.13 Categories and depersonalisation levels 108
TABLE 4.14 Categories and personal accomplishment levels 109
TABLE 4.15 Scoring patterns of respondents 109
TABLE 4.16 F-test for differences between means in the case of level of education and emotional exhaustion 111
TABLE 4.17 F-test for the differences between means in the case of gender and personal accomplishment 111
TABLE 4.18 Relationship between the variable of gender and emotional exhaustion 113
TABLE 4.19 Relationship between the variable of age and emotional exhaustion 113
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of marital status and emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of level of education and emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of position at school and emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of work experience and emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of average number of learners in classes taught and emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of location of school and emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of gender and depersonalisation</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of age and depersonalisation</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of marital status and depersonalisation</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of level of education and depersonalisation</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of position at school and depersonalisation</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of work experience and depersonalisation</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of average number of learners in classes taught and depersonalisation</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of location of school and depersonalisation</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of gender and personal accomplishment</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>Relationship between the variable of age and personal accomplishment</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 4.36 Relationship between the variable of marital status and personal accomplishment 122

TABLE 4.37 Relationship between the variable of level of education and personal accomplishment 122

TABLE 4.38 Relationship between the variable of position at school and personal accomplishment 123

TABLE 4.39 Relationship between the variable of work experience and personal accomplishment 123

TABLE 4.40 Relationship between the variable of average number of learners in classes taught and personal accomplishment 124

TABLE 4.41 Relationship between the variable of location of school and personal accomplishment 124

ANNEXTURES

ANNEXTURE A Modified version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey 154

ANNEXTURE B Request for permission to conduct research in schools 158

ANNEXTURE C Request for permission to use the Maslach Burnout Inventory (ES) 160

ANNEXTURE D Permission to use the MBI-ES 163
CHAPTER 1

THE BURNOUT SYNDROME IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

1. General orientation

1.1 Introduction

Research on ‘burnout’ gained popularity in the 1970's when Freudenberger first used this term to describe the emotional and physical exhaustion of staff members of health care institutions (Paine, 1982). Prior to this initiative studies on burnout especially among school teachers were generally few and by far between (Kyriacou, 1987:146). The research conducted by Freudenberger led to an emergence of many studies on burnout. Efforts by various researchers interested in this phenomenon led to the First National Conference on Burnout held in Philadelphia in November 1981 (Paine, 1982:12). This conference was a success in that it brought together the pioneers, new workers and policy and decision makers who had to decide on how resources would be allocated to deal with this problem.

A review of literature indicates that burnout is a condition that prevails in all service professions where employees work with clients. It has been identified among staff working in day care centres (Pines & Maslach: 1980; Freudenberger: 1974; Shannon & Saleebey: 1980; Pines & Aronson: 1981), in health workers (Freudenberger: 1974; Pines & Maslach: 1980; Paine & O'Brien: 1979), in teaching (Reed: 1979; Hendrickson 1979; Walsh: 1979; Farber & Miller: 1981) as well as in protective services (Daley: 1979).

In recent years a growing number of studies have investigated the burnout phenomenon. In studying a broad range of health and social service professionals, Maslach (1980:44) found that burned out professionals “lose all
concern, all emotional feelings for the persons they work with and come to treat them in detached or even dehumanised ways”.

Burned out professionals may become cynical towards their clients, blaming them for creating their own difficulties or labelling them in derogatory terms.

This chapter begins by analysing the burnout problem among teachers. This is followed by the definitions of terms relevant to the study. The purpose and significance of the study is also discussed here. These are followed by a detailed discussion of the methods of investigation and the conclusion.

Teachers play quite a crucial role in facilitating the learning. They are expected to mediate the curriculum to their learners. They are the ones who are responsible for developing critical thinking abilities in their children. Duminy & Songhe (1987:7) affirm this when they state that “a teacher is someone who directs the child towards man and the rest of reality by communicating or imparting knowledge with a view to unfolding the child and reality.”

Also important in this process of imparting knowledge to the learner is the environment in which teachers and learners meet. For teaching and learning to be effective, the environment should be conducive to the work of the teacher. Such an environment will be characterised by the availability of teaching and learning facilities such as classrooms, furniture and other materials needed for teaching and learning. In addition, there should be a cordial relationship between the principal and staff, a positive and reassuring attitude of the officers of the employing department, a willing and enthusiastic learner clientele and support and cooperation from the parents.

This kind of environment will ensure the success of teaching and learning. However the absence of the harmonious relationship and physical facilities which make teaching and learning possible and rewarding put pressure on the teachers. Such pressure develops to the extent where it creates stressful situations for teachers, which can be a fertile ground for teacher burnout.
1.2 Statement of the problem

Although burnout is a topic of growing interest to researchers, Farber and Miller (1981:220) are of the opinion that until 1981, no study had systematically investigated the process and dimensions of teacher burnout. They further state that the literature bearing on the topic consists primarily of research on the general dimensions of professional burnout; as well as autobiographical accounts of the difficulties of teaching, and clinical descriptions of 'battered teachers'. While this literature fails to provide an entirely adequate database for clarifying the nature of teacher burnout, it does provide some useful hypothesis regarding the causes, symptoms and treatment components of the phenomenon (Farber & Miller, 1981).

In the last decade, probably no other professional group has been criticised as frequently or as intensely as teachers. Teachers, especially those that teach in traditionally black secondary schools have been accused of failing to adequately teach students, of failing to control student violence and of resorting to chalk down strikes as a method of solving disputes with the department of education. Such accusations come from different angles: from the department of education as well as from the community at large. In addition to this indictment teachers are expected to do wonders in an environment that is plagued by unavailability of facilities and resources, low levels of the culture of learning, and abnormally large classes (Christie: 1986: 114-116).

Black schools have also become a haven for local gangsters who are friends to some of the students. About six years ago a newspaper reported an incident in one school in KwaMashu (North of Durban) where a teacher was gunned down on his way to school (Daily News, 1996). Several cases of jewellery and cars taken at gunpoint within the school premises have been reported. Working in such an environment is likely to cause stress.
The curriculum changes that are taking place in our education system today also create some degree of instability in the practising teacher. These changes include re-organising of subject matter, new methods of instruction and new assessment techniques. In addition to these changes, the government has passed pieces of legislation some of which could be perceived to be giving unwarranted powers to governing bodies and learner representatives. Teachers with long service may feel threatened by these new developments and, as a result, they can experience stress at work.

The stressful work environment is likely to impact negatively on the teachers' efficiency, morale and commitment to their task. Pierce and Molloy (1990:37) have cited a number of studies conducted by Coates & Thoresen, (1976); Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, (1977, 1978, 1979); Fisher, (1984); and Laughlin, (1984). These studies affirm the stressful nature of the teaching profession.

An environment of this nature does not only affect the teacher's performance at work. It can also pose a threat to the teachers' state of health. Correlations have been reported between cumulative stress and heart attacks, hypertension, mental illness, ulcers, alcoholism and a variety of stomach disorders (Greenberg 1984; Potter 1985; Wright 1987; Scott & Spooner 1989). A burned out individual can also be affected psychologically. Such an individual tends to lose temper quickly, cries too easily and begins to blame everybody around him/her.

This study aimed at investigating teacher burnout in traditionally black secondary schools in KwaZulu-Natal.

1.3 Definition of terms

1.3.1 Burnout

Paine (1982:44) states that the term 'burnout' was first used by Freudenberger in 1974 to describe the emotional and physical exhaustion of
staff members of health care institutions. Various scholars have come up with a variety of definitions of burnout. Pines (1982:189) defines burnout as "a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion that results from long-term involvement with people in emotionally draining situations." According to Cherniss, (1980) burnout is "a syndrome of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion".

Burnout is characterised by physical depletion, feelings of helplessness, hopelessness, emotional drain, development of negative self-concept and negative attitudes toward work, life and other people; depersonalisation, reduced personal accomplishment, sense of distress, discontent and failure in the quest for ideal (Jones:1981:89). According to Capel (1991:36) burnout is "the syndrome resulting from prolonged teacher stress, primarily characterised by physical, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion." Daley (1979:376) regards burnout as a reaction to job-related stress that varies in nature with the intensity and duration of the stress itself. Edlwich and Brodsky (1980) as cited by Farber (1984:325) define burnout as "a progressive loss of idealism, energy, purpose, and concern as a result of conditions of work'.

From the above definitions, it appears as though many authors regard the terms 'burnout and 'stress' as synonymous. Some authors have used these terms interchangeably. Others regard 'burnout' as resulting from cumulative stress. Dworkin, (1987:112) cite studies conducted by Maslach, (1976; 1982; 1987), Cherniss, (1983); Schwab & Iwanicki, (1982); Paine, (1982) as indicating to a close relationship between burnout and stress. Cedoline, (1983) has identified stress as a significant causal element in burnout. Strauss, Frame and Forehand (1987) in Mazibuko (1996:29) identify a number of conditions characteristic of burnout or its effects. These conditions point to a link between stress and burnout.

Contrary to the views expressed in the above paragraph, Farber (1984:326) is critical of literature that often confuses or equates 'stress' with 'burnout'. He continues to state that stress may have both positive and negative effect, and
indeed a certain amount of stress is necessary to motivate action. He concludes by saying that "burnout is most often the result not of stress per se (which may be inevitable in teaching), but of unmediated stress – of being stressed and having no buffers, no support system, no adequate rewards (Farber, 1984:326). Furthermore, in their review of various studies, Pierce and Molloy (1990:45) came to a conclusion that stress and burnout are not synonymous. This postulation tallies with Farber's (1984:326) assertion that though these concepts are similar, they are not identical.

In the study conducted by Sarros and Sarros (1987:225) they found that other factors not related to stress may contribute to burnout. These findings put to question the notion that only cumulative stress may result in burnout.

Having said this, the researcher still believes that it is important to explore whatever link exists between burnout and stress. This will be attended to in the next chapter.

For the purposes of this study, the researcher is of the opinion that for now it will suffice to deduce that burnout is:

- A condition that prevails in service professions where one deals with human beings.
- It points to certain levels of stress where an individual finds him/herself unable to cope with his/her work situation.
- It affects both the mental and physical state of the individual.

In this study the term 'burnout' referred to a state whereby a teacher finds him/herself unable to do his/her work efficiently and effectively due to mental and physical exhaustion that he/she experiences at work.
1.3.2 Traditionally black secondary schools

Traditionally black secondary schools are those schools that have a hundred percent black enrolment. Although a number of schools in towns and cities have opened their doors to all learners irrespective of race or colour, the researcher is of the opinion that schools situated in townships and rural areas will continue to provide education to black learners residing in the surrounding areas. If conditions in these schools do not improve, teachers who teach in these schools will continue to suffer from the burnout syndrome.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study were as follows:

1.4.1 To ascertain the incidence of burnout among teachers in KwaZulu-Natal.

1.4.2 To determine the manner in which teachers manifest burnout.

1.4.3 To find out whether there is any association between teachers' biographical factors and burnout.

1.5 Research questions

Research questions were formulated and stated as follows:

1.5.1 To what extent do teachers in KwaZulu-Natal experience the incidence of burnout?

1.5.2 In what manner do teachers manifest burnout?

1.5.3 Is there a relationship between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout?
1.6 Hypotheses

1.6.1 Teachers do not differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout.

1.6.2 Teachers do not differ in the manner in which they manifest burnout

1.6.3 There is no relationship between teachers' biographical factors and manifestations of burnout.

1.7 Significance of the study

Through this study, the researcher hoped to ascertain the rate at which burnout occurs among teachers in traditionally black secondary schools. Secondly the researcher hoped to find out about the manner in which teachers manifest burnout. Do they experience more emotional exhaustion burnout, depersonalization burnout or personal accomplishment burnout? Finally the researcher hopes to find out if there are biographical factors that can be associated with burnout. This information is vital especially when it comes to the designing of intervention strategies.

The researcher supports the idea by Farber and Miller (1981:220) that very few studies have systematically investigated the process of dimensions of teacher burnout. They further state that the literature on burnout consists primarily of research on the general dimensions of professional burnout. The researcher is of the opinion that teacher burnout as a factor in teacher inefficiency and learners losing interest in learning is often ignored. Cardinell (1981:106) believes that the teaching profession tends to focus more on the symptoms of this condition rather than attending to its causes and the conditions precipitating it. The researcher believes that the findings of this study will go a long way in revealing the prevalence of this condition among black teachers in KwaZulu-Natal. The findings will further help in identifying
those aspect/aspects of burnout that teachers are prone to. This knowledge will be of assistance when intervention measures are developed. Lastly, the findings will bring to our attention those biographical factors that can be associated with burnout. Again this information will help when intervention programmes are designed.

The findings will also ensure that the focus is on aspects of burnout that are a threat to teaching. Once these aspects are identified, it would then be possible to formulate remedial strategies aimed at reducing the burnout problem among teachers as it impacts negatively on their commitment to teaching, as well as on their state of health.

1.8 Method of investigation

This research project entails literature study and empirical investigation.

1.8.1 Literature review

Literature review consisted of a systematic and critical study of available literature pertaining to the burnout syndrome. This involved an intensive study of existing literature from published books, newspapers, journal articles, unpublished dissertations and theses and any other material, which has information relevant to the topic.

1.8.2 Empirical research

In addition to literature study, empirical data was collected on the basis of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey, which is a modified version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), an instrument originally designed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) to measure burnout. This instrument has been used extensively to assess burnout in a wide variety of human service professionals (Farber, 1984:326). In this study the word ‘recipient’ was
replaced by the word ‘teacher’, and evidence has been presented to substantiate the reliability and the validity of the MBI when adapted for the use of teachers (Iwanicki & Schwab, 1985). The overall reliability and validity of this scale will be discussed in the relevant chapter.

Permission was requested from the authorities of the Department of Education in the KwaZulu-Natal province to conduct this research in a sample of secondary schools under their jurisdiction. The researcher personally visited these schools to administer the Maslach Burnout Inventory.

Furthermore permission to use the Maslach Burnout Inventory was requested from Consulting Psychologists Press in California (USA) who hold the copyright to this instrument.

1.9 Target population

The target population included all black secondary school teachers in townships, rural areas and informal settlements. Obviously these schools are situated in areas inhabited by black people.

1.10 Accessible population

Since there are many teachers teaching in black secondary schools serving black communities in KwaZulu-Natal, the researcher decided to limit the target population to black secondary school teachers in three districts in the Zululand region.

1.11 The sample

A simple random sample of N=432 teachers was selected from 36 black secondary schools falling under 3 districts of the Zululand region of the Department of Education - KwaZulu-Natal. These districts are Empangeni,
Vryheid and Obonjeni. From each district 3 circuits were selected, and from each circuit 4 schools were randomly selected. Twelve educators were randomly selected from each school and formed part of the study. These teachers were then supplied with the Maslach Burnout Inventory.

1.12 Pilot study

A pilot test of the research instrument is a very important phase that should not be ignored. Bell (1989:65) expresses the opinion that all data gathering instruments should be piloted to test how long it takes respondents to complete them, to check whether all questions and instructions are clear and to enable the researcher to delete items which do not yield relevant data. The pilot test also helps the researcher in modifying those questions that may be ambiguous to the respondents.

For the purpose of this study, the pilot test was conducted among teachers teaching in traditionally black secondary schools at Mthunzini circuit in the Empangeni district. Eighteen teachers were randomly selected from three schools. The Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey was administered to them. However, these teachers did not form part of the sample for the main study.

1.13 Analysis of data

Data obtained from the target population through empirical research were analysed with the aid of the SPSS-X computer programme.

1.14 Chapter Outline

This study consists of five chapters. The contents of each chapter are outlined in the next section.
1.14.1 Chapter one

This chapter consists of the following: introduction, statement of the problem, definition of terms, purpose of the study, hypotheses, significance of the study, method of investigation, target population, accessible population, sample, the pilot study, analysis of data, chapter outline and the conclusion.

1.14.2 Chapter two

This chapter provides the theoretical background to the study. It covers the following: an introduction, a detailed description of the burnout syndrome. Theoretical perspectives on burnout, namely the existential perspective, a perspective from the social comparison theory; the ecological perspective; and the multidimensional perspective. It also covers the stages of burnout. Furthermore, the chapter looks at burnout as it occurs in service professions. This will include the stages of burnout. The chapter further goes on to investigate the relationship between burnout, stress, depression and anxiety. This is followed by a discussion of burnout as it occurs in the teaching profession. Included here are factors that contribute to burnout among teachers. These factors are categorised into organisational factors as well as interpersonal factors. Finally, measures to cope with burnout in teaching are addressed.

1.14.3 Chapter three

Chapter three gives the details of the research design and methodology. This chapter further describes how data was collected, the selection of the respondents and the plan for organisation and analysis of data.
1.14.4 Chapter four

This chapter presents an analysis of data collected. Data were presented in the form of tables accompanied by brief explanations of each table. In this chapter hypotheses are tested, upheld or rejected.

1.14.5 Chapter five

Chapter 5 discusses the findings of the study with regard to the objectives of the study. The chapter further presents a summary, conclusions and recommendations to the study. Lastly the conclusion of the study is also presented in this chapter.
CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON BURNOUT AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO STRESS, DEPRESSION AND ANXIETY.

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims at investigating the burnout syndrome based on relevant literature. The chapter begins by an in-depth study of what burnout is, according to literature. This is followed by a critical review of theories that underpin this phenomenon. The chapter also views burnout as it occurs in service or helping professions. The stages of burnout as revealed in literature will follow. The relationship between burnout, stress, depression and anxiety will also be explored. The chapter further looks at the probable causes of teacher burnout. This entails the review of factors that contribute to burnout in the teaching profession. Finally, the chapter will address preventative measures as discussed in literature.

2.2 Definition and description of the burnout syndrome

In chapter one, it was indicated that research on burnout emerged in the mid 1970's in the U.S.A. The term was used by Herbert Freudenberger to describe the physical and emotional exhaustion of staff members of health care institutions (Maslach, 1982). At this time, Freudenberger worked as a psychiatrist in a health care agency. He observed that many volunteers he worked with experienced gradual emotional depletion and loss of motivation and commitment. He further noticed that this process took about a year and was accompanied by a variety of mental and physical symptoms. In an attempt to describe this mental state of exhaustion, Freudenberger used the term that was being used to refer to the effects of chronic drug abuse: 'burnout' (Schaufeli, Maslach & Marek:1993:2).
Since then a number of studies on burnout have appeared in literature. These were conducted by scholars such as Christina Maslach, who developed the most widely used scale - the Maslach Burnout Inventory and published the first major research study in 1976. Recently several studies on burnout have been conducted (Schwab & Schuler, 1986; Dignam & West, 1988; Firth & Briton, 1989; Golembiewski & Muzenrider, 1988. Shaufeli et al (1993) express the opinion that although many of these studies were informative, they are not grounded in any theoretical framework. Today a number of conceptual frameworks are now available to guide empirical studies.

The first chapter dealt with various definitions on burnout. Various sources agree that one way in which service providers react to various stressors at work manifests itself in a syndrome called 'burnout'. Throughout these definitions, three commonalities are noticeable. Firstly burnout is defined as a condition that prevails in service professions (Maslach & Jackson, 1986:1; Maslach, 1982:3; Barling, Fullagar & Bluens:1983:154, Pines & Maslach, 1980:5-16; Van der Westhuizen, 1988:13); secondly burnout has an effect on both the mental and physical states of the individual (Cunningham, 1983:37-51; Pines, 1982:189; Pines & Aronson, 1988:13), and thirdly burnout points to certain levels of stress where an individual is unable to cope with his/her work situation (Cherniss, 1980b: 40; Pierce & Molloy, 1990:37).

Maslach (1982:3-5) identifies three dimensions which characterise the burnout syndrome. These are emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment.

According to Maslach (1982:3-6) emotional exhaustion occurs when the professional over-identifies with his or her clients, and feels overwhelmed by the emotional demands imposed by the people he or she serves. Once emotional exhaustion sets in, professionals feel unable to give of themselves to others. They feel drained and used up, and they lack enough energy to face another day. People who experience these feelings try to get out of the
situation by withdrawing themselves from others. They categorise their clients and respond to categories rather than to individuals. They detach themselves from the people they serve, and this detachment puts some emotional distance between the service provider and people whose needs and demands are overwhelming. In certain instances, the feelings of caring disappear and detachment becomes prominent. With increasing detachment comes an attitude of cold indifference to others' needs and a callous disregard for their feelings. Maslach (1982:4) states that this attitude signals the second aspect of burnout, namely depersonalisation.

Paine (1982:31-33) postulates that depersonalisation indicates a negative shift in response to others. In this instance, the professional's attitude towards the clients or patients takes a move towards a negative direction. This negative attitude can manifest itself in various ways. The one who gives care may derogate other people and put them down; refuse to be civil and courteous to them; ignore their pleas and demands, or fail to provide the appropriate help or service. These negative feelings about others can develop until they encompass the feelings of being down on self. The caregivers feel guilty of the way they have treated others. They develop feelings of being failures in their jobs. This leads to another dimension of burnout namely, reduced personal accomplishment. At this level, the provider's self-esteem decreases and depression sets in. Some professionals may seek counselling, while others may abandon their jobs and go for careers that will not bring them into stressful contact with people.

In discussing the concept of burnout, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:13) state that staff burnout among professionals and paraprofessionals in the human services is much easier to observe and to describe than it is to define. They continue to state that "a burned out professional is the one that is overworked, the underpaid drug addiction counsellor who happens to be a recovering addict himself, who drinks at work until he is forced to resign as a result of being an alcoholic. It is a teacher who constantly complains about his/her students in the staff room; it is a nurse who feels as if her 'arms are being
pulled out of their sockets' by all the patients who call for help as she walks past their wards. It is a hospital psychiatric ward experiencing complete staff turnover almost every year."

Burnout is also used to refer to a progressive loss of idealism, energy and purpose experienced by people in the helping professions because of the conditions of their work. Such conditions range from insufficient training to client overload, from too many hours of work to too little pay, from inadequate funding to ungrateful clients, from administrative constraints to the inherent gap between aspirations and accomplishment.

Paine (1982:11) points out that many changes in our society are contributing directly to high levels of job stress and professional frustration. Such changes as the general breakdown of support groups, including the family; increasing social complexity; the changing expectations typified by the women's movement; and the loss of confidence in social and other institutions all contribute to burnout.

Supporting this view, Maslach (1982:33-35) maintains that social disintegration has brought about a dramatic growth in the size and scope of the human services industry. More people are now in the business of helping others. Such help is often obstructed by the heavy psychological burden that is placed on the providers of such services. These individuals are usually required to work intensely and intimately with people on a large scale and on a continuous basis. They learn about their client's psychological, social and physical problems, and are expected to provide assistance or treatment of some kind. This will apply more especially to the job which involves tasks that are particularly upsetting or embarrassing to perform, even though necessary. In this regard Miles (1978) states that society expects and demands that such tasks be done, but often places a certain stigma on those who do it. Unfortunately, such people do not get any support or recognition for what they do. This makes the job highly stressful and promotes the possibility of burnout. The helpers who do such work include prison guards, mental
hospital staff, psychiatric emergency teams, police and fire fighters. Society expects these people to handle disasters and restore order in chaotic situations.

The type of occupational activity described in the preceding paragraph is likely to arouse strong feelings of emotion and personal stress that can be disruptive. In order to cope with such situations, a helping professional may employ a technique of detachment as a coping mechanism. According to Maslach (1993:21-22) detachment refers to the professional distance that the helper creates between himself and his patient or client. Although the helper is concerned with the client's well-being, he/she recognises that it is necessary to avoid over-involvement with the patient or client to maintain a detached objectivity. By treating his or her patients or clients in a more remote, objective way, it becomes easier to perform the necessary tasks without suffering strong psychological discomfort.

2.3 Theoretical perspectives on burnout

The following section reviews four perspectives on burnout. These are: the existential perspective, the perspective from social comparison theory, the ecological perspective and the multidimensional perspective.

2.3.1 An Existential perspective

Pines (in Schaufeli, et al. 1993:33) cite Frankl (1963:154) as stating that the primary motivational force in man or woman is striving to find meaning in one's life. This means that one endeavours to find meaning in whatever one does. He or she regards life as important if it gives him or her satisfaction, if it makes one feel important and useful. Pines (in Schaufeli et al 1993:33) concludes that when people try to find meaning in their life through work and feel that they have failed, the result is burnout.
According to this perspective, the basic tragedy that threatens the individual is the finality and inevitability of death. In an attempt to face up to one's mortality, one strives to give meaning to whatever one does. In order to avoid and deny death, one needs to feel heroic, that one matters in the larger 'cosmic' scheme of things. One then creates a hero system that will help one in dealing with the inevitable. How people choose to become heroes depends to a large extent on their culture's prescribed hero system (Pines in Schaufeli et al, 1993:34). During the Middle Ages, religion was the most commonly chosen hero system, and it served the purpose of transcending death adequately. However, nowadays religion is no longer enough as a hero system. For people who have rejected the religious answer to the existential quest, one of the frequently chosen alternatives is work. People who choose work as an alternative, strive to find a sense of meaning for their entire life through hard work. As soon as they realise that they have failed to find a sense of meaning through hard work, they burnout. This is the reason why burnout tends to affect people with high goals and expectations when entering most service professions. Farber (1982:43-45) concurs with this assertion by stating that when dedicated teachers feel unable to educate and inspire their students because of the latter's apathy, discipline and any other problems, or overcrowded classrooms and lack of support, they are likely to burnout.

Farber's (1982) opinion is in line with Maslach's (1978) postulation which states that burnout tends to affect staff members who are dedicated and committed to their work. This view also confirms Gold and Roth's (1993:41) statement that burnout usually affects teachers who feel they have not been effective in their work.

In his support of the existential perspective, Pines (2002: p.121-139) proposed a psychodynamic existential perspective to teacher burnout. This perspective is based on the assumption that "people seek a sense of existential significance through their work and have psychodynamic reasons for their career choices" (Pines: 2002:p121).
The choice of a career is a complex process that includes all the spheres of a person's life. Various authors, (Parsons 1989; Swanson 1996) agree that this process is influenced by a variety of factors such as aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources as well as opportunities in different lines of work. In addition to these factors, career choices can also occur unconsciously. This has been noted by such authors as Kets de Vries, 1995, 1996; Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996; and Obholzer & Robers, 1997 as cited by Pines (2002).

The unconscious determinants of any career choice reflect the individual's personal and familial history. People choose careers that enable them to replicate significant childhood experiences, gratify needs that were not gratified in their childhood, and actualise occupational dreams and professional expectations passed on to them by their familial heritage (Pines, 200a).

Pines (2002; P125) further asserts that when the choice of a career involves such significant issues, people enter it with very high hopes and expectations, ego involvement and passion. Success in their profession helps heal childhood wounds, but when people feel that they failed, when the work repeats the childhood trauma than heal it, the result is burnout.

The perspective discussed above focuses on the reason why people work hard. It assumes that people commit and dedicate themselves to their jobs because they want to find meaning in their lives. They do this to get satisfaction and to feel important. This perspective further suggests that people who strive to find meaning in life through work may have rejected religion as a hero system. Once they realise that they are not effective in their work, they burn out.

Another important dimension to the existential model is the psychodynamic existential perspective introduced by Pines (2002). This dimension can bring
a deeper understanding of many factors that precipitate burnout among teachers.

2.3.2 A perspective from Social Comparison Theory

According to Buunk and Schaufeli (in Schaufeli et al 1993:53) burnout develops primarily in a social context. They state that in order to understand its development and persistence, attention has to be paid to the way individuals perceive, interpret and construct behaviours of others at work. This means that individuals in human services constantly interact with clients and patients. During this process of interaction, social exchange processes and expectations of equity and reciprocity play an important role. Should an individual realise that his/her dedication and commitment to the job is not acknowledged and recognised by his/her clients or patients, that individual is likely to experience detachment: a dimension of burnout where a burned out individual maintains a professional distance between him/herself and the client or patient (Schaufeli, 1993:23).

In many cases, teachers enter the classroom with certain expectations. They expect their students to be ready to learn. They expect order and discipline in the classroom. However, as they realize that their expectations are far from being met, they then maintain a professional distance between themselves and their learners. Duke and Meckel, (1984:3) state that teachers whose expectations remain unmet, easily become disillusioned.

Buunk et al (1993) further opine that individuals will be inclined to deal with problems at work by engaging in social comparison with their colleagues, and by relating their own experiences to those of others, particularly colleagues in similar positions. Wills (1981) as cited by Schaufeli et al (1993:55) says that when individuals are confronted with a threat to self-esteem, they engage in a downward comparison with less competent others in an attempt to restore the way they feel about themselves.
This enables the person involved to find solace in realizing that others are worse off than himself or herself.

This perspective brings in an important component that needs to be considered in the study of burnout. It has to do with the interaction of individuals in a social context. As noted earlier on, one of the three dimensions of burnout is emotional exhaustion. Maslach (1982) describes emotional exhaustion as occurring when a professional feels unable to give of him/herself to others. These feelings are a result of emotional demands imposed on the professional by his or her clients. Emotional exhaustion, therefore, is a result of an intensity of interaction between the professional and the patient or client. Another important dimension in this perspective refers to the survival strategy that burned out professionals can resort to, namely, that of comparing themselves with colleagues who are in a worse off position than themselves.

The researcher believes that this perspective has a lot to offer in the study of burnout. It points out that burnout does not occur in a vacuum. It attacks in a social environment where people interact with other people, either as helpers or as clients or patients. This therefore implies that in an attempt to eradicate or reduce the incidence of burnout, the environment in which professionals interact with clients or recipients needs attention as well.

2.3.3 The Ecological perspective

This perspective is based on the premise that since burnout is a work-related concept, the work environment together with other environments do play a role in determining whether or not, to what degree, and in what way a person will experience burnout. Carroll and White (in Paine 1982:41) make use of the ecological frame of reference to reveal the multiple complex roots of burnout. Burnout is viewed as a form of ecological dysfunction. According to these authors, ecology has to do with the interrelationships of organisms and their environments or ecosystems. If one applies this perspective to the
phenomenon of burnout, one needs to understand the person, his or her ecosystems, and the reciprocal impact each has on the other.

According to Carroll and White (in Paine, 1982:42) "burnout occurs whenever a person with inadequate stress management and need-gratifying skills must work in a stressful and need-frustrating work environment". Burnout is then caused by the dynamic interaction of personal variables and environmental variables that include the influence of other ecosystems.

From this perspective one deduces that burnout is not an individual disease. It should be seen to be originating from the interaction of a weakening individual and environmental factors that together detract from a person's ability to do his or her work. However, the researcher is of the opinion that one of the shortcomings of this theory is that it assumes that only professionals with weak or inadequate stress management skills will fall prey to burnout.

2.3.4 A Multidimensional perspective

The multidimensional perspective originates from the three-component model of burnout developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981a; 1981b; 1982). In this model, burnout is defined as a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion (referring to the feeling of being emotionally drained of one's emotional resources); depersonalisation (referring to the psychological distance maintained by the burned out individual between himself and those for whom he carries responsibility); and reduced personal accomplishment (which refers to decreasing feelings of accomplishment and competence in the burned out care giver).

This approach to burnout aims at extending the single dimensional model, that assumes the existence of one dimension in burnout, namely emotional exhaustion. Maslach (in Schaufeli, 1993: 26) is of the opinion that the single dimensional model is popular in that it attempts to describe burnout in simple
either-or terms. It also seeks to assess burnout with a measure that is short and produces a single score.

Maslach (1993) further argues that burnout does not consist of only one dimension, namely emotional exhaustion. She maintains that the reason why the single-dimension approach is so popular is because in burnout research the variables studied are more strongly correlated with emotional exhaustion than with the other two components, namely depersonalisation and reduced accomplishment. Furthermore, she states that the factors hypothesized to relate to emotional exhaustion are very similar to those in general literature on stress. This validates the location of the burnout phenomenon within the stress domain. However, it is not synonymous with stress.

Maslach (in Schaufeli, et al 1993:27-28) believes that burnout is much more complex than stress. She defines it as "an individual stress experience embedded in a context of complex social relationships and that it involves the person's conception of both self and others". Therefore, it would not be sufficient to look at the stress component of this experience because it ignores the other two components of depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. The reduced accomplishment component reflects a dimension of self-evaluation and depersonalisation captures a dimension of interpersonal relations. Both these components are important in the study of burnout.

Barling et al. 1993:66-71) concur with the idea of a multidimensional model of burnout. However they add another component, namely involvement. They further state that owing to its consistently questionable reliability, it assumes less importance. Nonetheless they believe that it refers to feelings of identification between the care giver and the patient or client.

Barling et al (1993:73) conclude that these components are not mutually exclusive. Individuals may experience any or all of the feelings associated
with the factors of emotional exhaustion, performance accomplishment, depersonalisation or involvement simultaneously.

Maslach (in Schaufeli et al., 1993:29) asserts that the multidimensional model has some important implications for interventions. It implies that intervention to reduce burnout should be planned and designed in terms of the particular component of burnout that needs to be addressed. For instance, it may be more appropriate to consider how to reduce the likelihood of emotional exhaustion, or to prevent the tendency to depersonalise, or to enhance one's sense of accomplishment, rather than to use a more general stress reduction approach.

The models exposed in the preceding discussion have something important to contribute towards the understanding of burnout in the teaching profession. To the researcher, the ecological perspective makes a lot of sense in that it regards the environment as an important contributor to burnout. Gold and Roth (1993:30) maintain that burnout occurs as a final step in a progression of unsuccessful attempts by an individual to cope with a variety of conditions that are perceived to be threatening. This clearly indicates that burnout can also be viewed as an individual’s final response to a threatening environment. This final response is characterised by the individual’s feelings of physical depletion, helplessness, depression, detachment and disillusionment.

Having said this, the researcher regards the multidimensional model of burnout as the most appropriate for this study in that it encompasses all three dimensions of burnout, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment.

The researcher believes that in planning strategies for intervention, emphasis should be put on creating a stress-free environment that will minimize the chances of individuals getting burned out.
The subsequent section will attempt to understand the type of professionals that are likely to experience burnout according to literature. Furthermore the factors that are common among professionals who are prone to burnout will be investigated.

2.4 Burnout in service professions.

Earlier on in chapter one it was mentioned that burnout is a condition that prevails in all service professions where employees work with clients. This condition has been observed among staff working in day care centres (Pines & Maslach, 1980; Freudenerger, 1974; Shannon & Saleebey, 1980; Pines & Aronson, 1981), in health workers (Freudenberger, 1974; Pines & Maslach, 1980; Paine & O'Brian 1979), in teaching (Reed, 1979; Hendrickson 1979; Walsh, 1979; Faber & Miller, 1981) as well as in protective services (Daley, 1979).

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:15-20) express the opinion that although burnout is prominent in service professions, it is not only limited to these professions. It can also be found in the 'high-pressure' world of business. They further state that since the origins of burnout lie in the job situation, this phenomenon might also be found in other types of occupations. In these professions it does not occur in the same regularity or carry with it the same social costs as it does in human services where it takes a special character and a special intensity. Maslach (in Schaufeli, 1993:12-13) affirms this view when she states that burnout is not necessarily restricted to human service professions. According to Ryerson and Marks (1982:153-154) the human service profession is particularly prone to burnout due to a unique combination of personality characteristics, professional training, job demands and rewards, organisational structures and political and economic realities. Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:18) enumerate three consequences of burnout that are often felt by people who work with people. These are: the frustration of the helper's idealistic expectations; services to clients are compromised and that society along with the social service institution incur high costs. They further state
that these consequences have to be considered carefully by anyone who wants to understand and deal with burnout.

From the researcher's point of view, these consequences can be explained as follows: The first has to do with a situation where the professional enters the job hoping to find 'everything in perfect order'. In the case of teaching, a teacher joins the profession expecting to get all the support he will require to do his job successfully. He comes to the job expecting that all the physical resources will be at his disposal, he expects to be in contact with learners who are eager and enthusiastic to learn. Above all, he expects to get support from the departmental officials, the principal and his colleagues. On realising that the situation at school is the opposite of what he expected, he becomes frustrated.

The second consequence implies that once the professional realises that the job situation has failed to meet his expectations, he resorts to negative strategies that will ensure his survival at work. As these strategies are usually negative, the service to clients is likely to be compromised.

The third consequence indicates that the public will continue to fund an establishment that is no longer able to render the required standard of service.

Given the fact that authors such as Edelwich and Brodsky (1980), Maslach (in Schaufeli, 1993), and Ryerson and Marks (1982) concur with the view that human service professionals are much more prone to burnout than their counterparts in other services, the researcher believes that the following questions need to be answered: why are human service professionals so prone to burnout? What is it about human services that make them a fertile ground for burnout?

Ryerson and Marks (1982) postulate that human services are characterised by several built-in sources of frustration that eventually lead many dedicated
workers to become ineffective and apathetic. These sources of frustration are: the inability to fulfil one's noble aspirations, criteria for measuring accomplishment and inadequate salaries.

With regard to the inability for one to fulfil one's noble aspirations, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) state that in many cases, people who work in human services, unlike other professionals, are susceptible to disillusioned idealism and disappointed ambition. These people join the profession with the sole aim of helping. They bring with them high ambitions and goals to be accomplished. All they want is to accomplish success in their new jobs. They feel the pressure from within to work and help. Soon thereafter they find themselves faced with criticism, uncooperative and ungrateful clients, lack of financial and emotional rewards, and poor working conditions. Faced with these constraints, 'helpers' develop feelings that they have not been effective in their work. They become angry and discouraged, and they begin to feel a sense of hopelessness.

It is true that many professionals draw their expectations from their backgrounds, professional training and work environments, and many of these expectations formed during the years of training are in contrast to what is taking place in the work situation. According to Paine (1982:12) this increasing disparity between expectations and reality becomes a major source of burnout in new professionals and more gradual, chronic burnout in experienced staff. When staff members realise that their dreams for success do not come true, they burn out.

The researcher agrees with the above exposition. It is true that human service professionals join their professions with the sole aim of helping. They go for training knowing quite well that their jobs will not offer them remuneration packages that can be equated to those offered by commerce and industry. Despite this reality, they undergo training in preparation to be of service to society. Their training exposes them to a variety of theories on how to do the best in their jobs. The information they acquire during training,
together with experiences of authorities in their respective fields empower them with abilities to identify shortcomings in the institutions they hope to be part of once they finish with their studies. They go through their studies with passion, and enthusiasm, looking forward to qualifying as professionals and join society as helpers. As soon as they complete their studies and become part of the workforce, it dawns to them that what they learned at school cannot be easily implemented at work.

They come across a hostile environment that does not reflect what they learned at school. This disparity between expectations and reality becomes a source of frustration and despair.

With regard to the lack of criteria for measuring accomplishment, Edelwick and Brodsky (1980) state that human services do not have a clear criterion for measuring accomplishment. Professionals who come into human services from business and industry often feel that it is much more difficult to set standards for reviewing their own and others' performance in counselling than in their previous work. It is not always possible to quantify cure rates or, once quantified, to assess their implications. The major issue is time: how long is it reasonable to wait before expecting a client to show some progress? Another issue is the lack of continuity in client-helper relationships; if one's job is to treat acute problems and then refer clients to facilities, how does one ever see the results of one's labours?

The above scenario is also applicable to the teaching profession. A teacher is expected to help students master the subject matter. In order to accomplish this, a lot of cooperation from learners, the principal and other staff members is required for teaching and learning to succeed. In addition to this, physical resources and equipment must be at his disposal. The question that arises is: how possible is it for a teacher to measure his or her accomplishment? Does he/she have to wait until the end of the year to see the examination results, and determine whether he/she has been successful in his/her work? Must he rely on quarterly test results or results of class work to see whether he/she is
succeeding or not? If he/she relies on quarterly test results, these may deceive him in that a lot of cribbing and cheating goes on in class.

It is general knowledge that salaries of government servants do not compare well with those paid by business and industry. Having said this, one has to acknowledge the fact that there is a range of pay scales as one goes up the education ladder in the helping professions. Although this is true, low pay is often a complaint. In a study conducted by Farber and Miller (1981:220) the issue of inadequate salaries was mentioned as one of the causes of teacher burnout. In a study conducted by Fore III, Martin and Bender (2002:36) salaries were mentioned as yet another factor that contributes to teacher burnout among special education teachers. The disparity in salaries is often felt when one's old university classmates who went to business or medicine begin to display a lifestyle that one cannot afford. Professionals who are genuinely passionate about what they are doing, willingly accept such sacrifices, but the question is: what happens when this passion fades?

The frustrations discussed in the preceding paragraph are also influenced, to a large extent by a broader set of determining factors which include the field in which one works, the kind of work one does, and the amount and kind of education one has had. In the case studies and interviews conducted by Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:22-25) it became apparent that almost everyone working in the helping services can be placed in one of the following occupational/educational categories: paraprofessionals without formal training; young university idealists; and professionals with masters' degrees (in education, psychology or social work).

Paraprofessionals without formal training consist of individuals who have not received any kind of formal training in the jobs they are doing. Included in this category are untrained individuals who serve as teachers' aides, psychiatric technicians and nurses' aides. This type of work is, by nature a temporary one. It offers too little pay, too much work, and too little power or status to satisfy anyone for very long. Individuals who attempt to build a life around this
career face rapid disillusionment. The choice here is whether to get more education or to leave the field.

University graduates sometimes seek employment in human services with the aim of applying their academic training to working with people. In most cases these professionals do not have experience in the work they do, although their education gives them a better status. Usually these well-intentioned individuals tend to over-identify with clients and otherwise betray a lack of experience to match their enthusiasm. They too, face the choice of improving their credentials or meeting an impasse of ineffectiveness and frustration.

The category of professionals with masters' degrees consists of people who are highly trained to work with people. They too are still susceptible to a wide range of disillusioning factors such as paperwork, heavy caseload, bureaucratic hassles, staff polarisation and others. They also face the paradox that confronts people who enjoy working with people, namely, the fact that upward mobility in the human services occurs through the administrative channel and not through face-to-face dealing with clients.

This therefore indicates that anyone who works in the helping service industry is prone to burnout.

It should be borne in mind that burnout does not just set in. The victim usually passes through a series of unpleasant experiences over time, and these eventually culminate in a person getting burned out. The discussion that follows takes a closer look at the burnout stages.

2.5. Stages of burnout

Burnout is not an event. It comes about as a result of a continuous association with people in stressful situations. Sarros and Sarros (1987:217) maintain that burnout refers to the dysfunctions of everyday responses to prolonged stress. This therefore means that other factors not related to stress
as well as accumulative stress might result in burnout. In their study of burnout, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:27-30) hypothesized four main stages through which people pass before they reach burnout. These stages are: the enthusiasm; stagnation; frustration, and apathy stages. It should be stated that no line could be drawn between any stages of burnout. The progression through the stages is not something that can be traced in precise chronological sequence in any given case. In extreme cases, a professional can go through all the stages on the same day.

2.5.1 Enthusiasm stage

This stage is usually experienced by people who have just entered the profession. They come in with high hopes, high energy, and unrealistic expectations. Unfortunately they do not know what the job is all about. Such professionals spend a lot of their energy and they even volunteer to do extra work. During this stage, they fall victim to over identification with clients. Over identification with clients or patients stems from an excess energy and dedication, a lack of knowledge and experience in the field, and a confusion of one's own needs with those of clients.

The researcher believes that recently qualified teachers do experience this stage. These teachers join the profession with the sole aim of helping the learner. All they want is to see learners succeed. They feel obliged to solve each problem brought to them by learners. This can easily lead to a situation where a teacher over identifies with the learner. It is during this phase that a teacher may feel overwhelmed by the emotional demands imposed on him by his learners. This then becomes a fertile ground for detachment.

Gold and Roth (1993:40) concur with this view when they state that teachers who burn out are those who were once enthusiastic and excited to teach students. Soon they were faced with frustrations that angered and discouraged them.
Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:40) are of the opinion that intervention is important at this stage. Unfortunately it becomes difficult to help people who do not realize that they have a problem. On the other hand, it is most productive to reach people at a time when they have not gone very far down the road of disillusionment and when they still have energy to put into their work.

### 2.5.2 Stagnation stage

Stagnation refers to the process of becoming stalled after an initial burst of enthusiasm. According to Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) it is the loss of the momentum of hope and desire that brings a person into the helping field. This stage begins with the discovery that it is not as easy as anticipated to see or assess the results of one's labours. When one's accomplishments are not recognized, then previously minor annoyances such as low pay and long hours begin to become major problems.

This is the stage where the professional comes to terms with reality. He/she begins to realize that the job cannot substitute everything in life. The emphasis is now on meeting one's personal needs. Issues that were previously of no significance such as money, working hours, and career development now become important.

This stage sets in when a professional realises that his dreams for success will never come true.

### 2.5.3 Frustration stage

In this stage one begins to question one's effectiveness in doing the job and the value of the job itself. The professional begins to ask questions such as: What is the point of trying to help people when they do not respond? What is the point of trying to help people when 'the bureaucracy' frustrates one's efforts?
This phase can be linked to the burnout component of ‘reduced performance accomplishment’. According to Maslach (1982) this component refers to decreased feelings of accomplishment and competence in the burned out care giver. Motivation decreases while frustration goes up, and an unsympathetic attitude predominates. Professionals who pass through this stage do not take care in making decisions, and they also do not care about the outcome. Maslach (1982:77) cites one long time school teacher who said: “My motto is, ‘the more they ask, the less I do’. This is the attitude that ‘a job is a job is a job’. During this stage, emotional, physical and behavioural problems can occur.

2.5.4 Apathy stage

Apathy can be regarded as a natural defence mechanism against frustration. This is when the person is chronically frustrated on the job, yet needs the job to survive. This is when the person resorts to negative strategies that will ensure his survival at work. As these strategies are usually negative, service to clients is likely to be compromised. Personnel experiencing this stage tend to show no concern for their jobs.

In human service professions this may result in a care giver adopting a negative attitude towards the people he/she is suppose to serve. This stage can be equated with the burnout component of ‘depersonalisation’ where a caregiver develops a poor opinion of his clients/patients, expecting the worst from them and even actively disliking them Maslach (1982:2). She further quotes a social worker who expressed her feelings in this way: “I find myself caring less and possessing an extremely negative attitude. I just don’t give a damn anymore”. If such a care giver is not afforded some kind of counselling, this attitude will persist and it will have a negative effect to herself, her clients, and to the institution she works for.
Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:29) caution that two things need to be remembered about the stages of burnout. Firstly, they regard these stages as cyclic. This cycle can repeat itself any number of times in one individual in the same or different jobs. Secondly, this cycle is highly contagious (Cherniss:1980b :172). If a teacher is enthusiastic, the students will be enthusiastic. If a counsellor stagnates, the client too stagnates. If a nurse is frustrated, the patients also become frustrated. If a trainer or supervisor is apathetic, he or she will produce apathetic social workers. This calls for intervention that will break the cycle. Such interventions have to be meaningful and effective, benefiting both the individual and the institution.

The researcher would like to reiterate the point made by Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:27-30) that no line can be drawn between these stages. The progression through the stages cannot be traced precisely in any sequence. A professional can go through all the stages on the same day.

The sub-section that follows aims at reviewing various terms that are commonly associated with burnout. These terms are: stress, depression and anxiety. A brief description of each term will be given, and an attempt will be made to relate it to burnout.

2.6. Relationship between burnout, stress, depression and anxiety

In discussing the burnout syndrome, literature constantly refers to stress, depression and anxiety. In many instances, these terms are related to burnout. For instance, Greenberg (1984:2) defines stress as 'a physical, mental or emotional reaction from an individual's response to environmental tension, conflicts, pressures and other stimuli'. This definition has common elements with some definitions of burnout, like the one given by Pines (1982:189) where he maintains that burnout is 'a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion that results from long term involvement with people in emotionally draining situation.' These definitions seem to be in line with the description of depression. Gotlib and Colby (1987:2) state that the most
prominent feature of depression in adults is the loss of interest in or failing to derive pleasure from usual activities and pastimes. This loss of interest or failure to derive pleasure from one's activities is in line with the characteristic of burnout where a professional becomes exhausted and eventually lose interest in his work. On the other hand, anxiety is characterised by feelings of uncertainty and helplessness in the face of danger (May, 1977:205). This state of helplessness can be equated to reduced personal accomplishment, which is the third dimension of burnout (Maslach, 1982).

The subsequent discussion will focus on stress, depression and anxiety as they are related to burnout.

2.6.1 Relationship between stress and burnout

Many studies on burnout have implied some relationship between stress and burnout. For instance Maslach (1978:56) defined burnout as ".. Emotional exhaustion resulting from the stress of interpersonal contact". Later on, Maslach (1982:30) equated the response to chronic stress to be the basis of a burnout syndrome as individual tolerance for continual stress deteriorates. Capel (1991:36) contends that since burnout is considered to be one of the negative responses to long-term stress, it would then be expected that burnout would increase over time as stress continues to be experienced. In defining teacher burnout Kyriacou (1987:146) states that it is the syndrome resulting from prolonged teacher stress, primarily characterised by physical, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion. Dworkin (1987:33-38) reports that Chernnis (1980), Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) and Paine (1982b) have identified stress as a significant causal element in burnout. Furthermore Strauss, Frame and Forehand (1987) as cited by Mazibuko (1996:29-31) identify a number of conditions characteristic of burnout or its effects. These are: a reaction of the nervous system to stress, leading to a variety of physical diseases; a disruption of personal or academic life as a result of learning stress; destructive feelings of emotional stress as a result of ineffective coping; loss of concern and detachment from those with whom the adolescent
interacts and a cynical and dehumanised perception on the part of adolescents, accompanied by deterioration of the quality of learning activity.

In Mazibuko's (1996) study, burnout is described as the end product of stress. Respondents used this term to describe themselves as feeling consumed, empty, alienated, wasted, let-down and even used-up. This explanation points to a link between stress and burnout.

The term 'stress' has been viewed and defined in a variety of ways. Selye (1976:62) is critical of these definitions and descriptions. He states that these definitions have been loosely used and are very confusing. However, three major models to the study of stress can be identified in literature. Each model emphasizes either an environmental viewpoint (Cooper & Sutherland (1990), Cecil (1987), Cox (1985); a physiological viewpoint (Selye (1976), Wright (1987) or an interactional viewpoint (Lazarus, 1971).

2.6.1.1 The Environmental model

Cooper and Sutherland (1990:25) maintain that although the contemporary approach to understanding stress embraces an interactive viewpoint (i.e. stress is in the eye of the beholder), it is necessary to be aware of potential stressors in the environment. This model regards environmental factors as significant contributors to stress. It views stress as a strain on the individual caused by stimuli in the external environment. This approach identifies environmental events that disrupt normal activity and that may eventually lead to health, behavioural or occupational problems. Cecil (1987) is of the opinion that this model is analogous to definitions of stress in engineering and physics, as stress which exceeds a critical point is viewed as having the potential to strain the individual beyond his adaptive limits. Cox (1985:493) sees stress as 'firmly rooted in the stimulus characteristic of the environment'. Stress is what happens to a person, not what happens within him. Baum, Singer and Baum (1981:4) view stress as a process in which environmental
events or forces, called stressors, threatened an organism's existence and well-being and the organism responds to this threat.

The major shortcoming of this model is that the individual's subjective experience of stress is equated with objective quantification of stressful events, which may not always be accurate (Cecil:1987).

2.6.1.2 The Physiological model

The physiological model views stress in terms of an individual state or condition or response pattern. Selye (1976:64) defined stress as the non-specific biological reaction of the body to any environmental demand. These demands or 'stressors' result in the disruption of a balanced state within the body which may lead to positive as well as negative effects. According to this formulation, stressors are mediated through a process called 'general adaptation syndrome'. If exposure to stress is prolonged, the body begins to adapt to its heightened state of arousal, which may lead to potentially destructive long-term effects on bodily functions.

Wright (1987:20) quotes Kaizer and Polczynski (1983) as reflecting Selye's theory with their statement: 'There are many popular misconception of stress. People cannot be stressful or put under stress. Since stress is a biochemical reaction within the body, stress is simply one possible reaction to pressure, which may be positive or negative. Stress does not cause the body's reaction; it is the body's reaction'.

Although the physiological models of stress have received considerable attention in the literature, this approach conceptualises stress much more narrowly than most contemporary research in this area.
2.6.1.3 The Interactional model

The interactional model of stress is the most comprehensive approach to the study of stress, as it conceptualises stress in the context of an interaction of a person and the environment. With regard to this view, Lazarus (1971:63-64) states that something happens 'out there' which presents a person with a demand or constraint or an opportunity for behaviour. The extent to which the demand is 'stressful' will depend on several things.

Firstly, the demand/constraint/opportunity must be perceived by the 'stressee'. Secondly, he must interpret it, and thirdly he must perceive the potential consequences by successfully coping with the demand as more desirable, than the consequences of leaving the situation unaltered. When emphasizing the relationship between the environment and the reacting individual, Lazarus (1971:63-66) describes the individual's reaction to the environment stressor as dependent upon the perception that is harmful, threatening, or challenging event. When threat occurs, the reaction process mitigates or removes the threat. He labels this process as 'coping'.

The interactional approach to the study of stress, with its emphasis on the active role of the individual in mediating potential stressors in the environment, is a sharp contrast to the other two approaches which view the individual in a more passive role of responding automatically to environmental changes. This model goes beyond stimulus and response-based definitions of stress by emphasizing the ecological transactional nature of the stress phenomenon. This does not focus only on stress, but also provides a more comprehensive view of the function of stress management programmes to change either environmental conditions, cognitive appraisal and/or behavioural reactions.
The preceding exposition points to the existence of a close relationship between stress and burnout. However, Sarros (1988:177) is of the opinion that burnout differs from stress in fundamental ways. The most crucial difference is that burnout is a response to distress.

According to Selye (1974:5) distress is the negative form of stress that originates from unpleasant experiences. Persistent experiences of distress deplete reserves of adaptation energy, and may contribute to burnout. On the other hand, eustress, which is a positive form of stress is beneficial and therapeutic in that it provides individuals with the incentive and challenge to achieve. Adams (1980:1) suggests that a certain level of stress may be appropriate, even necessary for 'peak effectiveness' in one's work supports this view. He further states that a certain amount of stress helps improve job performance. Only when one's level of stress increases beyond the 'comfort zone' does stress become dysfunctional. However, Gmelch (1982:2) argues that 'too often the level of stress goes beyond the optimum and becomes harmful, even dangerous to one's well being and to his job performance'. Swent (1978:3) is of the opinion that stress causes people to look for solutions to their problems, and if one alternative is blocked, they seek another. However, if the anxiety increases until the individual is faced with excessive stress, solutions may be destructive rather than productive. Swent (1978) concludes by saying that it is at this stage that psychological and physiological changes may contribute to disease and negatively impact professional performance.

A close scrutiny of the models of stress and burnout indicates that the difference between these phenomena is embedded in the conceptual models of the two concepts. While stress is conceptualised in terms of stimulus-based, response-based or interactional models, burnout is conceptualised in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment (Ngidi:1998:24). Stress manifests itself psychologically and behaviourally, as well as physiologically. Emotional exhaustion, which is the core of burnout, is, however traditionally regarded as a stress-related variable.
The researcher has observed that in pursuance of the study of burnout, terms such as stress, depression and anxiety often crop up. This indicates that somehow depression and anxiety have a link with burnout. The purpose of the subsequent section will be to explore whatever relationship exists between burnout on one hand and depression and anxiety on the other.

2.6.2 Relationship between depression, anxiety and burnout

2.6.2.1 Depression

The concept of depression has a number of meanings. It covers a wide range of emotional states, ranging in severity from normal everyday moods of sadness to psychotic episodes with increased risk of suicide. Some of the symptoms of depression are: sad or low mood, reduced ability to experience pleasure, pessimism, inhibition and retardation action, and a variety of physical complaints. Coyne (1986:4) has made a distinction among the emotional, cognitive, and motivational symptoms of depression.

2.6.2.1.1 Emotional, cognitive and motivational symptoms of depression

Most depressed persons report sadness and dejection as their main complaint. They are also anxious and irritable. Coyne (1986:5) cite studies conducted by Wissman, Klerman and Paykel (1971) who found that depressed persons are also characterised by intense anger.

Coyne (1986) further states that ten to fifteen percent of severely depressed patients deny feelings of sadness, reporting instead that all emotional experience, including sadness has been blunted or inhibited. The identification of these persons as depressed depends upon the presence of other symptoms. The inhibition of emotional expression in severely depressed persons may extend to crying. Whereas mild and moderately
depressed persons may readily and frequently cry, as they become more depressed, may continue to feel like crying, but complain that no tears come. Mildly and moderately depressed persons may feel that every activity is a burden, yet still derive some satisfaction from their accomplishment. For severely depressed persons, life can become stale, flat and not amusing. This may affect their relationship with people who are close to them, such as the spouse and children. A sense of a wall is created between the depressed person and the other. This explanation tallies with 'detachment technique' – which Maslach (1993:21-23) defines as a professional's ideal of blending compassion with emotional distance. It is when the professional attempts to distance himself from the recipient or client.

Depressed persons tend to view themselves, their situations and their future possibilities in negative and pessimistic terms. They voice discouragement, hopelessness and helplessness. They see themselves as inadequate and deficient in some crucial way. Thoughts of death and suicide are common among such people. Depressed persons' involvement in their daily lives are interpreted by them in terms of loss, defeat and deprivation, and they expect failure when they undertake an activity. They may criticise themselves for minor shortcomings. These people tend to generalise from negative experiences, ignoring positive features of their situations. They blame themselves for their difficulties, and they see their defects as stable global attributes. These symptoms of depression are similar to 'reduced personal accomplishment' which is another dimension of burnout (Maslach: 1993).

Depressed persons have difficulty in mobilising themselves to perform even the most simple task. Coyne (1986: 6-7) state that encouragement, expression of support, even threats and coercion seem only to increase their inertia, leading others to make attributions of laziness, stubbornness and malingering. Frequently depressed persons fail to take a minimal initiative to remedy their situations or do so half-heartedly. They often procrastinate. Depressed people are avoidant and escapist in their longing for refuge from
demands and responsibilities. In more severe depression, there may be psychomotor retardation, expressed in slowed body movements, slowed and monotonous speech, even muteness.

The symptoms of depression as alluded to in the preceding paragraph seem to link with those of burnout. In this way, one may conclude that burned out persons do experience some symptoms of depression.

2.6.2.2 Anxiety

Byrne and Rosenman (1990:5) describe anxiety as an emotion characterised by intense feelings of inner distress and anguish, and by associated behavioural and physiological features. They further state that as with all emotions and feeling states, it is difficult to distinguish anxiety from fear. They state that while fear is a momentary reaction to a threat, anxiety is a lasting feeling of unavoidable doom. Anxiety-ridden individuals are continuously unhappy, worrisome and pessimistic, irrespective of existing or nonexistent dangers. A fear-ridden individual can escape from a threatening situation by fighting or running away, whereas an anxious individual doubts that any action can save him. Wolman (1994:6) is of the opinion that anxiety temporarily affects one's intellectual function, especially memory and the ability to express oneself. It often produces feelings of inferiority, irritability, anger and hatred directed against other, but mostly against oneself. Such feelings are often experienced by burned out individuals (Freudenberger: 1974:161).

The Nature of anxiety

May (1977:204-205) cites scholars of anxiety such as Freud (1964), Goldstein (1940) and Horney (1937) who agree that anxiety is a diffuse apprehension, and it is unspecific, vague and objectless. Whereas fear subsides as soon as a threatening situation disappears, anxiety tends to stay with the individual for a long time, and it may even appear in one's dreams at night. May (1977) further states that anxiety is characterised by feelings of uncertainty and
helplessness in the face of the danger. It attacks in the ‘core’ or ‘essence’ of the personality. It threatens one’s self-esteem, one’s experience of one’s self as a person, as well as one’s feeling of being worth of. The threat may be to physical life (the threat of death), or to psychological existence (the loss of freedom, meaninglessness), or the threat may be to some other value which one identifies with one’s existence (patriotism, success).

May (1977:207) contends that the occasion of anxiety varies with different people as widely as the values on which they depend vary. But what will always be true in anxiety is that the threat is to a value held by that particular individual to be essential to his/her existence and, consequently, to his/her security as a personality. The fact that anxiety is a threat to the essential rather than to the peripheral, it invades the total individual, penetrating his/her whole subjective universe. One can neither stand outside and objectify it, nor can one see it separate from oneself, since the very perception with which one looks will also be invaded by anxiety. May (1977) concludes that anxiety is objectless because it strikes at that basis of the psychological structure on which the perception of one’s self as distinct from the world of objects occur. The objectless nature of anxiety arises from the fact that the security base of the individual is threatened, and since it is in terms of this security base that the individual has been able to experience him/herself as a self in relation to objects, the distinction between subject and object also breaks down.

The preceding discussion reveals the complex nature of anxiety. The question to be addressed is: in what way is anxiety related to burnout? In describing anxiety, Byrne and Rosenman (1990) state that it is an emotion characterised by intense feelings of inner distress and anguish. Wolman (1994) sees anxiety as a lasting feeling of unavoidable doom. These descriptions concur with May’s (1977) postulation that anxiety tends to attack the core of the personality. Once this happens, the individual affected begins to doubt his abilities. This develops to a state where the individual develops negative feelings about others. This contention agrees with Maslach’s (1982:5) where she states that feeling negatively about others can progress
until it encompasses being down on oneself. To illustrate this point further, Maslach (1982) cites a legal services attorney who reported as follows: "I thought of myself as a sensitive and caring person, but often I'm not sensitive and caring when I'm with clients – so maybe I'm really deluding myself about the real me". Changes that are currently taking place in the South African system of education are likely to threaten teachers who have been on the field for quite a long time. These teachers may feel powerless and inadequate when it comes to carrying out their duties as a result of the new approach to education. Such negative feelings are likely to precipitate burnout. In the study conducted by Evers, Brouwers and Tom (2002:227-243) it was found that the more negative the teachers’ attitudes towards the new approach to teaching appeared to be, the more they appeared to suffer from depersonalisation and emotional exhaustion.

This comment indicates that with burnout, the crumbling of the self-esteem sets in, and the individual affected begins to doubt his/her sense of self-worthiness. This clearly shows that burned out individuals do experience anxiety.

The above discussion points to a close relationship between burnout, anxiety and depression. The section that follows will now focus on the type of teachers that burn out, as well as the factors that cause burnout in service professions in general, and in the teaching profession in particular.

2.7 Factors that contribute to burnout

Hunter (1977) in Gold & Roth: (1993:2-3) asserts that teaching has been identified as one the most stressful occupations. This assertion is supported by Bloch (1978:56-59) who states that many teachers are being treated for symptoms soldiers in combat are likely to experience. Samples (1976) observed that schools have become the most stressful ecologies in our society. Studies conducted by Dunham (1989) and Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978a) confirm these postulations. These findings and observations are true if one looks at what obtains in black secondary schools in South Africa. The overcrowded classrooms, disruptive and violent students, lack of resources
and facilities, lack of support for teachers, all these create difficulties for teachers. The researcher is of the opinion that these factors and many more are a direct cause of teacher burnout in black secondary schools. The discussion that follows aims at addressing these factors.

2.7.1 Organisational factors

According to Pierce and Molloy (1990:37-38) organisational factors have to do with the role of the school in burnout as well as the role the employer can play in enhancing teacher burnout. The study conducted by Pines and Aronson (1981) indicated that different organisational environments significantly affected staff burnout rates within organisations. Ways in which the school setting contributes to burnout include lack of clarity in the definition of teachers’ duties, large classes, poor availability of resources, as well as cramped working conditions. Employer contributions to burnout include poor communication and implementing decisions that affect teachers without having consulted them, and a general lack of formal support systems for teachers.

In this subsection, the following organisational factors will be explored: discipline and control, overcrowding, lack of resources and facilities and the lack of formal support for teachers.

2.7.1.1 Discipline

Traditionally, teachers enter the profession because of their love of teaching subject matter and their commitment to helping young people. Many become disillusioned, however, as they discover that a substantial amount of class time will have to be spent on non-instructional duties. One of the least liked duties – and one for which teachers received the least training – is discipline. Trying to control students who are difficult, disruptive and disrespectful becomes the most frustrating task in the teaching profession. According to Dunham (1989:33) the term ‘disruptive’ refers to a wide range of behaviour problems, which include students who refuse to cooperate and do little or no work in class, and the student who is openly aggressive towards other
students and teachers. Jones (1980) as cited by Duke and Meckel (1984:108) claims that 80 percent of all classroom disruptions are incidences of disrespectful behaviours. Alschuler (1980:29) likens schools to battlegrounds where students successfully engage in tactics to avoid paying attention to teachers for more than 50 percent of the time.

This type of behaviour is very prevalent particularly in black secondary schools in South Africa. Students defy the teachers' authority, thus creating a state of tension and hostility (Mwamwenda:1995:311). Teachers in these schools have to contend with students who seem not to be interested in learning. At times their behaviour tends to resemble that of animals in a zoo. This kind of behaviour is reported in Dunham's (1989:41) investigation where a teacher in a secondary school resigned because she could no longer cope with the work pressure. This teacher reported as follows:

"The causes of stress for me are the poor discipline in pupils; unsolicited rudeness and constant talking; noise and the constant battle to create a stimulating but tranquil and ordered environment in the classroom. I feel I'm a zoo-keeper, not a teacher".

It should be stressed, however, that the school cannot function without discipline. Mohanoe (1983:81) and Duke and Meckel (1984:142) argue correctly when they contend that in order to bring about smooth running of the school and to facilitate learning, the teacher has to exercise discipline over his/her pupils. This view is echoed by Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1993:133) when they state that it is the task of the teacher to control and manage pupils' behaviour in order to ensure that the goals of teaching and learning are achieved. For most of the time, the teacher in the classroom finds himself having to spend a great portion of the class period disciplining students who constantly provoke him with an intention of disrupting the learning process. This puts a lot of stress on teachers who have to shout disciplinary instructions repeatedly. No wonder burned out staff experience 'depersonalisation' which is the psychological distance maintained by the burned out individual between himself and those for whom he carries
responsibility. Resorting to such tactics helps the teacher temporarily to cope in an environment that has a potential of burning him out. Furthermore in a study conducted by Evers, Tomic and Brouwers, (2004:7) it was found that a teacher's ability to cope with disruptive behaviour significantly contributed to depersonalisation.

Unfortunately teacher education does very little in terms of preparing student teachers equipping them with skills to handle such situations. It is not unusual to hear a teacher say: 'But I never expected I would have to be a policeman in school!'. Teachers facing this kind of situation might resort to various tactics that will 'help' them in dealing with disciplinary problems. Some of these tactics might be detrimental to the teacher's health state or even to his whole career.

In all cases secondary schools cater for adolescents. This stage of growth is characterised by spiritual, sexual and psychic maturation. It is also a stage where children begin to question and reject adult imposed-norms. Since behaviour in schools is based on adult norms, adolescents are likely to thwart the authority of the school and teachers. This is where disciplinary problems begin. Teachers who constantly find themselves having to deal with such problems at the same time having no knowledge of how to deal with them are very likely to give up.

In his studies of student teachers Doyle (1979) noted that early rule violations by students are aimed at 'testing' the teacher's classroom management ability. If his reactions to such behaviour indicate fear or insecurity, the frequency of such behaviour tends to increase. Also the number of learners who violate rules increases. In black secondary schools where overcrowding is the order of the day, a teacher may resort to various tactics that enable him to cope in a disruptive classroom. One such tactic would be to ignore disruptions and pretend as if all is normal. This strategy is likely to defeat the aims of teaching and learning since learners will be engaged in disruptive activities and ignore learning. Another strategy would be for the teacher to address each problem as it arises. This strategy is likely to defeat the ends of
teaching and learning in that a lot of classroom time will be spent restoring order. This strategy can also frustrate a dedicated teacher because at the end of each class period he will realise that he is accomplishing nothing — hence he will experience 'reduced performance accomplishment' which is the burnout component that refers to the decrease in the feelings of accomplishment and competence (Barling et. al 1983:154).

Teachers are members of society. They have private lives as well. Whatever happens in their public work lives will also affect their private lives and vice versa. Teachers have to deal with the emotional stresses and strains of a service-oriented profession in which the lives of children are entrusted to their care. A lot is said about how much teachers influence learners, but very little attention is given to the ways in which learners influence teachers. Every teacher, to varying degrees, serves as counsellor, confessor, and surrogate parent to learners during the school year. He or she is also expected to play a role in providing learners with knowledge, to be a disciplinarian, a good communicator and an evaluator. When these roles have to be performed simultaneously, many teachers may feel that they are overloaded. The overload comes about as a result of too many roles to play, too many people to serve and too little time to adequately cater for their needs — a situation ripe for burnout (Maslach 1982:38). Helping learners with their personal problems is an important part of successful learner-teacher relationship, but such work can drain the energy of a conscientious teacher. This can also affect the teacher's private life. Maslach (1982) postulates that the frustrations and emotional exhaustion of the care giver may arise from the job, but their impact may be strongly felt by the care giver's family and friends. She further states that when the work drains all your emotional energy, you are less able and willing to give to others outside of the work — even if those 'others' are presumably the most significant and cherished people in your life. Maslach (1982) further quotes a teacher who said: "My energies were flowing too heavily in one direction (the job) for me to be able to give much time and effort to our marriage. It had never been a perfect relationship, but might have
worked if I had been able to bring more to it. At the beginning of the sixth school year, my husband and I separated."

This indicates that the work situation can be a fertile ground for burnout, and the consequences thereof can be felt by people outside the work situation.

2.7.1.2 Overcrowding

Black secondary school classrooms are also characterised by overcrowding. When describing 'overcrowding', the Educational Journal (Jan-Feb 1981, Vol 11 No. 5) states that it is an evil that inevitably leads to the lowering of standards. Over the years measures were introduced to address this problem. Duminy (1967:6) mentions the double session system as a temporary measure introduced in 1955 to alleviate the overcrowding problem.

This system did not succeed after the Cingo Commission on education in the Transkei found that it was contributing to a high drop out rate in primary schools. Since then the double session system has gradually disappeared in most parts of the country.

Throughout South Africa black schools are characterised by high-teacher pupil ratio. Although the democratic government has attempted to address this, a number of black schools are still overcrowded.

The question that has to be answered is: in what ways does overcrowding contribute to teacher burnout? Maslach (1982) has stated that many job settings that are burnout-prone have one thing in common - that is overload. The overload can be in the form of too much information to handle too much paper work to deal with, or even too many people to serve and too little time to attend to their needs. Apart from presenting the learning material and knowledge to a group of learners, teachers are also expected to attend to individual learner's problems. This is called 'individualised learning'. It is based on the assumption that each learner must be assisted to develop according to his/her own capabilities. In the school this means that every learner must be encouraged to progress and learn successfully from the stage of development at which he/she finds him/herself at the moment (Duminy &
Songhe: 1987:22-23). Given the number of learners in each classroom and the amount of time allocated for each class period, it becomes almost impossible for the teacher to implement the principle of individualised instruction. A teacher working under such conditions will take a long time to know each learner by name, let alone his strengths and weaknesses. It is also interesting to note that the problem of overcrowding has affected university lecturers as well. About three years ago, one Sunday newspaper reported on an academic who commented as follows: "The number of students in some courses is so high that the lecturers have no energy, time nor desire to do research - they are burnt out". Although this situation has changed in South African universities, the comment does indicate that overcrowding can present a stressful environment for teachers.

Maslach (1982) asserts that the emotional strain of dealing with many people may lead the provider to pull back psychologically and get less involved with each of the clients. The worker avoids physical contact by 'standing farther away' from the other person. This emotional detachment is not the only response to the problem of dealing with too many people. Some care givers may get so overwhelmed by the presence of people who need their attention, that they may lash out at the people themselves. Greenhaus et al (1987:201) support this idea when they state that burned out workers become callous towards other and begin to depersonalise relationships with the people they serve, treating them more like objects and less like people.

This exposition partly explains why teachers who work under such conditions speak of their learners in derogatory or flip terms. This practice is common in black secondary schools where teachers refer to learners using terms that point to a particular physical deformity in the learner. Research has shown that this practice is likely to dent the learner's self-concept. A teacher who has to deal with more than fifty learners in one classroom will not succeed in giving each learner the attention he/she deserves. Over and above the number of learners to be attended to, the teacher has to cope with disciplinary problems that crop up whilst the lesson is in progress. Furthermore the time allocated to the class period is so short that the period comes to an end with
the teacher having accomplished very little. If this state of affairs is allowed to continue unabated, black secondary schools remain a fertile ground for stress and burnout.

2.7.1.3 Too much paperwork

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:137) regard 'too much paperwork' as one of the factors that cause burnout in individuals. By 'paperwork' they refer to the record-keeping requirements of the organisations individuals work for. They state that in most cases helping professions operate to a great extent under government auspices (national, regional or local). This requires putting up with a detailed record keeping that cautious government bureaucracies insist upon.

School, universities, hospitals, prisons and other government institutions require that records should be kept. This is the means by which these institutions account for themselves. Since professionals who are required to keep records do not have secretarial services to do this job, they end up spending less time with their clients. Paperwork is frustrating because it takes people away from the job they want to do. In Edelwich and Brodsky's words, "paper work makes the front-line worker an administrator, and takes the administrator further away from the front-line work' (1980:138). The argument against excessive paperwork as a contributing factor to burnout originates from the fact that the records that have to be kept usually deal with what one has already done or with what one is planning to do. Although this may be important to the organisation, individuals in helping professions desire to live and work in the present. The person-to-person contact is what attracted them to the field. Paper work undermines this and puts a distance between the person serving and the person served.

Although paperwork drains the energies of staff at all levels, its effects are increasingly felt as a person ascends the organisational ladder (Cockburn, 1996:88). The more training and responsibility one has, the more one is burdened with paper work. People in charge of large organisations discover
that paperwork grows in proportion to the complexity of the organisation and the number of clients it serves.

In her study where principals had to identify their main sources of stress, Cockburn (1996:90) discovered that paperwork was mentioned as one of the main sources of stress. This confirms the notion that as one climbs the organisational ladder, one becomes increasingly involved with paperwork.

2.7.1.4 Workload

Research indicates that workload is a potential source of stress. According to Cooper and Sutherland (1990:34) both overload and underload are acknowledged as stressors. They identify two types of workload, namely quantitative overload/underload which refers to an employee being given too many or too few tasks to complete in a given period of time, and qualitative overload/underload where the individual feels incapable of doing the given task, or the task does not utilise the skills of the person. Professionals who experience quantitative overload are mostly those who have to work under time pressure to meet deadlines. Studies show that stress levels increase as deadlines draw near. Cooper and Sutherland (1990:35) quote Frankenhaeuser and Johanson (1986) as linking the concept of overload to the rate of working. This becomes the case when the worker is unable to control the pace of work. They further refer to a national survey in the USA conducted by Mongolis et.al (1974) where quantitative overload was found to be significantly related to a number of symptoms of stress, namely poor work motivation, low self esteem, absenteeism, escapist drinking and an absence of suggestions to employers.

Cooper and Paine (1978:84-85) quote Miller (1960) as stating that overload in most systems leads to breakdown. They further cite French and Kaplan (1970) who found that objective quantitative overload is strongly linked to cigarette smoking. Several other studies have reported association of qualitative work overload with cholesterol level. In their studies French and Caplan (1973:66) suggested that both qualitative and quantitative overload produce at least nine different symptoms of psychological and physical strain:
job dissatisfaction, job tension, lower self esteem, threat, embarrassment, high cholesterol level, increased heart rate, skin resistance and smoking.

In human services industry, overload is characterised by too many people and too little time to adequately serve to their needs. This situation is found in schools, in hospitals, in prisons and in different work environments where human beings come for assistance. Professionals in this industry can do a good job when dealing with fewer people a day. When the number of people they see daily increases, the signs of burnout show up - which are: emotional exhaustion, more negative feelings about the public, and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment.

Maslach (1982:38) quotes 'Bill', a West Coast welfare worker who expressed the situation in this way: "there is just so many people, you cannot afford to sympathise with them all. If I only had fifty clients, I might be able to help them individually. But with three hundred clients in my case load, I'm lucky if I can see that they all get their cheques".

Furthermore in the study investigating the effects of burnout on school administrators, Sarros (1988:180-181) found that an excessive workload contributed to feelings of emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment in school administrators. Mtshali (1992:12-14) cites Murphy (1982) as equating the principal's work with that of managers in large corporations. Mtshali (1992) further states that the action-laden environment in which both principals and managers operate tend to expose them to risks and decisions that are so crucial that they may lead to burnout. Koff, Laffey, Olson and Cichond (1981:2) emphasise:

"Much like their counterparts in business, principal's jobs are open-ended with no definite work hours. They often work from sunrise to sunset, and their primary tasks are management and decision-making. Fatigue from work is a frequent complaint, and common ailments include cardiovascular problems, high blood pressure, irregular heart beats as well as ulcers, anxiety and depression".
Lastly the findings of the study conducted among special education teachers by Fore III, Martin and Bender (2002:38) indicated that "stress, coupled with workload manageability lead to burnout".

2.7.1.5 Lack of training in interpersonal and administrative skills

Helping professionals need to have special training and preparation for working closely with other people and for performing administrative duties. While their training programmes are rich in teaching them skills to perform their daily duties, very little is mentioned with regard to handling repeated, intense, emotional interaction with people. Maslach (1982:39) cites a poverty lawyer who reported as follows in so far as training in this area:

"I was trained in law, but not in how to work with people who would be my clients. And it was that difficult in dealing with people and their personal problems, hour after hour, that became the problem for me, not the legal matters per se."

The same report can be expected from nurses, psychiatrists, teachers, correctional service officials and many more people involved in the service industry. Lack of knowledge in interpersonal skills can be dangerous especially to recently qualified caregivers. These professionals may over identify with clients or patients, and getting over involved is one of the main sources of burnout.

In addition to interpersonal skills, helping professionals need some kind of training in administrative skills. Most human service administrators were not trained to be administrators. They rose from direct service positions to supervisory or administrative posts. For instance the head nurse was at one time a bedside nurse, the school principal was yesterday's classroom teacher. Their common complaint is that their original career training did not prepare them to handle an administrative job such as office management, bookkeeping and writing proposals for funds. Such administrators are also expected to evaluate staff members' performance, resolve conflicts and make decisions that will affect the lives of the individual people they know
(colleagues, staff members, students). Administrators in such positions are likely to get frustrated by struggling with tasks that they were not trained for.

2.7.1.6 Lack of control

Maslach (1982:40) states that burnout is high when people lack a sense of control over the work they do. This lack of control can stem from being told by the supervisors exactly what to do, when to do it, and how, with no leeway to do it differently. Lack of control can be a result of having no direct input on policy decisions affecting one's job. It can also arise when a person has no opportunity to get away from a stressful situation or is given more responsibility than he or she can handle. Having no control over one's work leads to helplessness, which, in turn, makes the helper feel more frustrated and angry and, will also promote feelings of failure and ineffectiveness.

Buunk and Schaufeli (1993:57) cite Ganster (1989) as stating that lack of control as a stressor is generally acknowledge to affect mental health and well-being of people in organisations. They further cite studies conducted by Gray-Toft and Anderson (1981) and Landsbergis (1988) who found that among Swedish nursing home employees, burnout was significantly higher in jobs that combined high work load demands with low perceived control.

The researcher believes that employers should give employees some degree of control over the tasks they perform. This will make the employees feel that they are in charge, and will help in reducing burnout that is brought by the feeling of not being in control of one's work.

2.7.1.7 The imbalance between investments and returns

Naturally human beings expect some reward such as gratitude in return from other to whom they provide caring, empathy and attention. But within the health professions, such expectations are often not fulfilled (Buunk & Schaufeli:1993:56). The reason for this might be that patients often do not follow advice or guidelines, and may therefore improve slowly or not at all.
As a result of such processes, nurses or health care workers may often feel that what they invest in their relationships with patients is not in proportion to what they get out of them. Health workers in this situation might think that they are not doing their job well. Ryerson and Marks (1982:153) state that the human service industry is characterised by a built-in non-reciprocal balance of giving. The professional gives, the client takes. While this imbalance is generally accepted, there are often not sufficient job rewards to 'feed' the employee. Poor career ladders, large caseloads, little financial incentives, lack of administrative recognition combine to overload the service professional.

This situation tends to prevail in most human service professions where professionals are expected to serve other human beings with honesty and dedication. It is the researcher's opinion that the same conditions prevail in the teaching profession. Teachers are expected to do everything possible to help the learners succeed. On the other hand, learners are do everything to frustrate the teacher's efforts.

2.7.1.8Lack of resources and facilities

Black schools are characterised by a shortage of a wide range of facilities. These include libraries, laboratories, home economics facilities and many more. The media constantly reports that black secondary schools still suffer from a serious shortage of books, laboratories and physical education equipment. This shortage impacts negatively to both teachers and learners. A science teacher in such a school is compelled to improvise when it comes to the practical component of the lesson. This can be very frustrating to a teacher who is eager to see his learners learning. The teacher wastes a lot of time trying to obtain materials to improvise in the laboratory. At the end of the year when learners fail the examination, the teacher might feel that the whole year has been wasted. This can make such a teacher to believe that he is accomplishing nothing at school. This can lead to a state whereby this teacher begins to experience 'reduced performance accomplishment' which is
a burnout component that refers to decreasing feelings of accomplishment and competence in the burned out care giver (Barling et. al. 1983:154).

2.7.1.9 Lack of social support

Lack of social support has been found to enhance burnout in several studies. Cobb (1976:300) defines social support as "that piece of information which convinces people that others love them and care for them (emotional support), that others respect them and value them (affirmative support), and that they are part of a network of communication and mutual support (network support). Studies conducted by Pines (1982) suggest that people who have social support readily available are less likely to experience burnout. Social support includes six functions, namely listening, professional support, professional challenge, emotional support, emotional challenge and the sharing of social reality (Pines, Aronson & Kafry: 1981:44). These researchers found that listening (without giving advice or making judgements) and emotional support (having someone who is on your side and who appreciates what you are doing) were the most important functions to alleviate burnout.

Furthermore a number of reviews have shown the benefits of social support for psychological and physical health in the face of general life stressors (Cobb, 1976; Dean & Lin, 1977; Kaplan, Cassel & Gore, 1977) and for occupational stress in particular (LaRocco et.al. 1980). Several writers on human service agencies emphasise the importance of social support (Chernnis, 1980; Pines et.al., 1981), and some have reported empirical data on its negative relationship with burnout (Pines et.al 1981; Shinn et. al., 1981; Shinn & Morch, 1982). In their study, Holt et.al 1987) found that teachers with low burnout were less alienated than teachers with high burnout, suggesting the importance of social support from other teachers.

Teaching is regarded as an isolated profession. This is confirmed by Galloway et.al (1982) in Dunham (1986:43) when they state that teaching can
be an extraordinarily lonely profession. They further contend that the loneliness in the classroom is compounded by that of the staff room. Teachers have to bear their frustrations in painful isolation. Beginning teachers usually enter the profession hoping that they will now be part of a group for which they have worked long and hard. Soon they find that teachers are an isolated group vulnerable to public criticism and attack.

The structure of the school also enhances isolation. For most of the time teachers are with learners in class. They find very little time to interact with one another in the staff room. Tea breaks are so short, and if classroom problems intrude, they may be robbed of those few minutes. In a study of teachers and schools, Goodlad (1984:187) refers to teacher isolation and reported that 'there was little data to suggest active, ongoing exchange of ideas and practices across schools, between groups of teachers, or between individuals in the same school. Teacher-to-teacher links for mutual assistance in teaching or collaborative school improvement were weak or non-existent.'

Goodlad's (1984) exposition befits what obtains in black schools. Teachers do not have people who are prepared to listen to their problems without making judgement. In many cases when teachers cry out for help, authorities become defensive, and easily dismiss such requests. This tends to impact negatively on teachers, especially the new ones in the profession. This is confirmed by studies conducted by Gold (1985) and Gold et. al.(1993) which reveal that new teachers report more feelings of loneliness and isolation as part of their professional life.

Black schools do not have psychological or remedial services. Teachers and learners who experience psychological or emotional problems and are in need of help are just left to their own devices. In many cases these teachers do not get support at all. The community blames them for all the wrongs that occur in school, while the employing department accuses them of not dedicating themselves to their work. Teachers who find themselves in this situation may
develop feelings of disillusionment, which ultimately lead to burnout (Gold, 1985).

Gold and Roth (1993:40-42) regard disillusionment as the final stage which ultimately leads to burnout. They regard this stage as a point of no return. An individual who reaches this stage either leaves the profession or, if he must stay, the job becomes devoid of the meaning it once held for them.

The researcher believes that there is quite a substantial number of teachers in black schools who have reached the stage of disillusionment. Those who find jobs outside the profession have left, while those remaining behind do so because their training did not equip them with skills that are marketable outside the school. If this assumption is true, one can only imagine the damage caused to these teachers' state of health as well to the students they teach.

2.7.1.10 Poor communication and teacher involvement in decisions affecting them

Communication can be defined as a process by which two or more parties exchange information and share meaning. Its main purpose is to achieve a co-ordinated effort. Information sharing is needed to define problems, to generate and evaluate alternatives, to implement decisions and to control and evaluate results (Moorhead & Griffin; 1989:569-570). Furthermore communication is essential for motivating people, implementing plans, providing necessary guidance and transferring ideas of the educational leader to other people (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:210).

From this it is clear that without effective communication, an organisation will not succeed in achieving its goals. This is also true for schools. Teachers need to be motivated from time to time. This can be done by word of mouth or by formal occasions where their efforts are officially recognised. If the principal is a poor communicator, teachers will never know whether they are
doing well or not. This can make them feel unimportant, which in turn might affect their productivity.

Teachers need guidance. It is only through effective communication that teachers can understand whether what they are doing is in line with the objectives of the school or not. Through communication their duties are clarified and vague rules and regulations are simplified. This will contribute positively to the success of the school.

The researcher is of the opinion that in many black schools, teachers do not take part in decisions affecting their work. In many cases the principal and the governing body decide on behalf of teachers. Teachers are not consulted on methods of discipline and on a wide range of issues that directly affect them. The researcher believes that teachers should be involved in issues and matters that affect their work directly. Teachers get frustrated when someone from the top tells them how they should do their work.

2.7.2 Interpersonal factors

At the interpersonal level the question of interest is: What role do other people (students, colleagues, parents and community members) play in burnout? Since the teacher is in constant contact with these people, this question aims at addressing the impact of the social environment on teachers. If a teacher experiences tensions and difficulties as a result of his/her association with people around him, these tensions are likely to be reflected in his behaviour towards others. Interpersonal factors to be reviewed here include learner violence, academically poor learners and the deteriorating culture of learning.

2.7.2.1 Learner violence

Learner violence is common throughout the world. The 1981 ILO report has documented an increase in classroom or school violence in Israel, the United
Kingdom, France and Sweden. Nwana (1979) in Ezewu (1986:108-109) maintains that one of the major offences by learners in Nigerian schools includes assault and insult directed at fellow learners and staff. Cole and Walker (1989:1989:16) contend that there is an increase in violence in scholastic institutions in the United States of America. They cite statistics from the National Education Association as revealing that during the year 1979-1980, there were 113 000 acts of aggression towards teachers. This corresponds to 5 per cent of the teachers in state education which is an increase of 43 000 cases over 1977-1978. About 25 per cent of teachers report having experienced fear of attacks by learners. This report also reveals that attacks on teachers in secondary schools outnumber those made in primary schools by 5:1. These attacks are carried out by male learners and are directed at male teachers.

This situation has some similarities with what is taking place in black secondary schools, however in black schools the problem is more complex than the one described above. In these schools, teachers' lives are not only threatened by learner violence. There are thugs who have easy access in schools. These thugs have contributed in destabilising schools in the KwaZulu-Natal province. Occasionally there are press reports of physical aggression on teachers in schools. Although this information is scanty, fragmented and not properly documented, it does give an indication of what really take place in black secondary schools.

A school is as a small society. Whatever happens in a wider society is likely to be reflected in school (Gage & Berliner:1984). Over the years, the black society has been and is still plagued by various forms of violence. This violence ranges from sexual abuse, to car hijacking, to murder. Black children are exposed to violence at an early age. The KwaZulu-Natal province has been a major flash point of political violence for the last ten years. This violence has had a detrimental effect on the smooth running of schools. A number of schools had to close down as a result of fights that took place within communities. Many families had to abandon their homes and seek
refuge in urban areas. Teaching and learning had to be interrupted repeatedly. This state of affairs did not only threaten the lives of learners, but also teachers felt very unsafe at work. Although political conflicts have subsided, violent acts of a criminal nature are still reported.

The media has reported many cases of teachers killed within the school premises. A few years ago, a weekend newspaper reported a murder of a teacher at Swelihle High School in Umlazi –South of Durban. This teacher was gunned down as he left the school premises. In the same year, the the same newspaper reported a fatal shooting of a principal in the school premises of Mzuvele High School - North of Durban. This led to a decision by teachers to boycott classes until the provincial department of education guaranteed their safety at school by employing armed security guards in schools. The then MEC for education promised to look into the situation, but meanwhile asked teachers to return to class.

This situation angered and frustrated many teachers who felt that the department was not acting in their interest. Dedicated teachers who find themselves in this situation might leave the profession as they may feel that they are accomplishing nothing.

2.7.2.2 Academically poor learners and the deteriorating culture of learning

About five years ago, a Sunday newspaper reported that academics in 21 South African universities expressed a feeling that incentives for producing quality research were not good enough. They said they were 'so bogged down teaching incompetent learners basics that should have been grasped at high school'. This situation did not give them time to engage in quality research.

Ever since Bantu education was introduced in 1953 it was regarded as an inferior type of education. As time went on, learners became increasingly militant, and this had a negative effect on black education. Slogans such as 'liberation now, education later' and 'pass one pass all' were very popular in
black education during the 1980's. These slogans and many others might have contributed to the type of learners the academics are complaining about. Alexander (1991:10) asserts that these slogans became suicidal to black learners.

For a long time the culture of teaching and learning has been non-existent in many black secondary schools. Learners lost interest in learning because they knew that even if they absent themselves from class, they would promote themselves to the next level in the following year. Teachers who had to teach such learners had to start by teaching the basics. In such classrooms, the atmosphere remained hostile, as teachers were not comfortable with teaching learners who were not supposed to be in their classes.

Cheating in the examination room was also common. Several cases of learners who openly cheat in the examinations and threaten the invigilators with violence should they intervene have been reported. Working under such conditions is likely to demoralise teachers. Dealing with incompetent and hostile learners can be frustrating especially to a grade twelve teacher who has to complete the work programme in preparation for the external examinations. In an attempt to complete the work programme timeously, teachers had to overwork themselves by scheduling extra classes, using weekends and holidays to teach. Most unfortunately no one recognises this extra effort. Working hard to help hostile and demanding learners, and getting nothing in return can be stressful for teachers. With regard to this, Claxton, (1989:25) has this to say: "Teachers do not want to be praised and stroked for every little thing, but they want their work to be noticed and acknowledged every so often - and not just when they did something wrong or forgot it".

This statement emphasises that recognition should be given to teacher who goes an extra mile. The lack of social support and encouragement for such teachers, coupled with an unfriendly and threatening learner clientele is likely to aggravate the situation.
2.7.3 Personal Factors

Maslach (1982:57-69) expresses the view that external factors (interpersonal and organisational factors) are not the entire story of burnout. Internal factors also have a significant contribution to burnout. What a person brings to the situation is as important as what the situation makes out of him. Individuals are unique. Each has his own unique personality and personality qualities. These tend to determine how a person handles external sources of emotional stress and explain why different persons respond differently in similar situations.

Service professions require interpersonal skills such as empathy, understanding and calmness. The provider's ability in these areas is largely a function of his/her personality and life experiences. Therefore personality and personal qualities have a very significant part to play in burnout. For instance, in a study conducted in the USA by Kobasa (1979:7-10) the personality disposition of hardiness proved to be a source for stress resistance. Furthermore a number of studies have linked personality characteristics to burnout.

For the purpose of this study the personal factors which may contribute to burnout will include the age of respondents, marital status, years of teaching experience, level of academic education. Some of these factors were successfully used by Capel (1991:280) in her study that investigated the incidence of and influence on stress and burnout in secondary school teachers.

Also in the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1981b) a number of demographic variables have been linked with burnout in teachers. Furthermore many studies consistently reported that burnout is more likely to occur in men than women (Anderson & Iwanick, 1984; Farber, 1982; Gold, 1985), those who teach in higher grade levels such as in high schools (Anderson & Iwanicki,
1984; Farber, 1982; Gold, 1985; Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982), and those who are single (Farber, 1982; Gold, 1985).

From the findings of these studies one may conclude that men are more vulnerable to burnout than women. This may be attributed to the fact that society expects men to hide their emotions and appear to be strong in times of trouble. Furthermore these findings indicate that high school teachers experience more burnout than their primary school counterparts. This may be caused by the fact that high school learners display more violence towards teachers than primary school students (Cole & Walker:1989:6). Finally these studies reveal higher levels of burnout among single teachers. Since these individuals do not have spouses who provide them with support, they end up spending long hours on schoolwork, and when expected rewards are not consistent with the effort put forth, feelings of disillusionment, loneliness and even anger are reported (Gold & Roth:1993). Therefore these groups of teachers need more social support and assistance to avoid experiencing burnout.

The preceding discussion has focused on the factors that cause burnout. The researcher is of the opinion that there may be many such factors in addition to the ones presented here. Therefore it would not be correct to regard these factors as the only ones that cause burnout among service professionals.

Society in general has to be conscious of the factors that cause burnout, and take the necessary precautions to ensure that this condition is controlled or eradicated. The discussion that follows will look at the preventative strategies as presented in literature study.

2.8 Measures to cope with burnout

Pines and Kafry (1982:140) cite Monat and Lazarus (1977) who define coping as "efforts to master conditions of harm, threat or challenge when a routine or automatic response is not readily available". They further indicate that this
definition is commonly used as a basis of most studies on coping in the area of stress research. In discussing the coping strategies, this study will subscribe to the same definition.

In deciding about the measures of coping with burnout, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980:14) caution that a positive approach to burnout will have to be based not on the hope of preventing it (which is virtually impossible), but on the realisation that it will happen, perhaps repeatedly in a person's career and must be dealt with on an ongoing basis.

This view regards burnout as a condition that cannot be eliminated. It emphasises on coping strategies that can be applied repeatedly whenever burnout arises.

Cherniss (1982:173-175) presents a view that is contrary to the one by Edelwich and Brodsky (1980). Cherniss is of the opinion that burnout can be prevented. He proposes five major general approaches to the prevention of burnout. These approaches are condensed by Ryerson and Marks (1982:165-163) into two specific approaches. The first approach has to do with the restructuring of the in-service programmes and the second one aims at reducing burnout in human service professionals. Randolph (1982:165-171) emphasises the importance of support groups in dealing with burnout. These authors agree that burnout can be prevented or at least slowed in some way. It is therefore important to assist individuals in identifying burnout in its early stages so that intervention could be effected before the situation deteriorates.

It is important to equip people to cope with burnout, but it is not enough. The work environment can be changed since it is the main source of burnout. Maslach (1982:118-119) states that it is necessary to push for organisational changes because of the following reasons: First, although individual coping techniques may be quicker, improvements of the work place may have a more pervasive and long-lasting impact on the rates of burnout. Secondly,
organisational changes acknowledge the significance of the situation in burnout. This can counter the overwhelming tendency to blame either oneself or one's recipients. Thirdly an organisational response to burnout constitutes recognition of it as a legitimate problem. Once organisations recognise that burnout is real and serious problem for them and their employees, greater efforts may be made to deal effectively with it.

Supervisors have a responsibility to help workers to adopt positive strategies to cope with the burnout syndrome. Unfortunately many of them are not aware of the role they can play in reducing the incidence of burnout (Cherniss;1982:174-175). This is the reason why some burned out personnel resort to alcohol or drug abuse, others try to get away from people.

In his theoretical framework for burnout prevention, Cherniss (1982) regards burnout as a process that begins with stress and ends with coping behaviour involving psychological withdrawal.

According to this model, stress occurs when demands exceed resources. Such demands can be external, for example, a supervisor telling an employee to write and report and submit it by a certain date; or the demands can be internal, where a teacher wants to organise a class play for the students. The resources can also be external (clerical services, adequate work space) or internal (skills and knowledge, energy or motivation).

Cherniss (1982) postulates that when demands exceed resources and the individual experiences stress, she/he usually tries to cope by directly acting on the source of stress. For instance, if the required report causes excessive time pressure, the employee may request that the submission date be extended, if this direct attempt fails, the employee may attempt to reduce the tension and strain through a 'stress management' technique of relaxation or exercise. Kyriacou (1987:149) refers to the latter strategy as the 'palliative technique' which involves accepting the source of stress but attempt to mitigate the emotional experience of stress which follows. If tension does not
decrease, the individual may withdraw psychologically from the job. This withdrawal is characterised by reduced motivation, negative attitude towards clients, colleagues and lowered goals. Cherniss (1982) concludes that burnout is a coping response used in situations characterised by uncontrollable stress.

This conception of burnout suggests strategies for preventing the problem. These strategies involve the reduction of external demands contributing to stress; the reduction of internal demands contributing to stress; the increasing of external resources; the increasing of internal resources and lastly, encourage coping mechanisms for managing stress that do not involve psychological disengagement. These strategies are called direct/indirect coping strategies.

Cherniss (1982) further suggests five possible points of intervention when these strategies are applied to work settings. The first point of intervention is staff development.

This point of intervention refers to the designing of an orientation programme for new employees that will provide useful knowledge about the job (internal resource). This will help the employee to establish realistic expectations and goals (reducing internal demands), and encourages cognitive rehearsal (a coping mechanism). Another point of intervention here is the establishment of support groups for workers. These groups can provide fresh ideas and insights (internal resources for handling job demands), moral support, and positive coping strategies that do not involve withdrawal. Freudenberger (1974:164) agrees with the idea of forming support groups for workers. He believes that such sharing of experiences might help one in preventing one's burnout.

The second point of intervention in the workplace is the redesigning of jobs. Administrators can structure 'breaks' that enable workers to escape from job demands temporarily, to generate new resources for meeting those demands
and to develop more positive coping efforts. Administrators can also modify jobs so that the demands better match the workers' skills and interests. The third point of intervention is management development. Since management can significantly influence the demands made on workers, they can also provide many resources to meet those demands. There is therefore a need for the establishment of management development programmes that provide training in the area of burnout for supervisory staff.

Organisational problem-solving processes represent another point of intervention. Problems, stress, and conflict are part of any work setting. In order to prevent or reduce these problems, organisations have to create effective mechanisms for identifying staff problems at an early stage. Staff members must be trained in problem solving, conflict management and decision-making, and this will enable them to respond productively to problems and reduce stress. The final area where interventions for preventing burnout can occur is in the organisational goals and operating philosophies.

In many cases organisations attempt to accomplish too many different goals, to please too many constituencies in an effort to survive and expand. Such goals are often left vague and non-operational. Developing organisational goals in a way that reduces ambiguity and increase internal commitment among staff is a major function for organisational leadership and a final area in which burnout can be prevented.

In addition to the direct/indirect coping strategies as presented by Cherniss (1982) above, Pines and Kafry (1982:140-142) have come up with a second dimension, namely active/inactive coping strategies. Active coping strategies involve confronting or attempting to change the source of stress of oneself, while inactive or withdrawal coping strategies involve avoidance or denial of the stress by cognitive or physical means. They further postulate that the two coping dimensions, namely direct/indirect and active/inactive interact and generate four types of coping strategies, each represented by three actions:
Direct-active: changing the source of stress; confronting the source of stress; finding positive aspects in the situation.

Direct-inactive: ignoring the source of stress; avoiding the source of stress; leaving the stressful situation.

Indirect-active: talking about the source of stress; changing oneself to adapt to the source of stress; getting involved in other activities.

Indirect-inactive: drinking or using drugs; getting ill; collapsing.

In their study, Pines and Kafry (1982) found that direct coping strategies were more effective for combatting burnout than indirect strategies. They also found that active strategies were more effective than inactive strategies. However, they caution that the best coper is a person who can master conditions of harm, threat and challenge in a variety of ways, and who uses in each situation the best, most effective strategy for that particular situation.

A list of coping strategies has been developed by Maslach (1982:89-141). The strategies she proposes can be utilised at different levels – individual, social and institutional. The subsequent discussion will review strategies for individual coping as presented by Maslach (1982), and later on the focus will be on the social approaches to coping.

2.8.1 Individual strategies for coping with burnout

Each of the strategies to be discussed in this section is aimed at tackling one or more of the three dimensions of the burnout syndrome; it may reduce the emotional strains of peoples' work, it may offset the negative, depersonalised views of people and finally it may boost the individual's sense of personal accomplishment and self esteem. In presenting these strategies Maslach (1982:89) cautions that each approach requires patience and practice to be successful; each approach has to be adapted to the specific job and home situation of the individual professional; and that not all coping techniques are for all people – what works best for one person may be less successful for
someone else. This is confirmed by Cherniss (1982:176) when he states that the best strategy will depend on the individual situation.

2.8.1.1 Setting realistic goals

Maslach (1982:90) postulates that for most of the time, professional helpers strive for noble ideals. These include fighting injustices, bringing health and happiness to all, helping people to see success in whatever they do. Since these ideals are often vague and general goals, they are virtually impossible to achieve within one's lifetime. Striving for such unachievable goals can be problematic for a helper if these are all he has to guide the direction of work, because no matter how hard he tries, each day is likely to be a failure.

The goals that one set for oneself should be realistic. There must be a reasonable chance that the professional will be able to accomplish them. Setting such goals requires that the professional recognise his limitations as well as his abilities.

2.8.1.2 Doing the same thing differently

Doing the same thing in different ways can make the professional to feel more in control of his job. To be effective in doing things differently the professional must first figure out which aspects of his job can be changed or varied and which cannot. Maslach (1982) warns that one must avoid putting one's energy into changing the aspects of the job that cannot be changed. Instead, the focus should be on what can be modified, varied or shifted around. The advantage of doing things differently is that it makes the professional feel a great sense of autonomy and personal freedom.

2.8.1.3 Breaking away

Breaks are important for helpers since they serve as emotional breathers, allowing one to relax and get a little psychological distance from a particular
problem. Maslach (1982:93-94) suggests short breaks that can be inserted between contact with different clients or recipients.

Although official breaks such as tea breaks and lunch hour are helpful, Maslach (1982) believes that they do not take the helper away from the work situation since some helpers use these for catching up on paperwork or making telephone calls. It is far better to leave the office during the lunch hour and go for a walk, read a book or play cards with friends.

2.8.1.4 Taking things less personally

This means that the helper should not get overly involved with the people he serves. He must also avoid reacting to negative comments as if they were personal insults. When things get worse, the helper must be able to stand back and look at the situation objectively. For example, a psychiatric technician faced with an abusive mental patient will try to understand first if the anger is part of the patient's disorder rather than a personal attack on himself. Emotional over involvement can also be reduced if one does not 'take home' people's problems. By leaving one's work at work and not reliving it again at home, the emotional stress is confined to a smaller part of one's life (Maslach:1982:95).

2.8.2 Social support as a strategy for coping with burnout

According to Cobb (1976) as cited by Winnbust (1993:155) social support is "that piece of information which convinces people that others love them and care for them (emotional support), that others respect them and value them (affirmative support), and that they are part of a network of communication and mutual support (network support)." However, social support not properly furnished can negatively affect feelings of autonomy. Winnbust (1993:156) cite studies conducted by Schwarzer and Leppin,(1989); Winnbust, Marcelissen & Kleber (1982) which reported a negative relationship between social support and the reduction of burnout. This indicates that to be effective
and yield positive results, social support has to be provided carefully by people who really understand the situation of a burned out individual. Another study confirming the importance of social support in reducing burnout was conducted by Talmer, Reiters and Feigin (2005:3) where they found that the less social support the teacher experienced, the higher was his or her level of burnout.

The climate at work can make people feel lonely and more isolated from colleagues. Their social relations become fewer, and depression, burnout and diseases crop up. This is when social support becomes important as an intervention strategy. Group support can provide a burned out individual with many things that he cannot provide for himself. People can provide new information and insights, training in new skills, recognition and feedback, emotional support and advice as well as help of various kinds.

Maslach (1982:111) firmly believes in the role of social support in reducing burnout. She maintains that the power of co-workers to help one handle burnout should not be underestimated. Colleagues or workers can provide support through formal or official mechanisms, such as professional support groups or staff meetings. Whatever format, the social and emotional support provided by peers can be critical for survival on the job. Peers can help reduce the emotional strain either by doing something about the source of stress or by getting one to cope with it more effectively. Peers can help by teaching one how to handle a certain problem. Stress reduction also takes the form of comfort and emotional support. Peers or co-workers can provide a shoulder to cry on and a sympathetic ear. It is easier to express one's feelings to people who are familiar with the situation and who have a similar status and perspective on it. Colleagues can also help one analyse one's feelings and gain some insight into one's reactions. By talking to colleagues, the burned out individual might discover that he is not alone and that his feelings are shared by others.
Randolph (1982:165-168), a former generalised public health consultant in Ohio also shares Maslach's views regarding the importance of support groups as an intervention strategy to alleviate burn out. Whilst working as a consultant, Randolph became aware of the isolated working environment in which nurses in correctional institutions operated. She saw the need for the nurses to meet one another, share ideas and become familiar with resources available from the various divisions within the Ohio department of health.

She then established the directory of Ohio Correctional Institutions Providing Nursing Services. Through this forum, correctional institutions nurses from all over the state of Ohio have met several times, and through discussions, nurses have began to talk about problems and issues that indicate some form of burnout. Issues that transpire in these discussions include understaffing, poor scheduling, unclear goals and priorities, poor supervision, poor job description, lack of input in decision making and poor working conditions. Randolph (1982:170) is of the opinion that although this forum is still young, it has already enabled nurses to share their problems and concerns with their peers, and this is important in helping people deal with burnout.

The key element for the success of social support groups is trust. Participants should feel comfortable with each other and have faith that they all have one another's best interest at heart. Such trust is important if people are going to reveal their feelings, problems and their shortcomings in an effort to gain support and comfort. If there is no trust, then the group is in no position to serve as a source of social support. Maslach (1982:116) suggests that the success rate of a support group will increase if it has a leader who is well trained in these skills. Such a person will make sure that problems are being aired and dealt with, that feedback is constructive, that personal disputes are ironed out and that everybody is given a chance to air his views.

Finally Maslach (1982:117) warns that even though the social support group seems to be an effective strategy for alleviating burnout, it does have some shortcomings. The first being that when the group gets together there is a tendency of each member coming with his sob story. This exercise is not
helpful if it is not followed by new insights into how to do things better. The second pitfall for such groups is the confrontation session. For those who are emotionally exhausted, an encounter session in which people begin to challenge, criticise and attack each other can be extremely debilitating. The third shortcoming is the reluctance on the part of some members to get together with others, for various reasons. If some people show reluctance in getting together with others, such reluctance should be respected. "Imposing group ness on an unwilling participant is not going to win any converts to the cause" (Maslach:1982:118).

2.9 Conclusion

Chapter two has made an attempt to give a detailed description of the burnout syndrome. The chapter has also presented three theoretical models of burnout. These models are of significant importance to the study of burnout in that they provide the researcher with a conceptual framework on which this disorder can be understood.

Secondly, the chapter has shown that burnout occurs mainly in service professions where people work with people. It was also pointed out that the world of business and industry is not immune from burnout. However, the human service professions provide a fertile ground for burnout to thrive. The reasons thereof have been clearly presented (Edelwich & Brodsky 1980; Maslach in Shaufeli 1993; Ryerson & Marks 1982). Furthermore the chapter revealed that burnout is not an event. It occurs over time, and the victim can go through a number of unpleasant stressful experiences that may culminate in a person getting burned out.

Thirdly, disorders like stress, depression and anxiety, which are often associated with burnout, have been discussed. This discussion has shown that although stress and burnout are closely linked, they are not synonymous. Burnout is a result of a number of stress-related experiences. The discussion has also indicated that burned out individuals do experience symptoms that
characterise depressed persons. The researcher concluded therefore that burnout, stress, depression and anxiety are closely related. However burnout should be seen as the peak or a culmination point of all these disorders.

Factors that are likely to contribute to burnout have also been addressed. These factors are common in all service professions, including teaching. Studies conducted by Samples (1976) and Bloch (1978) have highlighted the seriousness of stress in the teaching profession. Their findings can also be generalised to black secondary schools in South Africa.

The researcher concludes that in order to reduce the chances of burnout from occurring, the environment should be looked into. A stress-free environment needs to be created, where participants will function without any inhibition.
Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE FOR COLLECTING DATA

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the method for collecting data. Mason and Bramble (1978:302) argue that the researcher should select instruments that would be supportive of research objectives from those available besides constructing his or her own instrument. However, Oppenheim (1966:16) lists and discusses four methods of data collection, namely, interviews, mail questionnaires, observation techniques and the study of documents. After a thorough study of these methods, the researcher concluded that the methods described hereunder were appropriate for this study.

A systematic and critical study was carried out on available literature pertaining to the problem. This involved an intensive study of the existing literature from published books, newspapers, published speeches, unpublished theses and dissertations, journals and any other published material which contains information relevant to the topic.

Secondly empirical data were collected by means of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey, a scale designed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) to measure burnout. The validity and reliability of this scale is discussed in this chapter.
3.2 Objectives of the study

The following were the objectives of this study:

3.2.1 To ascertain the incidence of burnout among teachers.

3.2.2 To determine the manner in which teachers manifest burnout.

3.2.3 To find out whether there is any association between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout.

3.3 Research questions

In order to facilitate the investigation, the research questions were formulated and stated as follows:

3.3.1 To what extent do teachers in KwaZulu-Natal experience the incidence of burnout?

3.3.2 In what manner do teachers manifest burnout?

3.3.3 Is there a relationship between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout?

3.4 Hypotheses

Hypotheses were formulated and they were based on the above-stated objectives.

3.4.1 Teachers do not differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout.
3.4.2 Teachers do not differ in the manner in which they manifest burnout.

3.4.3 There is no relationship between teachers' biographical factors and manifestations of burnout.

3.5 Research design and procedures

It is important for a researcher to select a research design that will achieve the objectives of his/her study. Moorhead and Griffin (1995:550) define a research design as a set of procedures used to test the predicted relationships among natural phenomena. They further state that the design addresses issues such as how the relevant variables are to be defined, measured and related to one another. After a thorough investigation of various research designs, the researcher decided to opt for a field survey, which is part of descriptive research.

Descriptive research is the most appropriate method in educational research since most research problems in education directly involve people. The current study is an attempt to understand the burnout syndrome among teachers. Since burnout is one of the problems affecting teachers in the education setting, the researcher was of the opinion that this type of approach would be most suitable for this study.

The data were analysed with the aid of the SPSS-X computer programme, and interpreted by means of descriptive statistics. Borg and Gall (1983:356) state that the advantage of descriptive statistics is that they enable the researcher to use one or two numbers to represent all the individual scores of subjects in the sample. In addition to descriptive statistics, inferential statistics was used to make inferences from sample statistics to the population parameters. Inferential statistics enable the
researcher to reach conclusions about the larger populations from which a sample was drawn.

3.5.1 The sample and sampling procedures

A survey begins with the definition of a population. This population consists of all the individuals about which the researcher wants to draw conclusions. Since it is not always possible to take a census, the researcher had to settle with observing only a part of the population, called a sample from that population. Therefore, a sample is a representative of the population with sub-set elements from the population. For a sample to be truly representative, the analysis made on its elements should produce results equivalent to those that would be obtained if the entire population had been used (Helmstadter: 1970: 94).

Behr (1985:5), states that before a researcher compiles a sample, he/she should know the characteristics of the population. Such knowledge is essential to ensure that the researcher draws a representative sample.

If the purpose of the survey is to infer properties of the population from the sample, then a random sample should be obtained. Botha and Engelbrecht (1992:56) are of the opinion that in order for one to obtain a random sample, one would require a list of all the members of the population. Tables of random numbers, such as computer-generated random numbers, are some of the devices used to draw a random sample from a well-defined population.

In the present study, a list of all traditionally black secondary schools falling under the Zululand region of the province of KwaZulu-Natal was obtained. In most cases these schools are found in townships, informal settlements and the rural areas of the province. This province is about 92
180 square kilometres big in size and consists of four regions, namely EThekwini, UMgungundlovu, OKhahlamba, and Zululand. The study focused on the Zululand region. This region was convenient for the researcher in that the university is situated here. Therefore it would not be very expensive for the researcher to collect data. This region has three districts, which are Empangeni, Obonjeni and Vryheid. From each district three circuits were selected, and from each circuit four schools were randomly selected. This means that a total of thirty-six schools formed part of the study. From each school twelve teachers were randomly selected and supplied with the MBI-ES. This, therefore, means that the sample would consist of N=432 teachers employed by the department of education in the Zululand region of the province of KwaZulu-Natal, and who teach in traditionally black secondary schools.

3.6 Planning for administration of the research instrument

This study was conducted as a field study. The following procedures were followed:

(i) A letter requesting permission to conduct research in selected schools in the Zululand region was sent to the Regional Chief Director of the Zululand region of the Department of Education – KwaZulu-Natal.

(ii) Copies of the letter were given to the schools that were selected for the study.

(iii) A request for permission to use the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Educators Survey) was forwarded to Consulting Psychologists Press (CPP) in California (USA). CPP holds the copyright for this instrument.
(iv) A pilot study of the research instrument was conducted among eighteen teachers from three black secondary schools in the Mthunzini circuit of the Empangeni district. These schools did not form part of the sample of the main study. The purpose of the pilot test was to determine how long it would take respondents to complete the questions; to check whether all questions and instructions were clear, and to enable the researcher to delete items that did not yield relevant data. The pilot study also would help the researcher in modifying those questions that might be ambiguous to the respondents. During the pilot study, the respondents did not encounter any problems with the completion of the instrument, therefore no adjustments were effected in the instrument to be administered to the final sample.

3.6.1 The pilot sample

The pilot study was conducted in three traditionally black secondary schools in the Mthunzini circuit of the Empangeni district. Eighteen respondents were randomly selected and given a modified version of the MBI-ES to complete. This means that a total of eighteen teachers participated in the pilot study. These teachers did not form part of the final sample of the main study.

3.6.2 Administration of the instrument in the pilot study.

The researcher personally visited the three secondary schools and arranged with the principals to administer the instrument. The completion of the instrument was conducted under direct supervision of the researcher. After explaining the instructions, the respondents completed and returned all eighteen questionnaire scripts.
3.6.3 Results of the pilot study

Eighteen copies of the questionnaire were issued to respondents, and all were returned. Two had to be discarded due to insufficient data supplied. The researcher was then left with sixteen questionnaires for consideration in the pilot study.

3.6.4 Distribution of subjects in the pilot sample

Table 3.1 depicts the distribution of subjects in the pilot sample
### TABLE 3.1 DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS IN THE PILOT SAMPLE (n=16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
<th>LEVELS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GENDER:</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE:</td>
<td>20-29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARITAL STATUS:</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION:</td>
<td>Matric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSITIONAT SCHOOL:</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORK EXPERIENCE (IN YEARS)</td>
<td>&gt;5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE NO. OF LEARNERS IN CLASSES:</td>
<td>15-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCATION OF SCHOOL:</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

85
During the pilot study, respondents did not encounter any problems with regard to completing the questionnaire. This enabled the researcher not to effect any changes in the questionnaire to be administered to the final sample. Furthermore, the MBI-ES has been subjected to factor analysis in studies conducted by Maslach and Jackson (1986). Initially the instrument had 47 items which, through factor analysis were reduced to 25 and finally to 22. The 22 items retained in the final instrument had met the following criteria: a factor loading greater than .40 on only one of the factors; a large range of subject responses; a relatively low percentage of subjects checking the ‘never’ response; and a high item-total correlation (Maslach & Jackson: 1986:10).

### 3.6.5 The final sample

The final sample consisted of 432 teachers who teach in traditionally black secondary schools in three districts of the Zululand region. These districts are Empangeni, Obonjeni and Vryheid.

### 3.6.6 Administration of the instrument in the final sample

Table 3.2 shows the distribution of schools in the final sample. A total of thirty-six (36) schools were selected from three districts of the Zululand region. This table depicts the districts, the total number of traditionally black secondary schools in each district, and the proportion of schools in the final sample.
TABLE 3.2 DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS IN THE FINAL SAMPLE (n=36)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISTRICT</th>
<th>NO. OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS</th>
<th>PROPORTION OF SCHOOLS IN THE FINAL SAMPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EMPANGENI</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBOMBO</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VRYHEID</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questionnaires were distributed during the practice teaching period. This period was suitable for this task since lecturers were visiting schools to conduct student evaluation. Four hundred and thirty two questionnaires were given to lecturers to distribute to selected schools. A total of 367 questionnaires were returned, and out of these, only 3 were not correctly filled in. These 3 questionnaires had to be discarded, and the total sample consisted of 364 questionnaires.

Table 3.3 illustrates the distribution of subjects in the final sample.
### TABLE 3.3 DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS IN THE FINAL SAMPLE (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
<th>LEVELS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>GENDER</strong></td>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AGE</strong></td>
<td>20-29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MARITAL STATUS</strong></td>
<td><strong>Single</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LEVEL OF EDUCATION</strong></td>
<td><strong>Matric</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>POSITION AT SCHOOL</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teacher</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WORK EXPERIENCE</strong></td>
<td>&gt;5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AVERAGE NO OF LEARNERS IN CLASSES TAUGHT</strong></td>
<td>15-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LOCATION OF SCHOOL</strong></td>
<td><strong>Urban</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.7 The research instrument

Since a standardized test was used to collect data, it is important to discuss briefly the basic characteristics of standardised tests. Turney and Robb (1971:154) mention three basic characteristics of a standardised testing device. These are objectivity, validity and reliability.

**Objectivity:** According to Turney and Robb (1971:154) a test is said to be objective if it yields the same score regardless of who does the scoring. This means that the scoring does not depend upon the judgment of the scorer. The degree of objectivity of standardized tests in education can usually be determined by analysing whether or not the administration and scoring procedures permit bias to occur. Borg and Gall (1983:273) state that multiple-choice tests are generally considered much more objective since they are self-administered in large part, and all scores can apply a scoring key and agree perfectly. That is why these types of standardised tests are often called 'objective tests'.

In this study, objectivity of the measuring instrument was ensured by giving specific directions for the respondents to follow, as well as by providing them with a scoring key to facilitate scoring.

**Validity:** A measurement instrument is said to be valid if it measures what it is supposed to measure. Turney and Robb (1971:154) are of the opinion that it is difficult to determine an instrument's validity since there are different kinds of validity, and because validity is a matter of degree as well as kind. They, therefore, suggest that if one wants to consider the validity of an appraisal device, one should ask two basic questions: What kind of validity should this instrument have? To what extent must it show this type of validity? Borg and Gall (1983:275) maintain that without
standards for validity, tests can be misused and may have deleterious effects on the person being tested.

The following is a brief exposition of the types of validity that are relevant to the instrument used in this study.

**Content validity:** This is the degree to which the sample of test items represents the content that the test is designed to measure. Borg and Gall (1983:276) warn that content validity should not be confused with face validity, which refers to the evaluator's appraisal of what the content of the test measures. Content validity is determined by systematically conducting a set of operations such as defining in precise terms the specific content universe to be sampled, specifying objectives and describing how the content universe will be sampled to develop test items.

With regard to content knowledge, the degree of content validity is appraised usually by an objective comparison of the test items with curriculum content.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory has been subjected to factor analysis, and the validity of its content has been proved (Maslach & Jackson:1981; Schwarzer, Schmitz & Tang: 1999; Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli: 2002;).

**Construct Validity:** Borg and Gall (1983:280) define construct validity as the extent to which a particular test can be shown to measure a characteristic that is believed to account for some aspects of human behaviour such as intelligence, anxiety and creativity. These characteristics are considered hypothetical constructs because they are not directly observable but rather are inferred on the basis of their observable effects on human behaviour. An example given by Borg and Gall (1983) is the one of a test developer who publishes a test that he
claims is a measure of anxiety. The question is: How can one determine whether the test does in fact measure the construct of anxiety? There are various approaches to determine this. However one approach would be to determine whether the test differentiates between psychiatric and normal groups, since theorists have hypothesised that anxiety plays an important role in psychopathology. If the test does in fact differentiate the two groups, then there is evidence that it measures the construct of anxiety.

Reliability: The validity of a measuring instrument depends upon its reliability to a greater extent. This means that if an instrument is not consistent in measuring what it is designed to measure, its accuracy will be impaired. Reliability is defined as the level of internal consistency or stability of the measuring device over time. The reliability of the MBI, an instrument used in this study has been proved. Its internal consistency was estimated by Cronbach’s coefficient alpha (n=1316). The reliability coefficients for the sub-scales were the following: .90 for emotional exhaustion; .79 for depersonalisation; .71 for personal accomplishment. The standard error of measurement for each sub-scale is as follows: 3.80 for emotional exhaustion; 3.16 for depersonalisation, and 3.73 for personal accomplishment.

Furthermore in the study conducted among child-care workers in KwaZulu-Natal, Adendorff (1977:26) found that the internal consistency of the MBI as measured by the Cronbach’s alpha ranged from .52 to .83 for her sample of 70 child-care workers.

A number of procedures can be used to estimate the reliability of measuring instruments. Babbie (1983:122-124) presents the following procedures: the test-retest method and the split-half method.

Test-retest method: This method requires the administration of the instrument in question to a group of subjects and then the administration
of the instrument to the same group a second time, perhaps a few days later. The two sets of scores are then correlated to obtain a correlation coefficient. If the subjects tested maintain approximately the same rank each time, in terms of scores on the instrument, the reliability coefficient will be high. If the subjects change their rank considerably, the reliability coefficient will be relatively low. Two important factors should be considered when using this method: the amount of time between the two administrations, and the kind of activity performed. If the second administration of the instrument follows the first administration immediately, the subjects may recall their initial responses to items and respond in the very same way the second time, and this is likely to result in a high correlation coefficient. If, however, a great amount of time elapses between the first and second administrations, intervening experiences may bring about changes in performance that will tend to lower the correlation coefficient.

Data on test-retest reliability of the MBI were obtained from a sample of graduate students in social welfare and administrators in a health agency (n=53). The two tests sessions were separated by an interval of 2-4 weeks. The test-retest reliability coefficients for the sub-scales were the following: .82 for emotional exhaustion; .60 for depersonalisation; and .80 for personal accomplishment. Although these coefficients range from low to moderately high, all are significant beyond the .001 level. Furthermore, Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) established test-retest reliability ranging from 0.75 to 0.89 for the version modified for use by teachers.

Since in this study the scale has been administered once to the respondents, it would not be necessary for the researcher to subject it to this method.

**Split-half method:** With regard to this method, Babbie (1983:123) maintains that it is always a good idea to make more than one
measurement of any subtle social concept, such as alienation, prejudice or social class. This method requires dividing the instrument into comparable halves and then correlating the scores made on the two halves by a group of subjects. There are various ways of dividing the test, and this division tends to shorten the measuring device. This reduction in length is likely to decrease the reliability. To correct the obtained coefficient (for the two halves) it is advisable to apply the Spearman-Brown formula. This formula is used to achieve the reliability for the whole instrument, and not just its half. Again it is also possible to estimate internal consistency by means of the Kuder-Richardson formula.

3.7.1 The Maslach Burnout Inventory

In this study burnout was measured by the MSI developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). This instrument has two sections. Section A consists of the respondent’s biographical information, and section B consists of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey, a version of the MBI specifically designed to measure burnout among teachers.

The teachers’ biographical information included gender, age, marital status, level of education, position at school, work experience, average number of learners in classes taught and the location of the school.

The teachers in the Zululand region are not identical. They differ in terms of the above-mentioned variables. There are males and females; some are young and others are old. There are teachers who are married and others who are single. Some are highly qualified while others are under-qualified. The teachers also occupy different positions in schools. These positions differ in terms of status and responsibilities. There are classroom teachers as well as heads of departments. There are teachers with relatively brief teaching experience and others with extensive teaching experience. Some teach very large classes, while others teach
relatively small classes. In this region, schools are situated in urban and rural areas as well as in informal settlements. However, since the region is largely rural, the majority of schools will be found in rural areas.

The researcher is of the opinion that the differences cited above may or may not influence teachers' levels of burnout, hence their inclusion in the instrument.

Some of the differences cited above were successfully used in studies conducted by Anderson & Iwanicki (1984); Gold (1985) and Capel (1991). Furthermore one of the objectives of this study is to find out whether there is any association between teachers' biographical factors and manifests of burnout (presented in the form of the three sub-scales). The respondent was required to make a cross in the appropriate box or space provided.

Section B of the instrument consists of the items that measure three aspects of the burnout syndrome, namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson: 1981:2). Each aspect is measured by a separate sub-scale. The Emotional Exhaustion (EE) sub-scale assesses feelings of being emotionally over-extended and exhausted by one's work. The Depersonalization (Dp) sub-scale measures an unfeeling and impersonal response toward recipients of one's service, care, treatment, or instruction. The Personal Accomplishment (PA) sub-scale assesses feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people.

The frequency with which respondent experiences feelings related to each subscale is assessed on a six-point, fully anchored response format. Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996:5) recommend that Personal Accomplishment be reported as direct computation of item scores rather than as Diminished Personal Accomplishment based on reversed items.
Burnout is conceptualised as a continuous variable, ranging from low to moderate to high degrees of experienced feeling. It is not viewed as a dichotomous variable, which is either present or absent.

A high degree of burnout is reflected in high scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation sub-scales and in low scores on the Personal Accomplishment sub-scales. An average degree of burnout is reflected in averages of scores on the three sub-scales. A low degree of burnout is reflected in low scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation sub-scales and in high scores on the Personal Accomplishment sub-scales.

The scale has twenty-two items. Each of these items is rated for frequency. The frequency rating scale ranges from 0 (never) to 6 (every day). For the frequency scale the respondent scores 0 if the feeling or attitude described is never experienced. Item scores are summed to obtain sub-scale scores. Higher sub-scales scores on the MSI indicate higher levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment.

Pierce and Molloy (1990:4) cite Maslach and Jackson (1981) as stating that the MBI has been shown to be reliable and valid when used with workers in the helping professions, as well as with graduate students in the social welfare. Furthermore, Pretorius (1993:11) contends that the MSI has been successfully used in South Africa to assess burnout among church ministers (Odendaal & van Wyk: 1988) as well as with university teachers (Pretorius: 1990).

In the present study the word teacher will replace the word recipient. This is supported by Pierce and Molly (1990:40) who cite Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) as stating that evidence has been presented to substantiate the reliability and validity of the MBI when adapted in this way for use with teachers.
3.8 Planning for data analysis

In this section the procedure to be followed in analysing data is discussed. In the previous section it was mentioned that the burnout instrument consists of three sub-scales. Each sub-scale has three level categories. These categories are: low, moderate and high. For each sub-scale the researcher groups the whole sample’s total scores into three class intervals. These class interval scores are obtained by multiplying the highest possible score in each item (6) by the number of items in that category and divided by the number of categories. This means that in order to obtain the class interval score for emotional exhaustion, 6 (highest possible score) is multiplied by 9 (number of items for emotional exhaustion) and divided by 3 (number of categories). Therefore, 18 is our class interval score for emotional exhaustion. Respondents scoring between 0 – 18 are classified as experiencing low emotional exhaustion, those scoring between 19 – 36 are classified as experiencing moderate emotional exhaustion, and those scoring between 37 – 54 are classified as experiencing high emotional exhaustion. The same procedure is undertaken to obtain the class interval scores for depersonalisation and personal accomplishment sub-scales.

A respondent’s burnout level is determined by his/her total score in the three sub-scales, and it falls within any of the three level categories. A respondent’s total score is determined by the pattern of his/her scoring on each item of the three sub-scales. The number of items in each sub-scale (9 for emotional exhaustion, 5 for depersonalisation and 8 for personal accomplishment) also determines the size of class intervals for the three level categories of each sub-scale (as explained in the preceding paragraph), with 0 as a lowest possible score for the low emotional exhaustion/depersonalisation/personal accomplishment level categories. In this way it will be easy to count the number of teachers in each burnout level category.
The first hypothesis postulated in this study, namely "Teachers do not differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout" was tested by means of the chi-square one sample test. This is the most frequently used non-parametric statistical test of significance. It is used when the investigation concerns category variables – that is, comparing how many members of a sample fall into each one of a number of descriptive categories. When using the chi-square test, usually a null hypothesis is proposed, and the chi-square test is then carried out to compare the hypothetical results that might be expected from the experiment, with the actual observations that occur in practice. Testing this hypothesis has to do with comparing the number of respondents from the total sample who fall into each of the descriptive categories, namely, low emotional exhaustion level (LEEL), moderate emotional exhaustion level (MEEL), and high emotional exhaustion level (HEEL); Low depersonalisation level (LDPL), moderate depersonalisation level (MDPL), and high depersonalisation level (HDPL); Low personal accomplishment level (LPAL), moderate personal accomplishment level (MPAL), and high personal accomplishment level (HPAL).

According to Mahlangu (1987:112) the main aim of the chi-square test is to compare the actual (observed) frequencies (counts) with the expected frequencies. This test also tells us the extent to which an observed set of frequencies differs from the frequencies that are expected.

The calculated value of the chi-square will tell us whether or not we can reject the null hypothesis and claim that teachers differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout.

The second hypothesis, namely, "Teachers do not differ in the manner in which they manifest burnout", was tested by means of the one-way ANOVA or F-test. This test is called a one-way ANOVA because it compares groups that differ on one independent variable/factor with two or
more levels. The purpose of this test is to compare the means for two or more groups in order to decide whether the observed differences between them represent a chance occurrence or a systematic effect.

The decision whether or not to reject the null hypothesis of no difference between population means will be adopted if the variability/difference between group means is much greater than the variability within group means.

The third hypothesis in this study namely, ‘There is no relationship between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout’ was tested by means of the chi-square test. The chi-square is a nonparametric statistical test that tests hypotheses about the shape of a distribution, central tendency or the association between two variables. Our interest regarding the third hypothesis is to find out whether there is any association between teachers' biographical factors and the three burnout sub-scales.

The calculated value of the chi-square determines whether or not we can reject the null hypothesis and claim that there is a relationship between teachers' biographical factors and the burnout sub-scales.

3.9 Conclusion

In this chapter the researcher pointed out how he organised his research. The method and procedure for collecting data, as well as the instrument for data collection were clearly described. The validity and reliability of this instrument was demonstrated.

Chapter four builds on this chapter in that it tables and analyses data that were collected in accordance with the procedures thus described.
CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

Chapter three focused on the methods and procedures for data collection. Chapter four builds on the previous chapter in that it presents and analyses data that were collected. The chapter begins by presenting an analysis of the biographical data, followed by the analysis of frequencies regarding each item in the scale, and ends with the testing of the three hypotheses.

4.2 Details of the final study

4.2.1 Data analysis

This sub-section start by presenting the biographical data in tables, and each table is followed by a short discussion. Secondly three tables depicting the frequency of responses for each factor or burnout sub-scale are presented, each followed by brief discussion. Finally the three hypotheses are tested, and this is followed by the conclusion.
4.2.1.1 Biographical information

The following tables depict the analysis of the biographical information.

Table 4.1: Gender of respondents (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 indicates that the majority of respondents were females (64.6%) as opposed to 35.4% males. The gender distribution as reflected in the table could be an indication of the fact that teaching has become a predominantly female profession.

Table 4.2: Age of respondents (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60&lt;</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as age is concerned, 53.8% of respondents were between the ages of 30 – 39. 75.5% of respondents fell between the ages of 30 and 49. This distribution might be influenced by the fact that teachers who are above 59 years of age are already serving in senior positions outside the school system.
Table 4.3: Marital status (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>364</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to marital status, 54.7% of respondents were single as opposed to 38.5% married, 3.3% divorced and 3.5% widowed.

Table 4.4: Level of education (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College diploma</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree + diploma</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>364</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 indicates that the majority of respondents were in possession of a college diploma (57.1%). This state of affairs is quite understandable if one considers the fact that the Zululand region is predominantly rural, there are no institutions of higher learning where teachers can upgrade their qualification.
Table 4.5: Position at school (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position at school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>73.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H.O.D.</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>364</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the present study 73.4% of respondents were teachers as opposed to 26.6% heads of departments.

Table 4.6: Work experience (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 5</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31&lt;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>364</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 indicates that the majority of respondents had taught for 6-10 years (36.5%). A large proportion of respondents (67%) had work experience which as below 10 years. As the number of years at work increase, the number of teachers begins to decrease. This may be interpreted to mean that promotions to positions outside the school usually come after one had served for at least ten years in the classroom.
Table 4.7: Average number of learners in classes taught (n=364).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average number of learners in classes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-30</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-59</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60&lt;</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7 indicates that 42% of respondents teach classes with sixty or more students. This confirms the fact that most classrooms in black secondary schools are still overcrowded.

Table 4.8: Location of school (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location of school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban/Township</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>70.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 indicates that the majority of respondents (70.8%) teach in rural schools. This is true if one considers the fact that the province of KwaZulu-Natal is largely rural.
4.2.1.2 Frequency of responses regarding the burnout sub-scales

Key to the tables: 0=Never; 1=A few times a year or less; 2=Once a month; 3=A few times a month; 4=Once a week; 5=A few times a week; 6=Every day

Table 4.9 Responses on emotional exhaustion items (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>FREQUENCIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I feel emotionally drained from my work</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel extremely tired at the end of the school day</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day at school</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Working with students all day is really a strain for me</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I feel burned out from teaching</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Teaching frustrates me.</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job as a teacher.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Working with students directly puts too much stress on me.</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I feel I cannot cope with teaching anymore</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1.2.1 Emotional exhaustion responses

Table 4.9 shows that the majority of respondents have their scores in the first two columns (never; a few times a year or less), which indicates that the majority of respondents did not experience the feelings associated with items which make up the emotional exhaustion sub-scale.

Despite the impression created in the preceding paragraph, two notable patterns of responses are worth mentioning here. The first one is that although a number of respondents chose 'never' and 'a few times a year or less' for item 2 (I feel extremely tired at the end of the school day), 82 respondents (22.5%) of the total sample indicated that they do experience this feeling a few times a week compared to 44 respondents (12.1%) who
indicated that they do not experience this feeling at all, and 85 respondents (23.4%) who claimed that they do experience this feeling a few times a year or less.

This observation can be interpreted to mean that although the majority of respondents seem 'not to feel extremely tired at the end of the school day' there is a small but significant number of respondents who experience this feeling more frequently than others.

The second observation relates to item 14 (I feel I'm working too hard on my job as a teacher). Seventy one respondents (19.5%) of the total sample selected 'never', whereas 92 respondents (25.3%) indicated that they do feel that they are working too hard as teachers (a few times a week). This indicates that quite a number of teachers in this study still feel overworked. This scenario may be partly attributed to large classes that are characteristic of rural schools in the province of Kwa-Zulu-Natal.

Table 4.10  Responses on depersonalization items (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects.</td>
<td>220 54 31 22 15 13 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I do not feel any sympathy for others since I took this job.</td>
<td>220 41 16 14 23 33 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.</td>
<td>152 72 28 27 22 38 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I don't really care what happens to some students.</td>
<td>248 41 20 12 10 18 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I feel some students blame me for some of their problems</td>
<td>183 78 35 24 22 18 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.1.2.2 Depersonalisation responses

Depersonalisation manifests itself when the professional begins to derogate his clients or patients and try to put them down. He/she may even refuse to be civil and courteous to them. Table 4.10 indicates that the majority of respondents did not experience depersonalisation feelings. In fact, for items 5, 10 and 15, more than half the number of respondents (60.4%, 60.4% and 68.1% respectively) indicated that they never experience such feelings. This outcome can be interpreted to mean that despite the pressures that characterise the teaching profession today, a large number of teachers still respect the dignity of students and see them as young ones who need help.

Table 4.11 Responses on personal accomplishment (n=364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. I can easily understand how my students feel about things.</td>
<td>34 72 43 44 54 68 49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my students</td>
<td>35 57 34 29 46 97 66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I feel I'm influencing other people's lives positively through teaching</td>
<td>45 47 24 24 34 93 97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Teaching makes me feel very energetic.</td>
<td>58 50 36 33 38 87 62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.</td>
<td>36 53 29 25 39 100 82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I feel refreshed after working closely with my students.</td>
<td>48 54 34 35 50 83 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.</td>
<td>41 57 32 44 49 86 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. As a teacher, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.</td>
<td>43 45 32 31 54 96 63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1.2.3 Personal accomplishment responses

The personal accomplishment sub-scale assesses feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people. Table 4.11 shows that the majority of responses are located in the last two columns of the sub-scale. These columns represent 'a few times a week' and 'every day'.
Therefore this obviously indicates that generally respondents do experience feelings of competence and achievement in their work with people.

One notable response here is on item 12 (Teaching makes me feel very energetic), where 58 respondents (15.9%) of the total sample scored ‘never’ as opposed to 62 respondents (17%) who scored ‘every day’. The difference between respondents who reported that they are never energized by teaching and those who, on daily basis derive energy from teaching is 1.1%. This observation means that it would be scientifically incorrect to generalise that the majority of teachers in this study experience achievement in their work with students. The fact that the difference between those who experience personal accomplishment and those who don’t (with regard to item 12) is so small is a clear indication that to some teachers, teaching is more of a source of misery that of energy.

4.2.1.3 Hypotheses investigation.

Three hypotheses had to be tested in this study. The tabulation of data is preceded by the reiteration of each hypothesis.

4.2.1.3.1 Testing hypothesis number one:

*Teachers do not differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout (represented by emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment).*

The test chosen for testing this hypothesis is the chi-square one sample test. This test is appropriate in that testing hypothesis number one has to do with comparing the number of respondents of the whole sample who fall into each of the descriptive categories, namely, low emotional exhaustion level (LEEL), moderate emotional exhaustion level (MEEL) and high emotional exhaustion level (HEEL); low depersonalisation level (LDPL), moderate depersonalisation level (MDPL), high depersonalisation level (HDPL); low personal
accomplishment level (LPAL), moderate personal accomplishment level (MPAL) and high personal accomplishment level (HPAL).

The hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of significance (Table 4.12).

**TABLE 4.12 CATEGORIES AND EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION LEVELS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
<th>FREQUENCIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 (EE)</td>
<td>(LEEL) (0-18)</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(MEEL) (19-36)</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(HEEL) (37-54)</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 151.67 \quad \text{df} = 2 \quad p<0.05 \]

A chi-square value of 151.67 at df=2 was obtained for table 4.12. It is significant at our chosen level of significance which is 0.05, since p<0.05.

**TABLE 4.13 CATEGORIES AND DEPERSONALISATION LEVELS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
<th>FREQUENCIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2 (DP)</td>
<td>(LDPL) (0 - 10)</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(MDPL) (11-20)</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(HDPL) (21-30)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 341.61 \quad \text{df} = 2 \quad p<0.05 \]

For table 4.13 a chi-square value of 341.61 df=2 was obtained. It is significant at our chosen level of significance which is 0.05, since p<0.05.
A chi-square value of 41.56 at df=2 was obtained for Table 4.14 (Personal Accomplishment). It is significant at our chosen level of significance which is 0.05.

The decision is therefore to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that teachers differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout since p<0.05 for all three burnout sub-scales.

**Table 4.15: Scoring patterns of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS/SUB-SCALES</th>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Exhaustion</td>
<td>(LEEL) (0 -18)</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>61.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(MEEL) (19 - 36)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(HEEL) (37 -54)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalisation</td>
<td>(LDPL) (0 -10)</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>78.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(MDPL) (11 - 20)</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>20.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(HDPL) (21 - 30)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Accomplishment</td>
<td>(LPAL) (0 - 16)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>18.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(MPAL) (17 - 32)</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>43.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(HPAL) (33 - 48)</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>37.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The scoring pattern of respondents is displayed in table 4.15. According to Maslach and Jackson (1996:5), a low degree of burnout is reflected in low scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, and high scores on personal accomplishment. Table 4.15 reveals that 61.5% of respondents scored low on emotional exhaustion, 78% scored low on depersonalisation and 81.59% scored moderately to high on personal accomplishment. Therefore, the researcher concludes that in this study, respondents displayed a low degree of burnout since the majority (61.5%) scored low on emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation (78.02%), and the majority (81.59%) reflected moderate to high scores on personal accomplishment.

4.2.1.3.2 Testing hypothesis number two:

*Teachers do not differ in the manner in which they manifest burnout.*

The appropriate statistical test chosen for testing hypothesis number two is the analysis of variance (ANOVA) or F-test. ANOVA or F-test is an appropriate statistical test where more than two means are compared to determine whether groups differ significantly among themselves, and whether there are any interaction between them (Borg & Gall, 1983:549-552).

The advantages of using this test are that it deals with differences among sample means; it permits us to handle two or more independent variables at the same time and it allows us to look into the interacting effects of two or more variables rather than just handling individual effects of each variable separately (Howell, 1989:220).

The following sub-section tabulates the results of the F-test. Only results where significant differences were found are provided.
Table 4.16: F-test for differences between means in the case of level of education and emotional exhaustion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>F-VALUE</th>
<th>P-VALUE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LEVEL OF EDUCATION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>0.017*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree + Dip.</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* significant at the 0.05 level

The results of Table 4.16 show a significant difference in the case of the variable of the level of education and emotional exhaustion. The implication is that teachers with a postgraduate qualification experience high emotional exhaustion levels than the ones with lesser qualifications. About 24% of these teachers (with a postgraduate qualification) displayed high emotional exhaustion levels.

The decision is, therefore, to reject the null hypothesis in the case of level of education and emotional exhaustion and to conclude that teacher differ in the manner in which they manifest burnout.

Table 4.17: F-test for the difference between means in the case of gender and personal accomplishment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>F-VALUE</th>
<th>P-VALUE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>0.044*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* significant at the 0.05 level
According to the results of table 4.17, there is a significant difference between the variable of gender and personal accomplishment. The implication is that male teachers experience high personal accomplishment than their female counterparts.

The decision is, therefore, to reject the null hypothesis and maintain that teachers differ in the manner in which they manifest burnout with regard to gender and personal accomplishment.

4.2.1.3.3 Testing hypothesis number three:

*There is no relationship between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout.*

Burnout is conceptualised in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment. Therefore in order to determine whether there is any association between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout, each biographical characteristic has to be analysed in relation to each of the three dimensions of burnout. For this purpose, the chi-square one sample test has been carried out to determine whether there is any significant association between teachers' biographical factors and burnout (represented by the three sub-scales).

Categories for three biographical factors had to be collapsed due to the insignificant number of respondents in each of the categories. This has led to the reduction of cells and degrees of freedom. Biographical factors affected as a result of this action were age, marital status and years of experience. The 'age' category has been reduced from five levels (see table 4.2) to three levels (see tables 4.19; 4.27; 4.35).

The 'marital status' category has been reduced from four levels (see table 4.3) to three levels (see tables 4.20; 4.28; 4.36). The 'divorced' and 'widowed' levels were collapsed, and replaced with the 'no spouse' level. This level differed from the 'single' level in that it consisted of respondents
who once had spouses but were separated because of either death or divorce.

The 'work experience' category has been reduced from five levels (see table 4.6) to four levels (see tables 4.23; 4.31; 4.39).

Tables 4.18 to 4.41 present the results of the chi-square test for each biographical factor and all three burnout sub-scales.

Emotional exhaustion levels and gender

Table 4.18 Relationship between the variable of gender and emotional exhaustion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL: 224 106 34 364

χ²=0.62 df=2 p>0.05

For emotional exhaustion and gender, a chi-square value of 0.62 at df=2 was obtained for table 4.18. The results indicate that there is no significant relationship between the variable of gender and emotional exhaustion since p>0.05.

Table 4.19 Relationship between the variable of age and emotional exhaustion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-&lt;</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL: 224 106 34 364

χ²=3.96 df=4 p>0.05
With regard to emotional exhaustion levels and age, the test yielded a chi-square value of 3.96 at df=4. Based on the chosen level of significance of 0.05, this shows that there is no significant relationship between the variable of age and emotional exhaustion since p>0.05.

**Table 4.20** Relationship between the variable of marital status and emotional exhaustion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MARITAL STATUS</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No spouse</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 0.14 \] \hspace{1cm} df=4 \hspace{1cm} p>0.05

A chi-square value of 0.14 at df=4 was obtained for table 4.20. At the chosen level of significance, the test shows no significant relationship between the variable of marital status and emotional exhaustion since p>0.05.

**Table 4.21** Relationship between the variable of the level of education and emotional exhaustion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL OF EDUCATION</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College dip</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree + dip.</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 12.24 \] \hspace{1cm} df=6 \hspace{1cm} p>0.05

A chi-square value of 12.24 at df=6 was obtained for table 4.21. Based on the chosen level of significance of 0.05, the results show no significant
relationship between the variable of level of education and emotional exhaustion.

Table 4.22 Relationship between the variable of position at school and emotional exhaustion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITION AT SCHOOL</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H.O.D.</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>224</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 1.66 \) df=2 \( p>0.05 \)

For table 4.22 a chi-square value of 1.66 at df=2 was obtained. At the chosen level of significance (0.05) it shows no significant relationship between the variable of position at school and emotional exhaustion.

Table 4.23 Relationship between the variable of work experience and emotional exhaustion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WORK EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 &amp; less</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 10</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 20</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21&lt;</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>224</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 0.99 \) df=6 \( p>0.05 \)

A chi-square value of 0.99 df=6 was obtained for the table 4.23. It is not significant at the chosen level of significance, which is 0.05. It therefore,
shows no significant relationship between the variable of work experience and emotional exhaustion.

Table 4.24  Relationship between the variable of the average number of learners in classes taught and emotional exhaustion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AVERAGE NO. OF LEARNERS</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15 - 30</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 - 59</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 &lt;</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>224</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 4.87 \)  \( \text{df} = 6 \)  \( p > 0.05 \)

A chi-square value of 4.87 df=6 was obtained for table 4.24. At the chosen level of significance the test shows no significant relationship between the variable of the average number of learners in classes taught and emotional exhaustion.

Table 4.25  Relationship between the variable of the location of the school and emotional exhaustion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOCATION OF SCHOOL</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban/township</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>224</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 5.31 \)  \( \text{df} = 4 \)  \( p > 0.05 \)

For table 4.25 a chi-square value of 5.31 df=4 was obtained. At the chosen level of significance (0.05) it shows no significant relationship between the variable of the location of the school and emotional exhaustion.
Depersonalisation levels and biographical characteristics.

Table 4.26 Relationship between the variable of gender and depersonalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 0.46 \quad \text{df}=2 \quad p>0.05 \]

For table 4.26 a chi-square value of 0.46 at df=2 was obtained. It is not significant at the chosen level of significance (0.05), since \( p>0.05 \).

Table 4.27 Relationship between the variable of age and depersonalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40&lt;</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 0.87 \quad \text{df}=4 \quad p>0.05 \]

A chi-square value of 0.87 at df=4 was obtained for table 4.27. Since \( p>0.05 \) the decision is to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no significant relationship between the variable of age and depersonalisation.
Table 4.28 Relationship between the variable of marital status and depersonalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MARITAL STATUS</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No spouse</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>284</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 1.00 \quad \text{df} = 4 \quad p > 0.05 \]

For table 4.28 a chi-square value of 1.00 df=4 was obtained. It is not significant at the chosen level of significance, which is 0.05. The test therefore shows no significant relationship between the variable of marital status and depersonalisation.

Table 4.29 Relationship between the variable of level of education and depersonalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL OF EDUCATION</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College dip</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree + dip</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgrad</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>284</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 3.44 \quad \text{df} = 6 \quad p > 0.05 \]

A chi-square value of 3.44 at df=6 was obtained for the table 4.29. It is not significant at the chosen level of significance (0.05). Since p>0.05 the conclusion will be that there is no relationship between the variable of level of education and depersonalisation.
### Table 4.30

Relationship between the variable of position at school and depersonalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITION AT SCHOOL</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H.O.D.</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>284</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 1.17$  
$df = 2$  
$p > 0.05$

For table 4.30 a chi-square value of 1.17 at $df=2$ was obtained. It is not significant at the chosen level of significance. Since $p > 0.05$ the conclusion will be that there is no significant relationship between the variable of position at school and depersonalisation.

### Table 4.31

Relationship between the variable of experience at work (in years) and depersonalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WORK EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5&gt;</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21&lt;</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>284</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 0.65$  
$df = 6$  
$p > 0.05$

A chi-square value of 0.65 $df=6$ was obtained for table 4.31. At the chosen level of significance (0.05) it shows no significant relationship between the variable of work experience and depersonalisation.
Table 4.32  Relationship between the variable of the average number of learners in classes taught and depersonalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AVERAGE NO OF LEARNERS</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-30</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-59</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60&lt;</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 6.31 \)  
\( df = 6 \)  
\( p > 0.05 \)

A chi-square value of 6.31 at df=6 was obtained for table 4.32. It is not significant at the chosen level of significance. Therefore the conclusion is that there is no significant relationship between the variable of average number of learners in classes taught and depersonalisation.

Table 4.33  Relationship between the variable of the location of the school and depersonalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOCATION OF SCHOOL</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Township</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 6.15 \)  
\( df = 4 \)  
\( p > 0.05 \)

For table 4.33, a chi-square value of 6.15 at df=4 was obtained. Since \( p > 0.05 \) it is not significant at the chosen level of significance. The conclusion is that there is no significant relationship between the variable of the location of the school and depersonalisation.
Personal accomplishment levels and biographical characteristics

Table 4.34 Relationship between the variable of gender and personal accomplishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi_2=4.81$ df=2 $p>0.05$

A chi-square value of 4.81 at df=2 was obtained for table 4.34. At the chosen level of significance it shows no significant relationship between the variable of gender and personal accomplishment.

Table 4.35 Relationship between the variable of age and personal accomplishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40&lt;</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi_2=1.00$ df=4 $p>0.05$

For table 4.35, a chi-square value of 1.00 at df=4 was obtained. It is not significant at the chosen level of significance. Therefore the conclusion is that there is no significant relationship between the variable of age and personal accomplishment since $p>0.05$. 
Table 4.36 Relationship between the variable of marital status and personal accomplishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MARITAL STATUS</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No spouse</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>67</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

χ² = 0.75 df = 4 p > 0.05

A chi-square value of 0.75 at df=4 was obtained for table 4.36. It is not significant at the chosen level of significance since p > 0.05. The conclusion is that there is no significant relationship between the variable of marital status and personal accomplishment.

Table 4.37 Relationship between the variable of the level of education and personal accomplishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL OF EDUCATION</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College dip.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree + dip.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-grad</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>67</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

χ² = 2.029 df = 6 p > 0.05

For table 4.37, a chi-square value of 2.029 at df=6 was obtained. It is not significant at the chosen level, since p > 0.05. It thus indicates no significant relationship between the variable of level of education and personal accomplishment.
Table 4.38 Relationship between the variable of position at school and personal accomplishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITION AT SCHOOL</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H.O.D.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 0.37 \) df=2 \( p>0.05 \)

A chi-square value of 0.37 was obtained for table 4.38. At the chosen level of significance (0.05%) there is no significant relationship between the variable of position at school and personal accomplishment.

Table 4.39 Relationship between the variable of work experience and personal accomplishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WORK EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5&gt;</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 10</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21&lt;</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 1.00 \) df=6 \( p>0.05 \)

For table 4.39, a chi-square value of 1.00 at df=6 was obtained. It is not significant at the chosen level (0.05%), and it indicates no significant relationship between the variable of work experience and personal accomplishment.
Table 4.40 Relationship between the variable of average number of learners in classes taught and personal accomplishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AVERAGE NO OF LEARNERS</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15 - 30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 45</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 - 59</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60&lt;</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>67</strong></td>
<td><strong>159</strong></td>
<td><strong>138</strong></td>
<td><strong>364</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 5.18 \quad df = 6 \quad p > 0.05 \]

A chi-square value of 5.18 at df=6 was obtained for table 4.40. At the chosen level of significance (0.05) it shows no significant relationship between the variable of the average number of learners in classes taught and personal accomplishment.

Table 4.41 Relationship between the variable of the location of the school and personal accomplishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOCATION OF SCHOOL</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Township/Urban</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal settlement</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>67</strong></td>
<td><strong>159</strong></td>
<td><strong>138</strong></td>
<td><strong>364</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 8.43 \quad df = 4 \quad p > 0.05 \]

A chi-square value of 8.43 df=4 was obtained for table 4.41. At the chosen level of significance (0.05) it shows no significant relationship between the variable of the location of the school and personal accomplishment.
The chi-square tests conducted in tables 4.18 - 4.41 indicate no significant relationship between teachers’ biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout. The decision is therefore to accept the null hypothesis and maintain that there is no association between teachers’ biographical factors and burnout.

4.3 Conclusion

In this chapter the following was provided: tables reflecting the analysis of frequency of responses for each burnout factor/sub-scale and a brief discussion; tables reflecting the analysis of biographical information; as well as testing of the three hypotheses. The next chapter will contain the summary of findings, recommendations, avenues for future research and conclusion following from this study.
Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

5.1.1 The problem

This study set out to investigate the burnout syndrome among secondary school teachers in Kwa-Zulu-Natal. In order to facilitate the investigation, research questions were formulated and stated as follows:

(i) To what extent do teachers in KwaZulu-Natal experience the incidence of burnout?
(ii) In what manner do teachers manifest burnout?
(iii) Is there a relationship between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout?

5.1.2 The objectives of the study

(i) To ascertain the incidence of burnout among teachers.
(ii) To determine the manner in which teachers manifest burnout.
(iii) To find out whether there is any association between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout.
5.1.3 Hypotheses postulated

(i) Teachers do not differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout.
(ii) Teachers do not differ in the manner in which they manifest burnout.
(iii) There is no relationship between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout.

5.1.4 Methodology

The Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES) was utilized to meet the aims of the investigation. The MBI-ES is an instrument developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) to measure burnout. Initially the instrument was administered to a randomly selected sample of 432 teachers. Out of this number, sixty eight questionnaire scripts were either spoiled or did not have sufficient information to contribute to the study, therefore they had to be discarded. The final sample then consisted of 364 teachers. Two statistical tests, namely, the chi-square one sample test and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) or F-test were used to test the hypotheses of the study. These were thought to be the most appropriate statistical tests for purposes of this research.

5.2 Discussion of findings

In the previous chapter the data gathered for this study were presented and analysed by means of tables. In order to determine whether the objectives of this study have been achieved or not, the aims of the study will be examined in relation to the hypotheses and findings. First there will be an interpretation of findings with regard to the biographical data,
followed by the discussion and interpretation of the results of each of the three hypotheses. The discussion on the frequency of responses on burnout items was presented in the previous chapter together with the relevant tables, therefore it won't form part of chapter five.

5.2.1 Discussion of findings regarding the biographical data.

The purpose of presenting the analysis of biographical profile is to give a clearer picture of the distribution of respondents in the sample.

This profile is provided in tables 4.4 to 4.11 of chapter four and it indicates the following:

The majority of teachers were female, as opposed to 35.4% males. Possibly this might be an indication that the majority of teachers in secondary schools in KwaZulu-Natal are female. The majority of teachers in this study were rather young, that is to say 75.2% (21.4% + 53.8%) were 39 years and younger. Furthermore, 54.7% of the teachers were single.

The analysis further reveals that the majority of teachers had college diplomas (57.1%). This makes sense especially if one recalls that this province had more than five colleges which catered for teacher education, as opposed to three universities charged with a similar mandate.

College diplomas fall into the M + 3 category/REQV 13, and currently the preferred minimum qualification for teachers is M + 4/REQV 14. If one considers that in the current sample 3.3% of teachers had matric, and 57.1% had college diplomas, one would conclude that the majority were under qualified teachers (60.4%), as opposed to 39.6% who had either a degree and a diploma or a postgraduate qualification.
The majority of teachers were classroom based (73.4%), as opposed to 26.6% heads of departments. With regard to work experience, the majority of teachers (36.5%) had taught for quite some time, and had experience ranging between 6 and 10 years, and 28.3% had teaching experience of between 11 and 20 years. The majority of teachers were teaching very large classes. For example, 29.9% had classes with learners between 46 and 59, whilst 42% had classes of more than 60 learners. This is an indication of the over-crowded classrooms in our schools.

In the sample, more than 70% were teaching in rural schools. This also confirms that the province of KwaZulu-Natal is largely rural. Only 23.1% taught in township schools and 6.1% in informal settlement schools.

It is true that the urban environment is much more stressful compared to its rural counterpart. The urban society is characterised by pressures that are not prominent in rural communities. Since the school is a reflection of society, whatever happens in society will be reflected in the school set up. The researcher, therefore, argues that rural teachers will not experience as much burnout as their urban counterparts. The 29.2% which showed high burnout levels could be regarded as those teachers who teach in township and informal settlement schools.

5.2.2 Discussion of findings regarding the objectives of the study

5.2.2.1 Findings with regard to objective number one

The data revealed that teachers in KwaZulu-Natal differ in the extent to which they experience burnout. A high percentage (61.5%), of teachers scored low on emotional exhaustion, 78.02% scored low on
depersonalisation and 81.59% scored moderately to high on personal accomplishment. This clearly indicates a low burnout level among the majority of teachers in this study.

A number of studies conducted worldwide (Cunningham, 1983; Farber, 1984; Fletcher & Payne, 1982) have described teaching as a highly stressful profession. This means that teachers experience stress and burnout very often in their job. Although this is so, stress levels experienced by teachers in the current study did not lead to severe burnout levels. An explanation of this situation might be that teachers (in the present study) are coping well with the demanding conditions of the job. It may be interesting to further explore the coping strategies used by teachers and the effectiveness of these strategies in alleviating experiences of burnout.

Capel (1987:279; 1991:44) reported similar results where she found that the overall level of burnout among British teachers was low. Furthermore Sarros and Sarros (1987:224) arrived at the same conclusion in their study.

The present study has further revealed that although the majority of teachers reflect low burnout levels, there are teachers who experience high levels of burnout. The results of the chi-square test indicated that 9.3% of teachers scored high on emotional exhaustion, 1.93% also scored high on depersonalisation and 18.41% scored low on personal accomplishment. This means that 29.64% of the total sample reflects very high levels of burnout. Although this percentage may seem relatively small, it does, however indicate that there are teachers out there who experience burnout.
KwaZulu-Natal is largely a rural province. This is confirmed by the high percentage of teachers (70.8%) whose schools are rural, as opposed to 23.4% and 6.1% whose schools are in townships and informal settlements respectively.

One would argue that rural schools do not experience much of the social pressures that are characteristic of the urban environment. Such pressures include student violence, culture of defiance, hooliganism, lack of support by parents and education officials. Teachers in urban and informal settlement schools have to contend with much more problems than their rural counterparts. The researcher therefore observes that the 29.2% of respondents who reported high levels of burnout are found mainly in urban and informal settlement schools.

5.2.2.2 Findings with regard to objective number two

The second research question to be answered in this study has to do with the manner in which teachers manifest burnout. The F-test conducted revealed two notable results. Firstly it showed a significant difference between the means in the case of the variable of level of education and emotional exhaustion. This implies that teachers with a postgraduate qualification experience high emotional exhaustion level than those with lower qualifications. About 24% of teachers who had a postgraduate qualification displayed high emotional exhaustion level.

Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work. In fact it is more the consequence of workload, which is often related to work stress. Workload is always associated with senior positions that come with additional responsibilities. Heads of departments are usually highly qualified and their job assignments go beyond teaching. They are expected to help the
principal with administrative and supervisory duties. Since they have to deal constantly with people in emotionally draining situation, they are likely to experience emotional exhaustion.

The second notable observation from the F-test is that of a significant difference between the means in the case of the variable of gender and personal accomplishment. This can be interpreted to suggest that male teachers experience high personal accomplishment compared to their female counterparts. According to Maslach (1982:5) personal accomplishment has to do with feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people. Although for many years teaching has been viewed as a profession that offers very little incentives, a profession with no mechanism for rewarding hard work and dedication, male teachers have been benefiting more than their female counterparts. Promotions to senior positions together with increased financial rewards were mostly enjoyed by male teachers.

A few years ago, it was rare to find a female principal of a high school. The situation was different at lower primary school, where female principals were a common sight. The researcher is of the opinion that although opportunities have now been created for female teachers to climb the promotion ladder, the majority of senior personnel at school level are still male.

This may explain why male teachers experience more personal accomplishment than their female counterparts. Senior positions in schools are still male dominated. Male teachers still regard themselves as possible candidates for promotion than their female colleagues. This brings about a sense of job security and stability among male teachers.
The revelations as stated in the preceding paragraph are in line with the findings of Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli's research (2002:253) in showing that male teachers experience more personal accomplishment than their female counterparts. The study by Bakker et al (2002:256) further reports that females scored higher on both emotional exhaustion and negative attitudes whereas males had higher scores on depersonalisation.

5.2.2.3 Findings with regard to objective number three

The third and final research question to be answered in this study is whether there is any relationship between the teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout. The data revealed no significant relationship between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout. The implication here is that none of the biographical data in this study could be associated with any of the three sub-scales of burnout.

Similar observations were reported by Pierce & Molloy (1990:37-51) whose study showed that teachers' biographical characteristics (gender, age, marital status, teaching experience, and parental status) were less significant predictors of burnout.

Although the current study as well as the one by Pierce & Molloy (1990) found no relationship between biographical characteristics and burnout, the findings reported by Bakker et al (2002) portray a different picture. These researcher found that the differences in burnout scores between females and males are largest among relatively young employees (i.e. younger that 33 years of age). Across the occupations investigated, females reported higher levels of burnout than males, particularly when they were relatively young. A similar pattern of results was found when
working experience was included in the test. Clearly these results point to a relationship between age and burnout, between working experience and burnout, and between gender and burnout.

The conclusion is that teachers’ biographical characteristics as used in this study are not in anyway associated with burnout. However the researcher acknowledges the fact that some studies (Bakker et al:2002) have established the existence of some relationship between these biographical factors and burnout.

5.3 Conclusions

After the data were captured and analysed, the study came to the following conclusions:

(i) Teachers differ in the extent to which they experience the incidence of burnout. The majority experience low levels of burnout whereas some experience moderate burnout levels. There is, however, a small but significant number of teachers that experience very high burnout levels.

(ii) Teachers differ in the manner in which they manifest burnout in the case of level of education and emotional exhaustion, and in the case of gender and personal accomplishment. This points to a positive relationship between the level of education and emotional exhaustion, and between gender and personal accomplishment. With regard to the level of education and emotional exhaustion, this means that teachers with a post-graduate qualification experience high emotional exhaustion level compared to their counterparts who hold lower qualifications. With regard to gender and personal
accomplishment, this means that male teachers experience high personal accomplishment levels compared to female teachers.

(iii) The study indicates that there is no relationship between teachers' biographical factors (gender, age, marital status, level of education, position at school, work experience, average number of learners in classes taught, location of school) and burnout.

Since this study adhered to the principles of scientific procedures, the findings arrived at can be generalized to the entire population of black secondary school teachers in the province of Kwa-Zulu-Natal.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study some recommendations were made and these are discussed below.

5.4.1 Recommendation one

The significant findings in this study show that the majority of teachers in KwaZulu-Natal experience very low levels of burnout. However a small but noticeable percentage of teachers in this study displayed very high levels of burnout. The researcher is of the opinion that this group of teachers consists mainly of heads of departments whose responsibilities at school are much more than teaching. There is therefore a need to provide newly appointed heads of departments with assistance and support. This recommendation is dealt with extensively under paragraph 5.4.2.1

Significantly low levels of burnout as displayed by the majority of teachers in this study raise a few questions. One of such questions is: given the
stressful nature of the teaching profession as well as the unavailability of resources in schools in KwaZulu-Natal, and the overcrowded classrooms, why are teachers not burned out? The answer to this question may lie in the coping strategies that teachers employ to survive burnout in their work environment. It may be interesting to investigate these coping strategies and see how they affect the way teachers perform at work. Secondly the answer to this question might be that teachers in KwaZulu-Natal are not as disillusioned as they are generally thought to be.

Currently there are many positive developments in the teaching profession. This is as a result of the democratic order that was ushered in 1994. A lot of senior positions are now available for serving teachers. The democratic government has created opportunities for teachers who were previously unqualified, to upgrade themselves academically. The department of education is financing the whole exercise. Female teachers are also targeted as a group that requires upliftment. These and other incentives in the teaching profession can be seen to be contributing towards making teaching a not-so-stressful environment, despite all the problems associated with the profession.

5.4.2 Recommendation two

The study also established that there is a significant difference between the variable of level of education and emotional exhaustion on one hand, and a significant difference between the variable of gender and personal accomplishment levels on the other hand. Recommendations regarding these findings are presented below:
5.4.2.1 Recommendations regarding the variable of level of education and emotional exhaustion level

This significant difference implies that teachers who hold post-graduate qualifications experience high emotional exhaustion levels than the ones with lower qualifications. In many cases teachers who hold post-graduate qualifications occupy senior positions at school. In fact, the majority of heads of departments hold a postgraduate qualification. It is interesting to note that 26.6% of teachers were heads of departments, and 24% of respondents displayed high emotional exhaustion levels. The researcher believes that this 24% is made up of heads of departments. The position of head of department comes with additional responsibilities. The head of department becomes the principal's right-hand person. He/She is now expected to do well as an administrator whereas no training was provided for this kind of work. Such people usually find themselves overwhelmed with work they were not trained to do. This situation can easily expose them to emotional exhaustion burnout.

Heads of departments who find themselves in this situation can be assisted in the following ways:

(i) They must be encouraged to undergo training in management skills. Once they pass this course, certificates must be issued, and these must be accompanied by a once-off gratuity.

(ii) Their teaching load has to be reduced significantly so as to enable them to focus more on administration.

(iii) They must be provided with on-site support where administrators from the department would come and give advice to heads of departments at school.
The principal has to monitor the work of the newly appointed head of department and provide him/her with necessary guidance and support.

5.4.2.2 Recommendation regarding the variable of gender and personal accomplishment level

Another finding was that of a significant difference between the variable of gender and personal accomplishment levels. Its implication is that male teachers experience high personal accomplishment levels compared to their female counterparts. The reasons for this state of affairs were addressed in paragraph 5.2.2.2.

If we view these results from a different angle, they tell us that female teachers show low personal accomplishment levels (see lower mean score on table 4.17). This means that female teachers display a high degree of experienced burnout.

The researcher is of the opinion that this situation will change as the government’s efforts to uplift females begins to make an impact in daily lives of female professionals.

As a matter of fact, the number of female teachers appointed to senior management positions both at school level and at departmental level has increased. Many female teachers are now confident and positive about their future role in the teaching profession than in many years ago. Moreover the department of education and the private sector need to collaborate in developing capacity among female teachers. This will ensure that no human potential is wasted.
5.4.3 Recommendation three

The study also revealed that there is no significant relationship between teachers’ biographical characteristics (gender, age, marital status, level of education, position at school, work experience, average number of learners in classes taught, location of school) and burnout.

However the researcher is of the opinion that there may be other biographical factors (other than the ones used in this study) that can be closely associated with burnout. Further studies can be undertaken to investigate this.

5.5 Avenues for future research

The following are limitations of this study and are outlined for directing future research studies.

(i) In this study the target population were government/public schools. There is a need for future research to focus on private schools.

(ii) The sample of this study was drawn from secondary school teachers. A similar study focusing on primary school teachers can be undertaken.

(iii) In the current study the sample was drawn from black secondary school teachers. Further research focusing on teachers of all races is needed.

(iv) The sample of this study was drawn from the province of KwaZulu-Natal only, therefore it is not representative of
the entire population of teachers in South Africa. Further studies need to be conducted in other provinces.

(v) Given the fact that the majority of teachers displayed low burnout levels, the assumption is that they are coping well with the rigorous demands of the profession. There is therefore a need to investigate teachers' coping strategies, and how these affect their teaching.

5.6 Conclusion

The study was an attempt to investigate the burnout syndrome in the teaching profession. To this end the sample was drawn from teachers teaching in traditionally black secondary schools in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES) was used as an instrument for collecting data. Data was analysed using the chi-square test and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) or F-test. The study came to the conclusion that teachers in the province of KwaZulu-Natal experience low levels of burnout.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Byrne, D.G. & Rosenman, R.H. 1990 Anxiety and the heart: New York: Taylor & Francis.

Capel, S. 1991 'A longitudinal study of burnout in teachers.' The British Journal of Educational Psychology, 61, 36-45.


Grnelch, W. 1982 Beyond stress to effective management. New York: John Wiley s. & Son


Kets de Vries M.F.R. 1995 Life and Death in the Executive Fast Lane. (San Francisco, CA. Jossey

Kets de Vries M.F.R. 1996 The autonomy of the entrepreneur In Human Relations, 49, pp.853-883


Oppenheim, A.A. 1966 Questionnaire design and attitude measurement. London: Prentice-Hall.


Pierce, C.B.M. & Molloy, G.N. 1990 'Psychological and biographical differences between secondary school teachers experiencing high and low levels of burnout' In: British Journal of Educational Psychology, 60, 31-51.


Pines, A. & Aronson C. 1981. 'Combatting Burnout.' Children and Youth Services Review


Pretorius, T.B. 1993 Psychological research: Normative and comparative data on selected research instruments. Unpublished manuscript. UWC, Psychology resource centre.


Reed, S. 1979 'What you can do to prevent burnout'. National Elementary Principal, 58, 67-70.


Samples, S. 1976 'Sanity in the classroom'. Science Teacher, 43, 24-27.


ANNEXTURE A

MODIFIED VERSION OF THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY – EDUCATORS’ SURVEY
HUMAN SERVICE SURVEY

"AN INVESTIGATION INTO JOB-RELATED ATTITUDES AMONG EDUCATORS IN BLACK SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE ZULULAND REGION OF KZN"

1. You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire as genuinely as possible. You need not reveal your name as the information will be kept confidential and anonymous.
2. Indicate your answer according to the instructions given.

A BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please supply the information required below by crossing the appropriate box

1. GENDER:  
   - [ ] FEMALE  
   - [ ] MALE

2. AGE:  
   - [ ] 20-29  
   - [ ] 30-39  
   - [ ] 40-49  
   - [ ] 50-59  
   - [ ] 60 AND ABOVE

3. MARITAL STATUS:  
   - [ ] SINGLE  
   - [ ] MARRIED  
   - [ ] DIVORCED  
   - [ ] WIDOWED

4. HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION:  
   - [ ] MATRIC  
   - [ ] DIPLOMA  
   - [ ] DEGREE + DIPLOMA  
   - [ ] POSTGRADUATE

5. POSITION AT SCHOOL:  
   - [ ] ASSISTANT TEACHER  
   - [ ] HOD/SNR. TEACHER

6. WORK EXPERIENCE (NO. OF YEARS):  
   - [ ] 1-5  
   - [ ] 6-10  
   - [ ] 11-20  
   - [ ] 21-30  
   - [ ] 31 AND ABOVE

7. AVERAGE NO. OF LEARNERS IN CLASSES TAUGHT:  
   - [ ] 15-29  
   - [ ] 30-45  
   - [ ] 46-59  
   - [ ] 60 AND ABOVE

8. LOCATION OF SCHOOL:  
   - [ ] TOWNSHIP/URBAN  
   - [ ] INFORMAL SETTLEMENT  
   - [ ] RURAL
B. INSTRUCTIONS:

PLEASE CIRCLE ONE NUMBER NEXT TO EACH STATEMENT USING THE FOLLOWING SCALE:

HOW OFTEN:

0 = NEVER
1 = A FEW TIMES
2 = ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
3 = A FEW TIMES A MONTH
4 = ONCE A WEEK
5 = A FEW TIMES A WEEK
6 = EVERY DAY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I feel that teaching is draining me emotionally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I feel I extremely tired at the end of the school day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day at school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I can easily understand how my students feel about things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Working with students all day is really a strain for me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I feel burned out from teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>I feel I'm influencing other people's lives positively through teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I do not feel any sympathy for others since I took this job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RATINGS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ANNEXTURE B

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS
REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A FIELD STUDY IN SOME SELECTED SCHOOLS IN THE ZULULAND REGION

I am a D.Ed student at the University of Zululand. I hereby kindly request for permission to conduct research in some schools in your region. The title of my research is "The burnout syndrome in the teaching profession". The aims of this research are:

(a) To ascertain the incidence of burnout among teachers.
(b) To determine the manner in which teachers manifest burnout.
(c) To find out whether there is any association between teachers' biographical factors and the manifestations of burnout.

I believe that the results of this study will contribute to the knowledge about the problems experienced by teachers at work. The findings of this study will be made available to you, should you request for them.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Sipho A. Vilakazi
Senior Lecturer: Department of Foundations of Education
ANNEXTURE C

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO USE THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY – EDUCATORS' SURVEY
Subject: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO USE THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY-EDUCATORS SURVEY

Date: Tue, 10 Jun 2003 06:32:36 -0700

From: perms <perms@cpp-db.com>
To: "Mr. S.A. Vilakazi" <svilakaz@pan.uzulu.ac.za>

June 10, 2003

Dear Mr. Vilakazi:

Thank you for your expressed interest in obtaining permission for use of one of our products. We appreciate your interest in our products and company. However, in order for you to obtain permission for use of the MBI-ES you will need to complete the permission forms which I will send via e-mail, once you complete them than you can either return them via fax to 650 623-9259 or via e-mail. We do charge a fee for the right to modify and reproduce the inventory, the fee schedule is attached with this e-mail. Once I receive the completed permission forms I will issue an agreement giving you the right to retypethe inventory on word processor or typewriter making the necessary modifications to test your subjects, from that retyped modification you than will be allowed to make the necessary copies to test your subjects, you will be charged accordingly. I will also include the permission form for samples, so incase you want to include samples in your research paper you can request permission. We do not allow permission for inclusion of inventories in the published media or in research papers or the appendix of the research papers. So, for that reason we provide pre-chosen samples for a fee of $75.00 dollars. You will also be required to have an original published copy of the MBI-ES in order to have the original to work from.

Please let me know if you have any questions regarding our permission process or regarding our permission forms.

Thank you,

Eliza McLane
CPP Permission Coordinator.
650 691-9105
Fax 650 623-9259

-----Original Message-----
From: Mr S.A Vilakazi [Sent: Tuesday, June 10, 2003 12:52 AM]
To: perms@cpp-db.com
Subject: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO USE THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY-EDUCATORS SURVEY

Dear Sir/Madam

I hereby kindly request for permission to make use of the above-mentioned instrument. I am resident in South Africa, and my research is on the Burnout syndrome among teachers in one of the provinces of my country.

I would very much appreciate you positive response.

Thank you.
Dear Ms Mclane

MODIFIED VERSION OF THE MBI-ES AND REQUEST FOR PERMISSION

I took your advice and ordered the preview kit of the MBI. I have also added a demographic sheet, and have also effected some modifications to the inventory so as to make it suitable to my subjects.

Also attached to this fax is a modified version of the MBI-ES. I hope this will help you in granting me permission to use the inventory.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sipho A. Vilakazi

NB: This fax has 4 pages (the letter included)
ANNEXURE D

PERMISSION TO USE THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY – EDUCATORS’ SURVEY
In response to your request of June 10, 2003, upon concurrent receipt by CPP, Inc., of this signed Permission Agreement and payment of the Permission Fee, permission is hereby granted to you to modify and reproduce the Maslach Burnout Inventory-ES (MBI-ES) by adding a demographic sheet and making some modifications to better suit the subjects being tested, for research use within your Thesis entitled, “Burnout Syndrome Among Teachers in the Zululand Region Of the Province of KZN”. Research will be conducted August 8, 2003 through June 28, 2004 and you may reproduce 6 copies as modified only. This Permission Agreement shall automatically terminate June 28, 2004 or upon violation of this Agreement including, but not limited to, failure to pay the Permission Fee of $WAIVED + $WAIVED processing fee = Total $WAIVED or by failure to sign and return this Agreement within 45 days from August 8, 2003.

The permission granted hereunder is limited to this one-time use only.
The permission granted hereunder is specifically limited as specified in this agreement.
The permission granted hereunder shall be for research use of printed material only.
The permission granted hereunder specifically excludes the right to reproduce modified materials in any publication, including dissertations or theses.

This Permission Agreement shall be subject to the following conditions:

(a) Any material reproduced must be used in accordance with the guidelines of the American Psychological Association.

(b) Any material reproduced must contain the following credit lines:

"Modified and reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, CPP, Inc., Palo Alto, CA 94303 from Maslach Burnout Inventory-ES by Christina Maslach, Susan E. Jackson, and Richard Schwab. Copyright 1986 by CPP, Inc. All rights reserved. Further reproduction is prohibited without the Publisher's written consent."

(c) None of the materials may be sold or used for purposes other than those mentioned above, including, but not limited to, any commercial or for-profit use. Commercial and/or for profit use of the copyright-protected materials and/or any derivative work of the modified materials is specifically excluded from the permission granted herein.

(d) One copy of any material reproduced will be sent to the Publisher immediately after its completion to indicate that the appropriate credit line has been used. This Agreement shall be rescinded if one copy of the material is not received within forty-five days of reproduction/publication by a CPP representative.

(e) CPP subscribes to the general principles of test use as set forth in the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing Copyright 1985 by the American Psychological Association. The customer's/user's attention is drawn to the following statements:
"The test user, in selecting or interpreting a test, should know the purposes of the testing and the probable consequences. The user should know the procedures necessary to facilitate effectiveness and to reduce bias in test use. Although the test developer and publisher should provide information on the strengths and weaknesses of the test, the ultimate responsibility for appropriate test use lies with the test user. The user should become knowledgeable about the test and its appropriate use and also communicate this information, as appropriate, to others.

6.1 Test users should evaluate the available written documentation on the validity and reliability of tests for the specific use intended.

6.3 When a test is to be used for a purpose for which it has not been validated, or for which there is no supported claim for validity, the user is responsible for providing evidence of validity.

6.5 Test users should be alert to probable unintended consequences of test use and should attempt to avoid actions that have unintended negative consequences."

CPP shall not be responsible for the use or misuse of the materials or services licensed under this permission agreement. The customer/user assumes all responsibility for use or misuse of the same. Unless expressly agreed to in writing by CPP, all materials and services are licensed without warranty, express or implied, including the implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose. Refund of fees at CPP's sole option is the sole and exclusive remedy and is in lieu of actual, consequential, or incidental damages for use or misuse of CPP materials and services and in no event shall CPP liability exceed the contract fees of license of said materials and services. Unless otherwise expressly agreed to in writing by CPP, all materials and services are licensed without warranty, express or implied, including the implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose. Refund of fees at CPP's sole option is the sole and exclusive remedy and is in lieu of actual, consequential, or incidental damages for use or misuse of CPP materials and services and in no event shall CPP liability exceed the contract fees of license of said materials and services. Unless otherwise expressly agreed to in writing by CPP, all materials and services are licensed without warranty, express or implied, including the implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose. Refund of fees at CPP's sole option is the sole and exclusive remedy and is in lieu of actual, consequential, or incidental damages for use or misuse of CPP materials and services and in no event shall CPP liability exceed the contract fees of license of said materials and services. Unless otherwise expressly agreed to in writing by CPP, all materials and services are licensed without warranty, express or implied, including the implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose. Refund of fees at CPP's sole option is the sole and exclusive remedy and is in lieu of actual, consequential, or incidental damages for use or misuse of CPP materials and services and in no event shall CPP liability exceed the contract fees of license of said materials and services. Unless otherwise expressly agreed to in writing by CPP, all materials and services are licensed without warranty, express or implied, including the implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose. Refund of fees at CPP's sole option is the sole and exclusive remedy and is in lieu of actual, consequential, or incidental damages for use or misuse of CPP materials and services and in no event shall CPP liability exceed the contract fees of license of said materials and services.

CPP, INC.

By ________________________________  By ________________________________
Authorized Representative     Sipho Arnold Vilakazi

Date 9/26/03      Date 18 August 2003