

"BURNOUT" IN CHILDREN'S HOME HOUSEPARENTS

A replication study conducted amongst
english speaking Children's Homes in
the Witwatersrand-Pretoria region of
South Africa

by

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ABSTRACT.

Aimed at replicating the results of an American study into "Burnout" in Group Home houseparents, this research had the following aims: 1) To ascertain the validity and reliability of the instrument used in the original study and presented as a "useful measure of burnout". 2) To establish whether this line of research, within a highly problematic research field, can at present offer any guidelines in the resolution of the current staffing crisis faced by South African children's homes. 3) To describe more closely the burnout syndrome. 4) To study possible etiological factors within a local context. Sixty three houseparents completed questionnaires and three independent measures of burnout were obtained. The results were regarded as having failed to replicate those of the original study. The reason for this was found to be the low validity of the original instrument. The main conclusion drawn was that the line of research adopted in the original study can offer only very tentative guidelines towards the resolution of the staffing crisis faced until such time as valid and reliable instruments to measure burnout have been developed. Many of the suggested relationships between situational variables and ones of personal characteristics were confirmed for the local population of houseparents.

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1.

INTRODUCTION.

Throughout history both in South Africa and overseas, the development of residential care has been hindered to a large extent by problems related to the staffing of homes, particularly at the level of houseparents.

Dinnage and Pringle (1967), in an extensive review of the literature on and research into residential child care, report that in Britain the shortage of staff, the high rate of staff turnover and the difficulties in recruiting the right people for residential work, have been repeatedly referred to in the literature for many years. Prosser (1976), in a similar review covering the period from 1966 to 1976, suggests that there seems to be some general agreement as to the reasons for this:

The reasons for the present shortage of staff are the long hours of work (often more than 60 hours per week), inadequate salary scales, the demands made by the nature of the work, poor and cramped living accommodation, lack of privacy and the loneliness and isolation that can be experienced by both houseparents and their assistants (Scottish Children's Officers Association, 1967; Dr Barnardo's, 1968; Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work, 1974). The majority of residential staff are still untrained, a factor which in itself contributes towards the unattractiveness and low status of the work (Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work, 1974). A further disadvantage is seen to be the lack of adequate involvement by the residential workers in developing and implementing a care and treatment plan of the child, and the lack of opportunities within a definite career structure. It is thought that because of this situation, some of the residential staff believe that the only way of promotion lies in their becoming field social workers (Dr Barnardo's, 1968). (p.19)

In a review of the historical development of children's homes, Bath (1979), points out how, as the needs of the children served by these homes came to be perceived differently, so too did the systems adopted in the running of them change. It is suggested that

at the turn of the century the development of the psychiatric and social sciences, as well as more humanitarian attitudes, gained great impetus. In relation to child care, the point is made:

In various parts of the world such phenomena as the juvenile court movement, progressive education and Freud's discoveries regarding infantile sexuality and psychic determinism uncovered the emotional life of the child and the child was thereafter seen as a proper subject for psychiatric inquiry and ultimately, psychiatric therapy. (p.7)

Resulting from this, there followed a strong, although gradual, reaction against the child care institutions of the time. It was, however, not until the twenties, thirties and forties that we began to see changes towards more individualised forms of care.

In Britain, the workhouses of the 19th Century and other large institutions became an embarrassment and smaller group care units began to be established. These were units in which a more home-like atmosphere could be created and in which individual needs of the children could be met. In the United States there was a similar trend; they too had a history of almshouses and poorhouses to live down. The First White House Conference on Children regarded institutions as necessary, but it recommended that they be run on the "cottage plan" so that the individuality and the initiative of the children would not be suppressed by routine and impersonal care. It further recommended that the services be directed towards establishing effective personal relationships between the children and the adults caring for them.

In addition to this, as Esman (1965) points out, Britain and the United States became the beneficiaries of the work of many European analysts who left Europe as a result of Hitler's rise to power. Group and milieu therapy gained new perspectives when the residential treatment of the traditional delinquents and the newly defined groups of "emotionally disturbed" and "childhood psychotic" children came under the aegis of these psychoanalysts and psychoanalytically trained

educators. Children's homes began to move from fulfilling a purely custodial role into serving more treatment orientated or therapeutic roles. In the fifties then, the prime focus was on the needs of the children, and on the organizational structure through which these needs could most effectively be met.

The "cottage system" or "family group" home models developed at this time required a new category of worker, namely the Houseparent. Although a system of rotating shifts has been tried, for reasons of continuity and of economic necessity the twenty-four hour live-in structure has become more characteristic of this role. In this, houseparents are required to live as well as work in the children's residence, and they are responsible for the children on a continuous basis, this responsibility being 'handed over' to a relief houseparent for one or two days "off duty" time per week.

Reed (1977), reporting on a study designed to examine the influence of the live-in environment on the child care worker, suggests that the environment in which houseparents have to operate is perhaps the most stressful of any in the field of child care. He highlights the fact that:

The live-in worker's "amorphous omnipresence", as Grossbard (1960) has put it, provides limited opportunities for his withdrawal and psychological repair. There is a tremendous expenditure of both physiological and psychological energy in dealing with the frustration, anger, and anxiety generated by the children, staff, and institutional policies and procedures, with almost no provision for personal recuperation. (p.117)

In the organizational and management literature, it is found that role generated stresses are linked not only to high staff turnover but also that they are indirectly linked to many of the other staffing related problems that have historically hindered the development of a more therapeutically orientated residential child care. Argyris (1957), suggests that if the demands made on an individual

by the organization through his role structure are antagonistic to his needs, then the individual will attempt to resolve this conflict through exercising one of the following choices:

- 1) He may choose to leave the organization.
- 2) Transfer or promotion to a role where the conflict is perceived as being much less may become important to him, and he may choose to direct himself and his energies towards this.
- 3) He may choose to remain within the organization and attempt to resolve the conflict through the use of various mechanisms of defense or through psychological withdrawal from the situation.

High staff turnover would be linked to the first of these options. In relation to the second, the reason listed by Prosser (1976), ie. "the lack of opportunities within a definite career structure" (p.19), and the only way of promotion being seen to lie in houseparents becoming field social workers, begins to make more sense. A consideration of the third introduces us to a phenomenon, called burnout, which is described in the literature by Freudenberger (1975, 1977a, 1977b), Maslach (1978), Maslach & Jackson (1979), Maslach & Pines (1977), Mattingly (1977a, 1977b) and Pines & Maslach (1980) among others.

Burnout is not easy to define, nor has it a precise symptomatology but the above authors on burnout would agree that the effectiveness of a worker experiencing burnout is considerably lowered, and this is particularly the case in relation to the helping professions. In the context of houseparents in children's homes, burnout could be seen as a painful and debilitating response to the pressure, exposure and severe stress inherent in the work and the role structure.

While none of these authors report empirical studies, the consensus of opinion, based on field studies and clinical experience, would be that there is much that can be done to lower the probable risk of burnout occurring and to slow down its process. The measures suggested all focus on more careful screening of people entering the

role, reducing the actual amounts of potential stress by manipulating the organizational structure and management procedures, and through training aimed at developing stress coping skills as well as reducing the stress caused by intra-psychic variables.

The overall staffing problems of children's homes tend to cluster into three areas. These could be given as:

- 1) Availability - the selection process and the finding of suitable staff.
- 2) Suitability - the training of staff and the further development of basic suitability and potential.
- 3) Turnover - the 'maintenance' of suitable staff, keeping those that have been 'found' and 'developed' working in the field and preventing their effectiveness from being diminished.

Mattingly (1977a), in the introduction to a symposium on stress and burnout in child care, suggests the following:

Child care has made enormous strides towards professionalization in the last several years, but if it is to survive, the child care worker can no longer be considered expendable. A substantial cadre of mature workers must develop: persons who combine knowledge-based practice with the refined clinical skills that come only from experience. (p.88)

This not only further emphasises the importance of the overall staffing related problems faced by children's homes, but it also highlights the specific importance of the third area.

The literature on burnout addresses itself, either directly or indirectly, to each of these areas and to the third area in particular. It could be the case that in order to understand the staffing related problems of children's homes in such a way as to be able to develop effective measures to overcome them, the factors in the role structure which are linked to this process of burnout would need to be discovered. Burnout and these factors thus become the subject of this inquiry.

What is presented in the following pages is the report on an investigation into the phenomenon of burnout within the context of South African children's home houseparents.

In a study entitled - "Burnout" in Group Home Houseparents - Thompson (1980), reports on research, conducted in the United States, which had the three-fold aims of: firstly, describing more closely the burnout syndrome, secondly, developing a simple and informative instrument to measure burnout, and thirdly, studying some of the possible etiological factors in burnout. The present research is based on a replication of this study and it has the additional aim of attempting to establish whether this line of research can, at present, offer any guidelines in the resolution of the current staffing crisis faced by many South African residential child care institutions.

In Part One of this report, some of the characteristics of the houseparent role most pertinent to the problems of stress and the staffing of children's homes are reviewed. This is done in an attempt to give a context to the inquiry.

In Part Two, literature on the various aspects of the phenomenon of burnout, and on some aspects of stress research, is reviewed and through this the research problem is developed. In the first section, the problems related to defining burnout emerge and following this the question of whether burnout can in fact be measured is looked at. Next, the concept of stress is considered in an attempt to explore its relationship to burnout and to arrive at a definitional paradigm for the present study. Literature relating to the dynamics involved in burnout and its process is then reviewed in order to further develop the concept. Following this, situational and personal variables which are linked to burnout in the literature and which could be considered important in the context of houseparents working in children's homes are selected for discussion. In the final section, the Thompson (ibid.) study is reviewed.

In Part Three, the aims of and the rationale for the research are presented, the reasons for the replication outlined and the research hypotheses formulated. Part Four contains descriptions of the research method and the instruments used and in Part Five the results are given. In Part Six, these results are interpreted and discussed in terms of the research hypotheses and the aims of the research while in Part Seven, various conclusions are drawn and recommendations made.

PART ONE.

SALIENT CHARACTERISTICS OF
THE HOUSEPARENT ROLE.

The most striking characteristic of the houseparent role structure is its live-in nature. With the development of the concept of milieu therapy and the corresponding shift of children's homes towards more therapeutically orientated systems of care, the many very valid therapeutic reasons for having houseparents live-in gained prominence. This was, however, not the only consideration that played a part in the development of this aspect of the role. Another important consideration is the fact that board and living came to be regarded as a part of the houseparent's remuneration. This factor served to relieve the financial burden of the child care agency and it is an important aspect even today.

Another characteristic is the low salary scales that generally apply to this category of worker. In an attempt to understand the reasons for this, it is important to remember that this complex role evolved out of that of the institution matron whose main duties were those of basic housekeeping and physical mothering. In most instances it was the case of the matron coming to be called a 'housemother' after she was required to live-in. Traditionally, the role of 'mother' has also not been regarded as a highly skilled one, and as the feminist movement reminds us, it is one in which the worker is characteristically taken for granted. This too has happened to a large extent in residential child care. In some ways, more is expected of the houseparent than is expected of the average parent, but in other ways there is less expected of them. This discrepancy will be expanded on; firstly, to highlight other important role characteristics and secondly, because it is probably the latter consideration that managements, working with limited financial resources, have chosen to focus on in determining wage structures. This same consideration is involved in factors such as the high child to houseparent ratios, the low minimum qualification and experience requirements for the role, the low status that the role has, and the fact that houseparenting has never come to be seen as a career in itself with opportunities for training and advancement. Houseparenting is more often seen as an opportunity for temporary employment or service, or as a second career suitable in pre-retirement years.

More is expected of houseparents than is normally expected of natural parents in that, on average, they have more children placed in their care than a natural parent would have to care for at any one time. Together with this is the fact that a far higher proportion of these children are disturbed emotionally and therefore more difficult to care for as well as their being more demanding. The natural family is also a functional unit which designs itself to cater for the needs of the parents in addition to the children's needs. In residential child care the needs of the 'parents' are easily overlooked as the institution's existence is justified only through direct focus on the needs of the children it serves. It is often difficult for houseparents to maintain their own emotional health in this environment in which they have to both live and work.

Reed (1977), refers to Maslow's three essential levels of need fulfilment which are considered necessary to satisfactory human existence. At the first level there would be those of the physical order, at the second, those of the social order (ie. the need for positive interpersonal interaction with other people), and at the third level, those of the egoistic order (ie. the need for experiences that enhance one's positive feelings about oneself). He goes on to make the statement that:

It becomes painfully obvious that not even the most basic of needs, those of the physical order, are appropriately satisfied in the case of the live-in child care worker. While there is sufficient provision of food and shelter, the additional requirements for privacy, rest, and recreation are far from met. When one adds to this the astronomical amount of time exacted of staff in "on-duty" functioning, as well as the amount of unofficial time required, conditions are hardly positive. ... The child care worker is expected to be empathic and aware of other people's needs, but few agencies and supervisors participate with the worker in meeting his sociological and egoistic needs. (p.115)

Once the word 'parent' was introduced into the role title, the implied expectation was added that houseparents model the relationships that they develop with the children on those that exist between a natural

parent and his or her child. With no clear boundary between their own home and their place of work, it is very difficult for these workers to maintain routinized or structured relationships with their clients. It is also difficult for houseparents to protect themselves through limiting their amount of exposure or keeping a 'professional distance'. They are in a position where it is almost impossible to exercise control over the limits of their professional availability or to regulate this in accordance with their own personal needs of the time and, as mentioned above, the opportunity for even a temporary withdrawal into their own home is limited. In addition, it must be remembered that houseparents work and live in an environment in which many feelings related to their own developmental histories are constantly being restimulated. All this can be the source of a tremendous amount of stress with which houseparents are expected to cope.

Houseparents work on the interface between those who plan the overall caring and those who are cared for; the interface between the 'Home' and the children. Due to the frequency and intensity of their contact with the children and the implied structural involvement, houseparents are most likely to become acutely sensitive to the immediate needs of the individual children with whom they develop close relationships. On the other hand, the management's view of what constitutes a child's individual best interests is developed in a broader but less immediate context. Their policies and procedures, as well as the organizational structure, are also aimed at serving the best interests of a larger group. This group includes not only the other children and staff but also the children's natural families, their society and the benefactors of the Home. The needs and demands of this larger group are felt with immediacy as the management is the houseparent's supporter, supervisor and employer. The children's needs and demands too, are immediate. To ignore either set would be experienced as a threat to their role which is not merely a job to which they go. In the frequent situations where these two sets of demands are not easily reconcilable, the houseparent, as the bridge, very often has

to resolve this clash within his or her own feeling world. They are in the position of having to continually make decisions and to accept the full impact of the consequences of these decisions.

Less is expected of houseparents than is normally expected of natural parents in that the responsibility for a child becomes shared and split. Parenthood in our society demands personal, comprehensive and continuing commitments and these in turn are reinforced by mutual emotional attachments between children and parents. When a child is committed to a children's home by the court, it is as though his actual care is split from the responsibility for him and this formal responsibility, too, is split. Certain parental rights and duties become vested in the organization. However, many of the essential parental responsibilities which the organization assumes can only be exercised in practice by individual people working with individual children. In children's homes the day to day caring function is transferred to the houseparent, but the overall responsibility for this caring is not transferred, it remains with the management. Therefore, while a houseparent may have many children in his or her unit, he or she would be seen to carry only a minimal responsibility. Seen in this context, both the partial cause of and the counter strategy to the high turnover of houseparents begins to emerge. Caring, without the responsibility for this, is perhaps not likely to generate a sense of long term commitment.

With the development of the "cottage system" or "family group" home models, there was also a corresponding shift in the children's home's understanding of its own role. They began to see their role more as a treatment or therapeutic one and less as a purely custodial role. This shift required that treatment professionals be introduced into the field and as a result the caring function was further split. The houseparent's role became even more strictly limited to the 'daily life' of the child, while the therapeutic, supportive, reconstructive and consultative services became more removed and isolated from it. These services were carried out in offices geographically removed from the daily living situations.

Due to the differential in the respective levels of training of these two groups, the professionals entered the field at a level above that of the houseparent. Not only did this have the effect of further lowering the relative status of the houseparent role, but it also formed the basis of the perhaps traditional 'clash' between these two groups of workers. Something of the characteristic relationship that has come to exist between these two groups is well described in the following quotation, which is taken from a report on a residential child care program carried out in the United States.

A sort of magic was attributed to the houseparent role. Houseparents were viewed by the agency and themselves as unique individuals with an inexplicable "way with children": kind but firm, able to identify with the children and yet maintain control. Although their methods were not understood, they were viewed as indispensable to the program, and professionals would say, "I certainly couldn't do it." At the Center, staff training of houseparents meant "throwing the book" (a library) at them and expecting them to read and incorporate the material. Attendance at rather traditional conferences was expected.

The same factors for which houseparents were stroked, and stroked themselves, also separated them from the "professionals," who saw houseparents as somehow inferior and incapable of fully understanding the psychodynamics of children and their relationships with children. In some cases, the houseparents saw professionals as in "ivory towers," not on the line, and as unable to do the houseparenting job. Often there was a polite interaction between the roles with a corresponding informal, hostile communication. The mutual perceptions between professionals and houseparents separated both the roles and the people. The perceptions became increasingly strong and neither learned from the other. ...

Staff conferences were characterized by full attendance - social workers, maintenance people, kitchen staff, houseparents, psychiatrists. In case conferences, the psychiatrist and the social worker tended to trade diagnoses and treatment plans while the houseparents sat silently by; the treatment plan was "laid on" the houseparents with the expectation that they would follow that plan. (France, 1977 p.8-9)

Working on the interface between the management of the home and the children, and with the characteristic relationship with the former as described above, it is difficult for houseparents to share meaningfully and to receive necessary support and nurturance from the treatment professionals, who in most instances are also their supervisors. On the other hand, they are not part of the latter group so loneliness and isolation can easily become an experiential feature of the role. This risk becomes magnified if the houseparent does not have sufficient time off or opportunity to socialise outside of this twenty-four hour per day role.

PART TWO.

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM
(A LITERATURE REVIEW) .

2.1 TOWARDS A DEFINITION OF BURNOUT.

Argyris (1957), in looking at worker roles as opposed to managerial roles in organizations, suggests that the former are characterised by greater passivity, dependance and submissiveness and that workers tend to be expected to use fewer of their range of abilities. As a result, he hypothesizes that the formal organization creates in a healthy individual feelings of failure and frustration, short time perspective and conflict.

The conflict generated when the demands made on a worker through his role structure are antagonistic to his personal needs results in three choice options opening up to him as outlined above. If the third is looked at, ie. attempting to resolve the conflict while remaining in the situation, it is suggested that the individual would achieve this by decreasing the psychological importance of either the organization or himself. Argyris (ibid.), cites research which suggests that if the worker adopts the attitude, "to hell with the organization", in order to clear the way for his own need fulfilment, then this results in apathy, lack of interest, decreased involvement and lessened loyalty. Decreasing his own self importance would lead to feelings of inferiority, failure and often depression.

In relation to short time perspective, the findings are that this leads the employee to feel uncertain and insecure. The feelings of failure, it is suggested, may cause the employee to lose interest in his work, lose self confidence, give up more quickly, lower his work standards, fear new tasks, expect repeated failures and to develop the tendency to blame others. The methods of coping with the frustration are given as regression (becoming less mature and less efficient), becoming aggressive, hostile, and attacking that which is seen as causing the frustration; together with feelings of wanting to give up and leave, blame others, or of just doing nothing and allowing the tensions to build up further.

The feelings and behaviours put forward above are a large part of what is referred to by the concept of burnout. Freudenberger (1977a) bases his definition of burnout on the dictionary definition of the verb 'to burn out', which means "to fail, wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources" (p.90). Dixon (1980) uses the term to refer to both reasons for high staff turnover as well as to refer to persons who remain in their positions but who have literally "given up the struggle" out of sheer frustration and fatigue. Armstrong (1977) uses the term to describe workers who have become estranged from their clients, their jobs and their agencies. Mattingly (1977a) suggests that burnout "... is a term that is intuitively grasped and accepted and at the same time a phenomenon about which there is little precise understanding" (p.88) and states that it has been "used as a catchy phrase explaining diverse sorts of frustration and fatigue" (p.89).

In the literature the term tends to be used loosely, although the differences are ones in emphasis rather than reflecting a basic disagreement about the phenomenon to which the term refers. Different writers have developed different aspects of the observed phenomenon and have emphasised different 'symptoms'. Freudenberger (1975, 1977a, 1977b), for instance, emphasises the aspects of emotional and physical exhaustion and has attempted to identify a process with sources and symptoms. Maslach (1978), Maslach & Pines (1977, 1977), and Pines & Maslach (1980), on the other hand have developed the concept in relation to the dehumanization process and the development of a "detached concern" when applied in the helping professions. A good composite definition is that given by Pines & Maslach (ibid.). Through this definition, the fact that the different writers are referring to a unitary phenomenon, although one with alternative manifestations, is illustrated. Their definition is as follows:

Burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that can occur among individuals who spend much of their time working closely with other people.

It involves a gradual loss of concern for these other people and the development of callous and even dehumanised attitudes towards them, and it can sometimes result in negative feelings about oneself as a professional care giver. The emotional fatigue of burnout can have detrimental effects on the individual's job performance (as reflected in lower morale and greater absenteeism and turnover), as well as on his or her physical health (increased physical exhaustion, psychosomatic symptoms, accident proneness, and vulnerability to disease). Furthermore, it can seriously affect the individual's psychological well-being and impair his or her ability to relate to people in general (and not just to the recipients of his or her professional services). Burnout is not unique to a particular group of individuals but is found among most health and service professions where staff members are required to work intensively with people on a large-scale, continuous basis in situations that can be emotionally demanding (Freudenberger, 1977; Kalfry and Pines, 1979; Maslach, 1976, 1978a, 1978b, 1979; Maslach and Jackson, 1978, 1979; Maslach and Pines, 1977, 1979; Mattingly, 1977; Pines and Kalfry, 1978, 1979; Pines and Maslach, 1978; Reed, 1977). (p.6)

The change of emphasis here, to the way Freudenberger (op. cit.), would define the concept, comes about due to the field of application. He would not see it as a phenomenon exclusive to the helping professions, and the literature, too, contains studies reporting burnout in relation to lawyers (Maslach & Jackson, 1978), to policemen (Maslach & Jackson, 1979), to air traffic controllers (Rose, 1978 in Thompson, 1980), to teachers (Landsman, 1978; Weiskopf, 1980), to industrial workers (Litwin & Stringer, 1968), as well as numerous studies relating stress to physical and emotional illnesses. Freudenberger (1975), insists on the term having a more general usage:

(Burnout) ... is present also in the addict who shoots up until he burns out and possibly dies; it is present in the speed freak when he reaches his maniacal speed runs and lives merely for the shooting up; it is present in the compulsive gambler, the golf freak, the overweight person, to name just a few. It certainly is present in industry and business. (bracket insertion mine) (p.73)

He asserts that what is different in the helping professions is that "... we are usually fighting a battle on at least three fronts - we are contending with the ills of society, with the needs of the individuals who come to us for assistance, and with our own personality needs" (ibid.).

This narrowing of the range of application due to the increased complexity of the 'helping professions' field, and perhaps the greater likelihood of burnout, is reflected in the following definitions: "Becoming emotionally and physically exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength and resources" (Freudenberger, 1977a p.90), and "emotional exhaustion resulting from the stress of interpersonal contact" (Maslach, 1978 p.56). In relation to this field, aspects of burnout viz. the dehumanization process and the development of "detached concern" are necessarily emphasised as they have a direct bearing on the quality of the service offered by these professions. These aspects in turn make the dynamics and process involved in burnout very relevant. However, while there is value in differentiating between the levels of complexity of the respective fields, it makes the task of arriving at a generalizable, operational definition of burnout almost impossible as there appear also to be different manifestations of the phenomenon in these fields.

2.2 THE MEASUREMENT OF BURNOUT.

Being unable to list the precise symptomatology or manifestations in the definition of burnout raises the questions of how it can be measured and of whether or not it can be measured. In the burnout literature, two different orientations to these questions are found.

On the one hand, Mattingly (1977b), would argue against the possibility of burnout being measured or identified by checking off a list of symptoms or behaviours and tabulating a burnout score. She suggests that:

Burn out, as it is currently understood, is a subtle pattern of symptoms, behaviours, and attitudes that are unique for each person. Our explorations have revealed some components of the experience that occur with regularity. ... (However) any particular worker may experience only some of what is described. (bracket insertion mine) (p.131)

Freudenberger (1975) would agree with this when he states that burnout "... manifests itself in many different symptomatic ways which vary in symptom and degree from person to person" (p.73). Mattingly (1977a) does however state that burnout is "... a painful and debilitating response to work pressures, which child care workers immediately find familiar" (p.68 - underlining mine).

On the other hand, Maslach and Thompson both present instruments claimed to be able to measure burnout. The Maslach Burnout Inventory* - "A scale measure to assess experienced burn-out", consists of:

25 statements about personal feelings, attitudes, and perceptions of both self and "recipients" (a general term referring to the particular clients or person one deals with). Each statement is rated twice, once for frequency of occurrence ("never" to "daily") and again for the intensity of the experience ("very mild" to "very strong").

The MBI measures four dimensions that are independent of one another: emotional exhaustion (for instance, "I feel emotionally drained by my work"); negative, cynical attitudes toward recipients ("I've become callous toward people since I took this job"); negative evaluation of the subject's own strengths and accomplishments in working with others (reflected in a low score on items such as "I feel that I am positively influencing other people's lives through my work"); and the subject's sense of closeness to clients ("I feel personally involved with my recipient's problems"). (Maslach & Jackson, 1979 p.59)

* Although the 'Maslach Burnout Inventory' is referred to in the literature, the only reference source given is that it was presented as a paper at a meeting of the Western Psychological Association in San Francisco, April 1978. Details as to whether or not it has been published or is available as a test could not be established.

Thompson's instrument is an adjective-check-list, and he relies on the subject's subjective recall of how they felt on each of the 16 dimensions when they began in the position being researched as opposed to their present feelings on each, or the feelings when they left, in order to yield a burnout score. This scale will be discussed more fully in Section 2.8 as it is one of the instruments used in the present study.

Two other research reports, (Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines & Maslach, 1978), in which a measure of burnout is obtained, describe the questionnaire used but do not make it clear exactly what scores were used in the statistical analysis of the data. The questionnaire format in both of these studies contained questions relating to: 1) background information, 2) job characteristics, 3) the subject's attitudes and feelings about their work both in relation to the present (the best and the worst things about it, how separate it was from their private lives etc.) and in relation to new job-related ideals or attitude changes since taking on the job, 4) the subject's perception of himself or his mood. Here each person completed a semantic differential check list at two different times (ie. coming on duty and going off duty) or for themselves and another (ie. the average schizophrenic patient). Each of the items consisted of a five point bipolar scale; such as "calm-tense", "irritable-relaxed", "intimate-distant", "valuable-worthless" etc. The questionnaires included both open-ended and scale items. The findings of these studies relate levels of burnout to institutional or job-related variables but it would appear that the actual measures of burnout were in fact inferred.

The measurement of burnout is a problematic issue as a result of the fact that an operational definition has not been arrived at. There are, however, many articles suggesting that the rate and risk of burnout is related to both organizational structure and management procedures. Because of this, and because of the suggestions that both its rate and risk can be lowered through the manipulation of these variables, there is a sense of urgency reflected in the

literature to discover more about the phenomenon and its relationship to these variables. It must be remembered, as mentioned previously, that the effects of burnout are seen to have a direct bearing on the quality of the service offered by the helping professions. It would seem that because of this urgency, burnout research has proceeded using instruments with relatively low levels of validity and reliability, although the goal of developing a valid and reliable instrument remains.

Thompson (1980) suggests that additional reasons for developing a valid and reliable instrument to measure burnout would be to enable the early detection of burnout and for purposes of differential diagnosis. He points out that burnout symptoms can mimic depression, paranoia and minor physical illnesses, and he believes it important to separate out conditions which may be purely related to job stress from other more general pathological states.

While it is suggested that different people manifest burnout in different ways, no studies looking at burnout in relation to personality variables could be found in the literature. This could be due to the present lack of measuring instruments. However, Maslach (1978) suggests the following:

From my own research vantage point, I have concluded that burnout is best understood (and modified) in terms of the social and situational sources of job-related stresses. Although personality variables are certainly relevant in the overall analysis, the prevalence of the phenomenon and the range of seemingly disparate staff people who are affected by it suggest that the search for causes is better directed away from identifying the bad people and toward uncovering the characteristics of the bad situations where many good people function. (p.114)

This same viewpoint is again put forward by Pines & Maslach (1980).

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF STRESS AND STRESS RESEARCH.

As in the case of burnout, Cohen (1967) makes the comment that:

Stress is one of those peculiar terms which is understood by everyone when used in a very general context but understood by a very few when an operational definition is desired which is sufficiently specific to enable the precise testing of certain relationships thought to exist.
(p.78)

Weitz (1970), in a review of the literature on stress, noted the wide variety of definitions used. He points out that stress is defined in response terms by some (ie. "a discomforting response of persons in particular situations" (p.124)), in stimulus terms by others (ie. that which leads to degradation or enhancement of performance), some researchers define it as both a stimulus and a response, and in a few cases it is seen in terms of an organismic state or an intervening variable.

Mc Grath (1970) points out that the state of affairs in stress research, where we have many definitions which sometimes overlap but do not necessarily converge on a common definition, has come about due to the wide range of behavioural phenomena to which stress refers. The range of phenomena differ in both the situational conditions that give rise to them and in the overt and covert response patterns of the organisms that experience stress. Differences in research aims, needs for operational definitions, judgements about the current status of theory and evidence, and in conceptualization of stress, have resulted in different definitional strategies being employed in stress research. In some the term 'stress' has been dropped altogether. In others the concept has been rigidly defined, in order to exclude by definition much of what has been called stress previously. Mc Grath, however, would argue that unless we accept the concept of stress as a general rubric or focal concept, with heuristic value as a basis for

'connecting' seemingly diverse areas, we are faced with having to choose among mutually exclusive, alternative definitions of stress.

His definitional strategy shifts the emphasis from what stress is to a consideration of what types of phenomena have been referred to and investigated under this label, and how these phenomena are related to one another. In a sense, this way each of the classes of stress definition (eg. in response pattern terms vs. stimulus condition terms) become "... one strand, or aspect, within the total fabric of the 'stress research problem'" (ibid. p.11). The possible disadvantage of adopting this strategy is that stress ceases to be a "rigorous scientific concept" and as a result its hypothetic-deductive power becomes restricted.

Appley & Trumbull (1967) take the position that "stress is probably best conceived as a state of the total organism under extenuating circumstances rather than an event in the environment" (p.11). In defining stress, Mc Grath (1976) says:

There is a potential for stress when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person's capabilities and resources for meeting it, under conditions where he expects a substantial differential in the rewards and costs from meeting the demand versus not meeting it. (p.1352)

Another very similar definition which provides for individual differences, variability of measures, variability of situations, social context, and implicit, inner reactions is the interactional paradigm offered by Sells (1970):

A state of stress arises under the following conditions:

- 1) The individual is called upon in a situation to respond to circumstances for which he has no adequate response available. The unavailability of an adequate response maybe due to physical

inadequacy; absence of the response in the individual's response repertoire; lack of training, equipment or the opportunity to prepare.
 2) The consequences of failure to respond effectively are important to the individual. Personal involvement in situations can be defined in terms of importance of consequences to the individual.

Stress intensity depends on the importance of the individual involvement and the individual's assessment of the consequences of his inability to respond effectively to the situation. (p.138)

Both of these definitions aim to extend the concept of stress, or the range of stress research, to cover the full process involved in the interaction between the organism and the environment. The process could be seen as the situational variables presenting demands and, if these are perceived as demands and the demands exceed the perceived response capabilities, then they lead to the experience of stress which in turn leads to the effects of stress and the behaviours and responses by which stress is measured. They allow for the mediational effect of cognitive control by emphasising "the situation as perceived" or "important to the individual". This also opens the paradigms to include 'coping processes' which are overt or covert behaviour patterns which the organism uses to actively prevent, alleviate or respond to stress inducing circumstances.

Appley & Trumbull (1967), in summarising a symposium on stress, drew the following conclusions: a) that there are marked individual differences in reactions to situations, b) that the stress measures tapping the different organismic subsystems and reflecting different criteria are largely unrelated, c) that observed responses vary from situation to situation and that the variation is greatest between the laboratory and life situations, d) that the social context is of major importance in the understanding of stress reactions and that social and other environmental supports have often been overlooked in evaluating particular behaviours, e) that stress, and other behaviour, is best understood as an interaction between the individual

and the situation, and f) that in evaluating such interactions, "private" or inner events should be taken into consideration.

The above definitional paradigms of stress would serve to integrate the findings of stress research as well as extend its range along the lines called for by Appley & Trumbull.

Selye (1956) recognised the distinction between the specific aspects of reaction to disease, and non-specific aspects which he defined as stress. The General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS), he proposed, is concerned with systemic stress and it generalizes the sequence of events found, ie. noxious stimulus events producing some form of insult to the organism and degradation of function, and the activation of coping mechanisms to counter these effects. The GAS outlines the stages of alarm, resistance and exhaustion. The last two stages of this could be that which is emphasised in the concept of burnout. It is perhaps useful to see burnout as a specific stress reaction and to adopt these same definitional paradigms for research into the phenomenon.

If these paradigms are adopted, then the non-empirical formulations as to the dynamics and process involved in burnout become important as do the situational variables which give the process its context. The caution would have to be heeded, however, that the hypothetico-deductive power of such investigations would necessarily be restricted as 'burnout' would not be in use as a "rigorous scientific" or operationally defined concept.

Before considering the literature pertaining to different aspects of the burnout phenomenon, some of the findings from research into stress, which could aid interpretation of the results of burnout research, will be briefly reviewed.

Mc Grath (1976), from the research literature, develops six propositions or themes which he believes can serve as useful working hypotheses in stress research. He cautions, however, that they

are not as empirically solid as might be wished. The research on which they are based, too, has suffered some of the methodological weaknesses that have pervaded much of the research into stress and they therefore are not regarded as strictly empirical findings.

Each of these themes could be briefly described as follows: 1) Subjectively experienced stress is contingent upon the person's perception or cognitive appraisal of the situation. 2) Past experiences can operate to effect the level of subjectively experienced stress, or to modify reactions to that stress. 3) Positive and negative reinforcements can operate to reduce or enhance, respectively, the level of subjectively experienced stress from a given situation. 4) There is a non-linear, or perhaps inverted U-shaped, relationship between the degree of subjectively experienced stress and the level or quality of the performance or response. At low levels of arousal, performance is usually 'poor'. There is then an enhancement in the performance up to some 'optimal' level of stress, after which, as the stress increases beyond that 'optimal' level, the performance will show a decline. (Optimal here would refer to the optimal level for a particular individual and for a particular task performance.) 5) The nature of the tasks or activities in which the person is involved would influence the direction and shape of the relationships between the subjectively experienced stress, the task performances and the ensuing consequences. 6) The presence or absence of, and the activities of, other persons in the situation influence both the subjective experience of stress, and behaviour in response to stress, in several partially conflicting ways. The presence or activity of the other people can increase the level of arousal, it can act as a source of potential irritation and antagonism if there is exposure for long periods of time, it can act as the source of potential affiliative, self-esteem or other interpersonal rewards, or it may be the source of potential facilitative or contrient interdependence with respect to the performance task. Some of these functions may operate to increase arousal, some to reduce it, some

to modify task performance independent of arousal levels. Which of these functions operate and how strongly, depends on the who, what, where and when of the particular situation.

Weitz (1970), lists eight common types of stress situations which have been investigated and which can be regarded as situational variables having a direct bearing on stress or stress response. One of these, ie. "Speeded information processing" (p.125), is a potential source of stress which could be easily overlooked and it is therefore described here.

In this, it is suggested that if inputs from a situation are that numerous that they prohibit adequate information processing, then the organism would become overloaded and this could retard performance to the point of immobilisation. It is further suggested that temporal uncertainty of stimulus occurrence may result in the individual "overloading" himself by introducing (internally) additional inputs which are inappropriate but which lead to something like the overload situation.

2.4 THE DYNAMICS IN BURNOUT.*

Freudenberger (1975; 1977a) would consider the place to start, in an exploration into the dynamics involved in burnout, to be a look at the different types of persons who become child care workers. While he refers to them as having different types of personality, what he is in fact concerned with are their different motivations for entering the field of child care.

* Within the paradigm adopted, the situational variables, the demands made by them, the perceived demands, the experience, the perceived response capability, the responses, manifestations and coping mechanisms used, are all part of the whole referred to by the concept of burnout. The following material is presented under different sectional titles, these distinctions, however, are made solely for the purpose of convenience in presenting the material. Any aspect presented could, in fact, be considered to have a rightful place in any of the sections which refer to different emphases being placed on parts of the whole rather than to independent entities.

The literature reports very few studies pertaining to personality variables of persons entering the field of residential child care. More (1973), in a survey of students on a field social work course and students on a residential child care course, found that while both groups were no more introvert or extrovert than the normal population, the field social work students were found to be a fairly normally stable group emotionally but the residential work students revealed a very strong and consistent shift from the normal in an unstable direction. They also showed evidence of great feelings of anxiety, inferiority and guilt, coupled with a strong need for support, approval and acceptance. Tutt (1972), looking at the 'traditional clash' between residential staff and field staff, found the former group to be significantly more conservative than the latter.

Freudenberger (1975) first considers the committed or dedicated worker and here he cautions against what might in fact be "over-commitment" or "over-dedication". He suggests that:

Not only the leader but every member of the staff must take a good look at why he or she started working in the institution in the first place, what were the motivations, and what kind of trip one may be on - a self-fulfilling ego trip, a self-aggrandizement ego trip, a self-sacrificing, dedication-to-others ego trip, or a trip to help to deny one's own serious personal problems. (p.73)

He would further suggest that a failure to examine one's motives would greatly increase the chances of early burnout. In another article, Freudenberger (1977b), points out that people who are fraught with insecurities and whose personal lives are unfulfilling, often take a position in order to find the aggrandizement and recognition that they have not received elsewhere. The houseparent role is perhaps an attractive one in this regard. It is a position of both tremendous responsibility and of minimal responsibility. The entry requirements are low. It could also be seen as a position of power. Tutt (1974), in a study of the nature of authority in a

residential setting, points out that while residential establishments have traditionally been regarded as autocratic institutions with a clearly defined hierarchy of power, he was able to differentiate five different types of power, viz. reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power, expert power, and he points out that houseparents are, in fact, in positions of considerable power. The 'live-in' or communal living aspect of work may also be attractive. Children are also, by and large, very accepting and open with feelings. Placing others and their problems before oneself and one's own problems is often a convenient way of not having to face oneself and one's problems, and of having one's own problems seemingly overshadowed in importance.

When the underlying motive is to substitute for things lacking outside, the worker places himself in a position in which he has to be of service to the institution and to have the institution serve his needs. His commitment may become one of over-commitment as this is then far more than a job of work; it becomes all important and the involvement is total. The demands made by the work are perceived as very real, and instead of looking for personal gratification in more natural relationships, hobbies, social pursuits etc., which would normally take place outside of work hours, this worker is likely to get into a cycle of accelerating work effort and decelerating rewards.

Freudenberger differentiates between commitment and over-commitment on the grounds of whether or not a worker has a life of his own outside of his role and if he is free or not from an emotional bondage to the role.

Both Freudenberger (1977a) and Mattingly (1977b), emphasise that the children served by the residential worker have needs much greater than the worker's personal resources could satisfy and to this Mattingly (*ibid.*) adds:

The worker's giving capacities are not inexhaustible, and even the personal refreshment provided the worker by the usual sources such as family, friends, and colleagues will not be consistently sufficient. The awareness of this conflict comes early in the worker's career but it is also a conflict that the worker reengages throughout his professional life. (p.128)

While all residential workers would experience this draining, the over-committed worker is at greater risk because he does not have the same sources of replenishment outside of the role. The role structure itself is one which limits opportunities for such replenishment.

Somehow, for the worker, realising the extent to which he in fact needs the institution may cause feelings of guilt and this in turn may cause him to respond to the demands by attempting to be a super-being helper. Even if it is out of a genuine desire to be of help, the worker often comes to believe that the only way to stem the flood of demands is to put in more hours and more effort. What in fact happens is that the harder he works, the more frustrated he becomes; the more frustrated he is the more exhausted, cynical and perhaps even 'bitchy' he then is in both outlook and behaviour. He can in fact become less effective in the very things that he is trying so hard to achieve and the stress cycle strengthens.

The houseparent role is to form relationships and to give, while the "underprivileged" child's role is to receive or take. As Freudenberger (1977a) points out, often the child seeks to grab anything that is available, or to throw a smokescreen over his or her own confusion, resentment or hurt. In this way the child often thwarts the houseparent's sense of achievement and willingness to give. Ryan (1971) suggests that through a subtle process such as this, clients may somehow come to be seen as deserving of their own problems. Mattingly (1977b) says that the residential worker is often frightened by negative emotions such as anger, guilt and the sense of potential loss of control as they do not fit his image of 'a helper of children'.

If the already drained houseparent is not able to face angry feelings in him or her self and also has strong needs to be liked and accepted, then he may fall victim of needing to please excessively and faces the risk of losing his sense of self. This would be an extreme case of the demands being made on a worker through his role structure being antagonistic to his personal needs and as Argyris (op.cit.) suggested, this conflict will be resolved in one way or another. In any event, the situation is ripe for any of the mechanisms, identified as burnout, to be employed. While Freudenberger emphasises the risk of over-commitment, Mattingly would hold the view that all committed workers are at risk.

Something which could possibly ease this situation would be for houseparents to be able to see some positive results of their work. However, due to the nature of the work, results are seldom seen so instead the situation is further aggravated. Mattingly (1977b) states:

The child care worker also needs to view himself as a successful worker. The experiences of success in child care work are somewhat random and inconsistent. ... One's very best work will frequently nurture a seed that grows and bears fruit in the future and beyond one's personal awareness. The worker often has the experience of having stopped in the middle of something. He is left with his concerns, fears, and expectations hanging in midair and is frequently denied the rewards of a job well done. (p.128)

To this, Freudenberger (1975), would add:

Too often, because of the nature of our work, ... we receive very little or no feedback. On top of this, if the rest of the staff is as busy as we are in running around, and slowly burning out themselves, we are certainly not going to receive good feelings or feedings from them. And so, another poor cycle is in the making. (p.75)

He regards the toll that the disturbing feeling of "unfinished business" takes to be one of the most important contributors to the burn-out suffered by residential child care workers. This unfinished business is brought about when the relationship between the child, who may be in the process of working through negative, angry, rebellious or depressed feelings, and the houseparent, is abruptly terminated by welfare agencies, courts or changes in the natural family circumstances or attitudes.

Maslach (1978), reports the finding that some clients may have problems that are far more emotionally stressful for some staff than others, and that if the contact with clients is particularly upsetting, depressing or difficult in some way, then staff burnout may be more severe and/or occur more quickly.

Freudenberger (1977a) stresses that childhood experiences, and particularly parent-child experiences, are likely to be restimulated in this work. He believes that those experiences which have not been resolved will come to be relived in a counter-transferential way and that it is a basic essential for close attention to be paid to these unconscious emotions which are based on the houseparent's own personal life experiences. If not, he cautions:

In time, the worker tends to leave the working environment of the child care institution a cynical, angry, fatigued, disenchanted and burned out individual. How important it is, then, for child care professionals to recognise that in working in the front lines of child care, one's basic emotions, needs, and unresolved problems come into play. They are often used by the child in the child's own power needs, and they trap the worker in a web mostly of his own making because of a lack of awareness of the inherent dangers that exist in the treatment relationship.

(p.92)

In his or her role, the houseparent is often expected to serve as a model for the children in his or her care. The children are both consciously and unconsciously affected by how the houseparent

expresses anger or other feelings, how sad or happy news is received, how problems are solved, how they have fun, how food they do not like is dealt with etc. Very often the houseparent is the most adequate model that the child has known. This takes its toll when the houseparent realises how important it is for the child. He has to be genuine and yet there will be occasions when his behaviour does not maintain the standards that he sets himself. He may become acutely aware of his mistakes, which are also in full view of management, colleagues and children, and there are few places to hide them within the live-in structure. His feelings are constantly on view. He feels the exposure but cannot hide because of its importance to the children.

If the houseparent attempts to withdraw from this by internally redefining his role to a more custodial one, or one of basic house-keeping and physical mothering, he is still not free from stress. Not only is there the stress of a role conflict but there are also potential stresses in this custodially defined role. Mattingly (1977a) points out that "Even in agencies that maintain moderate or better standards of care, there is an ongoing conflict between client-care and custodial management" (p.129). The management's exact role expectations are not always clear either. Potential stresses in the custodial role itself can arise if the houseparent has not had adequate training and experience in management, supervisory and decision making skills. The houseparent needs to be a good money manager, decision maker, delegator, supervisor, cook, cleaner and shopper to name but a few non-therapeutic skills.

Mattingly (ibid.) speaks of the residential worker having to process enormous amounts of information at a great speed during the many hours of direct child contact. She states:

Masses of verbal and nonverbal behaviour, the sounds and conditions of the environment, the program of the day, and the history and treatment plan for each child are registered in the workers's awareness. Situations must also be

dealt with on many levels at the same time. In fact the very fundament of child care practice is the use of the everyday environment - the living space is used to support the psychodynamic conditions necessary for a child's growth as well as to complete the tasks essential for organised living. ... The child care worker practices in the proverbial "pressure cooker", with an extreme intensity of interaction being part of the structure of his daily work. (p.129)

In this section, an attempt has been made to look at some of the dynamics involved in burnout. Through looking at some of the situational and intra-psychic variables operating, potential sources of stress with which houseparents have to cope, have been outlined. In the following section, mechanisms employed in coping with this stress will be reviewed.

1.5 THE PROCESS OF BURNOUT AND ITS VARIED MANIFESTATIONS.

In order to offer some insights into the mechanisms which workers employ, in defending themselves against the strong emotions and stress generated in their work situations, Maslach & Pines (1977), refer to the literature on the process of "dehumanization" and the processes involved in the development of a "detached concern". A number of their field studies of professional groups, such as social workers, psychiatric nurses, clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, child care workers, poverty lawyers, prison personnel and physicians, have focussed on the behaviour of these professional staff in coping with job stress. They report finding that a comparable set of techniques to those of "dehumanization" are in fact used to cope with this stress. The techniques that they observed in use included the following:

- 1) "The use of certain types of language".* The terms used to describe clients, their backgrounds and the functional relationship between themselves and the client changed and

* The sub-headings used here are those given by Maslach & Pines (1977, pp.103-4).

they began to use often derogatory or flip terms. Eg. "my little savages", "my docket", "they're all just animals", "those kids", "my quota of brats" etc.

- 2) "Compartmentalization". A very sharp distinction came to be drawn between their jobs and their personal lives in an attempt to confine the emotional stress to a smaller part of their life. This contrasted sharply to the state where prior to "burnout" this boundary may have been completely obscure.
- 3) "Intellectualization". It became easier for them to stand back and to analyse than to get personally involved. Eg. "Now that I am able to work out and understand the dynamics behind a child's behaviour, I don't get personally hurt by the children anymore".
- 4) "Withdrawal". They started to spend less time with clients, and more time chatting to the other staff etc. There was also more avoidance of eye contact, and they stood further away from other people.
- 5) "Social techniques". There was more turning to others for "...advice, comfort, tension reduction, help in achieving distance from the situation or in intellectualizing it (stress), and a sense of diffusion of responsibility" (p.104).

The above authors would regard verbal and non-verbal behavioural manifestations such as these as possible "symptoms" of burnout. The strategies listed, however, represent more of the repertoire available. It is not necessary for a particular person to employ all of them to a prescribed degree in order for him to be considered burnt-out or in the process of burning out. They do state that all of the professionals who were coping with stress reported changes in their perceptions of their clients and their feelings towards them, but the common element in these changes is no more specific.

A general definition of the process of dehumanization is given as:

One that produces a decreased awareness of the human attributes of others and a loss of humanity in interpersonal relations. People stop perceiving others as having the same feelings, impulses, thoughts, and purposes in life as they have, and thus psychologically eliminate any human qualities that these others may share with them. (ibid. p.101)

The adaptive function of the dehumanization process has been pointed out by many writers. Bernard, Ottenberg & Redl (1965) see it as a psychological defense mechanism through which interpersonal stress is avoided by a change in the perception of the other to one on him as "sub human", "bad human" or "not human". Maslach & Pines (1977) suggest that its adaptive function lies in the fact that "... it protects the individual against any kind of emotion that is painful, overwhelming, debilitating, inhibiting, or that interferes with some necessary, ongoing, behavior" (p.102). However, they also point out:

Dehumanization can also have deleterious consequences. By not responding to the human qualities of other persons, people can find it possible to act in antisocial and inhumane ways toward them. Moreover, the person who dehumanizes others experiences less emotion, less empathy, and fewer personal feelings, and thus dehumanizes himself or herself as well (Buber, 1958). (p.101)

Zimbardo (1970, in Maslach & Pines, 1977) is cited as having identified four classes of situation in which dehumanization is likely to occur. The four categories are:

- a) Socially imposed dehumanization. (job situations that impose impersonal, dehumanized relationships upon workers.)
- b) Dehumanization for self-gratification. (the use of others solely for one's own gain, pleasure or entertainment.)

- c) Dehumanization as a means to an end. (the abuse or the destruction of groups of people who are seen as obstacles in the achievement of some greater cause.)
- d) Dehumanization in self-defense. (the adaptive use of techniques to control disruptive emotional responses in order to perform some necessary function.) (p.102)

Maslach & Pines (ibid.), suggest that the fourth class (d) is the equivalent of 'detached concern'. While detached concern is a concept usually used in relation to medical practitioners, they have found it operative in other helping professions including child care work. Detached concern is a position of balance between the protection against one's disruptive emotions through handling clients in a more objective way and the maintenance of a strong sense of caring and concern for them. Maslach & Pines (ibid.), suggest that it involves the almost paradoxical position of where one has to distance oneself from other people in order to help or cure them. They present detached concern as one of the few techniques available to in fact combat burnout. It is, however, a concept very close to that of dehumanization, and not always easy to differentiate from it. The slight difference here, between Maslach & Pines (ibid.) and the other authors on burnout, is noted. The latter group would be more inclined to see the use of detached concern as a part of the process of burning out.

The writers previously cited, such as Freudenberger, Mattingly, Reed, and Thompson, together with Maslach & Pines, emphasise different signs, characteristics or manifestations of the phenomenon of burnout. However, as Mattingly pointed out, (rf, p.21), any particular worker may experience only some of the signs or symptoms described. In order to portray how the process of burnout may be experienced by an individual houseparent, a hypothetical description to this is given below. This description, written in the first person, is based on the work of all the above authors and it is one with which none of them would have any major points of disagreement.

".... After a while I became aware of a vague kind of personal distress which I could not name or explain. It was almost like a kind of silent pain, I guess I had just become emotionally and physically exhausted. I think it began when I started to feel a reluctance to get going in the mornings and to tackle each new working day. At the same time, I remember, I started feeling a sort of non-specific dissatisfaction with my work, feeling that I should be achieving more or handling crises with greater skill and success. It was with this dissatisfaction that I got tired more easily and felt a general kind of fatigue growing. I started having to take short naps during the day and later had to reorganise my whole schedule in order to fit these in.

It was strange because just prior to this things had been very different. I was always the first to volunteer to do any extra relief during my time off. I used to take children with me when I went to do my personal shopping. I always wanted to have some of them with me when I went away for the weekend. I know I spent more and more of my off duty time at the Home. It was as though I no longer had a life outside of the home. I remember a nagging doubt I had at that time. I wondered if in some way I was beginning to rely on the Home, and the children I guess, to meet some of my personal needs. As though somehow my own family were no longer enough.

When the fatigue started I began to withdraw from people and activities I used to enjoy. The informal get-togethers with the other Houseparents and chatting to the Committee Ladies, who visited, once used to be so much fun but now I avoided them. Mixed in with this there were times when I suppose I neglected my work in going to the other extreme; I seemed to be always out socializing in a way I had never done before. All this just didn't seem to be the me I knew. Thinking back, it was also the time when endless visits to my doctor began, with all sorts of ailments. It was also the time when I was the most accident prone I have ever been.

I also noticed that it became increasingly difficult to unwind after work. I had become so used to all the activity and noise of the children, the teenager's blaring music, the fights, the rushing around and all that. It seemed to leave me overstimulated when I got back to my flat after work. I also remember that on my days and weekends off my husband and my own children used to tease me about the fact that I was like a cat on hot bricks and that I was always analysing everything they did or said.

You know, I had begun to doubt my competence more and more. In the beginning there were times when I would feel inadequate but this feeling was now with me most of the time. I was also very easily overwhelmed by even little tasks that I had to tackle. I seemed to lose the ability to judge my own achievements. I would usually underevaluate them although I guess there were others I would overevaluate. With all this self-doubt I would worry endlessly over imagined mistakes I had made - always judging myself

against some fantastic ideal, which no one around me really came close to either. I remember the other Housemothers noticed how apologetic about everything I had become. I guess I just needed lots of approval and reassurance. It was a time when I felt very alone. I felt useless and unfit for my position but I didn't want the others to know. I needed them to tell me that I was 'OK' but I couldn't really be honest enough with them to share the real me and what I was feeling.

I suppose I also alienated myself when I tried to cope by being more self sufficient. I know I got to the point when I started really believing that if I wanted something done properly then I would have to do it myself. I didn't feel a part of a working team and suppose that caused some resentments. This new attitude was very draining on me. It became harder to really trust the other Houseparents and I felt less and less support from them. I suppose in ways I had become cynical and perhaps condescending towards the others.

One thing that really got me down at this time were suggestions, 'helpful' new ideas or new experiments - 'new innovations' as the Principal would put it. At that time I needed my tried and trusted system, procedures, schedules, rosters etc., to be able to feel any confidence or security. Now was not the time to take any risks by trying out new ideas that might not work. I remember often getting the feeling that the other Housemothers and the Home were deliberately trying to make things more difficult for me.

I suppose the most embarrassing part of it all to admit to now, is the way I changed in relation to the children. With them too, I became more rigid, inflexible and withdrawn to the extent that I became far less understanding and found it increasingly difficult to really feel in empathy with a child. I was somehow aware of all this but couldn't do anything about it. Some of the things I did then I feel ashamed of now, I must have been quite callous. I suppose that I even lost some respect for the children. It became far easier to see ways in which they could be deserving of their problems. I started using expressions like 'my little savages' or 'what can you expect from a child with his background' etc. often when talking to the other staff. It became so much easier to analyse the dynamics behind a child's behaviour than to actually feel the impact of it. I can tell you it hurt much less and I had much less anger to cope with. I guess I had to distance myself from the children in this way in order to survive. Housekeeping I could face but lots of children, each with tremendous individual needs, just seemed too much.

My own family life suffered as well. It was as though I had lost the ability to relate to all people or feel any intimacy with them, it wasn't only the home children. I had lost contact with my old friends. There were continual arguments in my own family and my marriage was strained to the point where there were threats of divorce. I was very alone and felt as though I was caught up in some ever tightening web - at times I even thought that I might be going crazy."

2.6 SOURCES OF BURNOUT RELATED STRESS OVER WHICH THE MANAGEMENT HAS CONTROL.

Pines & Maslach (1980) report on a program carried out in a Child Day Care Center aimed at combatting staff burnout. The specific changes implemented through this program included involving the teachers themselves in the actual planning of the care program, an alteration in the staff to child ratio, and changes in the degree of structure of this program. The care program was made more structured with regard to times and activities. The findings, based on the teacher's subjective assessment of these changes after a period of six months, were that the amount of emotional stress related to the work had been considerably reduced. The teachers generally felt that their work had become more exciting, easy and pleasant. In support of these findings they quote statements such as: "The changes have made an incredible difference - I could not have gone through another year like the last one." "I used to get totally drained, but now I enjoy coming to work. Everything is better, and I feel really optimistic." (p.16) They conclude that burnout can be combatted to a degree.

In a study directed towards the question of "how to avoid burnout", Armstrong (1978), separated out three groups of variables. She separated the situational variables into two groups: firstly, variables related to management processes, and secondly, variables related to the organizational structure (including the role structure). The third group consisted of variables related to worker characteristics. In the dissertation abstract, she reports finding that:

- 1) Management process variables were significantly and directly related to burnout.
- 2) The significant relationships between structural variables and burnout were substantially decreased when controlling for management factors.
- 3) Some worker characteristics were significantly related to burnout but tended not to alter or modify the relationship between management and burnout.

2.6.1 Variables of Management Procedure.

Bertrand (1981), in an empirical study, found "lack of role models" and "limited feelings of organizational power" to be significantly related, ($p < .01$), to higher burnout. Armstrong (1978), Bensky (1980), Frankenhauser (1975, 1978), Harrison (1978), Maslach (1978), Maslach & Pines (1977), Reed (1977) and Sarata (1977) also stress the importance of 'a clear knowledge of what is expected of the worker and of what constitutes effective practice' and of 'participation in policy and decision making processes'. Freudenberger (1977a), adds a caution to this when he stresses workers having to make too many decisions in too short a period of time open themselves to risk. He in fact suggests that managements should set up a structure that requires "conscientious attention to rituals and routines" (p.96), as this would aid the worker by cutting down on his reliance on memory and on uncertainties that contribute towards burnout. Pines & Maslach (1980) and Weiskopf (1980), also caution against non-structured or non-directive program structures, suggesting that these can contribute towards the burnout process. Freudenberger (1975), stresses the importance of the worker feeling a part of a team and knowing his role in that team as opposed to his feeling alone and having to carry the burden of responsibility.

Maslach (1978), points out the dual effect that the enforcement of other's rules, procedures, 'rituals' etc. can have. On the one hand, they can promote a sense of security by creating order and protecting the worker from uncertainties and unknowns, but on the other hand, they can create stress if the worker does not understand the reasoning behind them and has to enforce them blindly, perhaps not knowing if he agrees with them or not. For this reason, Freudenberger (1977a) recommends that the agency shares its treatment goals, financial crises, community problems, and search for solutions with its staff. He says that they must be given the benefit of such awareness in order to protect against burnout. He also stresses the importance of an accurate ascertainment of how

disturbed a child is, what can realistically be expected to be accomplished with that child, what techniques make the most sense, and the impact that the child may have on the rest of the unit. Once this is carried out, it is then important that the resultant expectations of the houseparent be realistic in terms of his or her abilities and training already received. Bensky (1980), cites the discrepancy between the worker's own expectations of himself and other's expectations of him as a significant predictor of burn-out stress.

Houseparent's attendance at case conferences comes under discussion in the literature. While their participation in the treatment planning and future planning for each child is considered important, as above, Pines & Maslach (1978), report that participation in case conferences, as such, was found to be positively correlated with burnout. They suggest that this form of meeting serves the function of distancing and detaching the staff from their clients and avoids an emphasis on the problems experienced by the staff themselves. Other important functions of staff meetings will be discussed below.

Task variety, in the form of opportunities to rotate functions, temporarily shift responsibilities, give the odd talk, supervise students etc., as well as liason activities outside of the home and opportunities to attend conferences, talks, outside lectures etc., are all believed to lower the burnout risk. (Dixon, 1980; Freudenberg, 1977b; Mattingly, 1977b.)

The function of training, individual supervision and staff meetings in relation to burnout risk is referred to by many writers. (Armstrong, 1978; Bertrand, 1981; Freudenberg, 1975, 1977a, 1977b; Maslach, 1977b; Mattingly, 1977b; Reed, 1977.) From a consideration of these together, it would appear that in order for the burnout risk to be kept to a minimum, all of the following would have to be afforded a houseparent through their training, individual supervision and staff meetings.

A list of opportunities, drawn up from the literature, would include:

- 1) To socialize freely with other adults.
- 2) To have a good laugh or say something humorous.
- 3) To compare one's performance with that of others.
- 4) To express anger or any other negative emotions building up inside one.
- 5) To get in touch with here and now feelings.
- 6) To express here and now feelings towards the rest of the staff.
- 7) To confer about problems one is having with a child.
- 8) To share one's successes.
- 9) To share one's failures, doubts and insecurities.
- 10) To attempt to clarify for oneself, one's underlying motives for entering into residential child care work.
- 11) To discover what feelings other houseparents experience.
- 12) To resolve interpersonal conflicts with other houseparents.
- 13) To vent disagreement with perhaps a decision made by someone else or with a rule.
- 14) To feel 'loved' and accepted for who or what one is.
- 15) To give support, understanding and encouragement to others.
- 16) To get support, understanding and encouragement from others.
- 17) To get more in touch with what one's own basic character deficiencies are and to come to be able to accept these.
- 18) To feel part of a team and that one's responsibilities for the children is a shared one.
- 19) To become aware of and to clarify for oneself what the long and short range goals for the children are.
- 20) To become aware of unrealistic expectations that one may have for oneself, one's children or one's job.
- 21) To get feedback on one's performance, both positive and negative.
- 22) To learn techniques of personal stress management.

As regards the form that the in-service training takes, Freudenberger (1975), cautions against programs which might include encounter type aspects and through which the worker might be left feeling

torn down, confronted, attacked, angry and perhaps even more inadequate. He suggests that the function of an in-service training program should be to replenish the participants with the feelings of which they have been depleted during the course of their very demanding work (Freudenberger, 1977a). Mattingly (1977b) states:

While an in-agency support system is critical, it is often very difficult to express one's feelings and clarify issues with co-workers. Child care workers are responsible for each other and need to be available with seriousness and trust. This differs substantially from the informal or social group in which participants "let it all hang out". It requires willingness, confidentiality, and careful response to one's colleagues without collusive participation. (p.136)

Freudenberger (1977a) lists the lack of basic managing, directing and decision making skills as a source of stress that can be one of the more practical causes of burnout. He suggests that a training program should also include the development of practical skills such as these.

Investigating the observation that after an initial period of eagerness to learn, the child care worker often begins to lose interest, Sutton (1977) identified a "fatigue/guilt/quit" cycle and found that there existed an unwillingness on the part of workers to discuss their concerns with the management until after they had made the decision to quit. Freudenberger (1977a, 1977b) stresses the importance of the existence of a relationship of mutual trust and caring between the staff and the management of an institution. This relationship, although difficult, needs to be developed as early as possible and must provide the worker with support, nurturance and an opportunity for sharing concerns as well as opportunities for both positive and negative feedback.

Reviewing experimental research on the cuing and motivational effects of feedback, Nadler (1979) found that feedback is seen to

contingently lead to affective and cognitive outcomes, including level of attraction to the group, pride in the group, motivation, defensive feelings, and a sharing of group problems. Feedback is also seen as potentially leading to behavioural outcomes such as task performance, membership behaviour, and coping behaviour. Kanner, Kalfry & Pines (1978), in investigating the hypotheses that the presence of negative and lack of positive life and work features are both significantly related to tedium and work satisfaction/dissatisfaction, and are independent of each other, found that these hypotheses were confirmed except in the case of work satisfaction/dissatisfaction, which was related only to the lack of positive features. Freudenberger (1977a), Mattingly (1977b), and Maslach (1978), all stress that residential child care is a field in which one very seldom is able to see positive, tangible results of one's work. They all emphasise, however, that the workers ability to see themselves as a positive change agent is negatively related to burnout. This makes the process of feedback particularly important and challenging for the managements of children's homes.

2.6.2 Variables of Organizational Structure.

While it has been suggested previously that staff turnover may be linked to burnout, the relationship between job satisfaction, turnover and burnout is not all that clear. Prosser (rf. p.2), from a review of the literature on residential child care, suggested that the reasons for the staff shortages, high rate of staff turnover and difficulties in recruiting the right people were: the long hours of work, inadequate salary scales, demands made by the nature of the work, poor and cramped living accommodation, lack of privacy, lack of opportunities within a definite career structure, and the loneliness and isolation experienced as a result of the role structure among others.

In a dissertation abstract, Bertrand (1981), reports the finding that role stress variables and job satisfaction (operationalized as satisfaction with work, pay, promotions, co-workers, supervision,

and overall job satisfaction) were significantly negatively related ($p < .01$). While one of the conclusions she draws is that as job satisfaction increases inclinations to leave the organization will decrease, this is not supported by Murphy & Gardner (1979). They report, in a journal abstract, that research on a sample of Australian government psychologists showed that job satisfaction was not significantly related to turnover.

Sarata & Jeppesen (1977), hypothesised that job design is systematically related to employee satisfaction. The job design variables included were variety, task-identity, feedback, autonomy, participation, learning and information. The subjects were all from agencies providing services to children and the hypothesis was supported.

Maslach & Pines (1977), report that longer working hours are associated with more stress, especially if these longer hours involve more work with the children. They also found that the quality of work decreased as the quantity of direct continuous contact increased. Weiskopf (1980), reports a study which would support these findings. Weiskopf (ibid.), also suggests that in order for workers to protect themselves against burnout, it is important for them to develop and pursue their interests in other non-related fields. As a counter to burnout, Freudenberger (1977a; 1977b), recommends regular physical exercise and goes as far as to suggest the starting of an in-house exercise program. For house-parents to pursue these non-work activities on a regular basis, it would be important that there were sufficient free time available in their role structure. (Freudenberger recommends against yoga as a form of exercise as he believes that in order to protect against burnout, the worker must direct energies outwards and not inwards.)

Freudenberger (1977a), and Mattingly (1977b), together with others, would suggest that the burnout risk increases as the number of children for which a worker is responsible increases. The different

types of demands made by teenagers as opposed to pre-teens is also spoken about and it is implied that work with teenagers would be more stressful. It is also implied that the higher the turnover of clients, the greater the stress will be. Frankenhauser (1975, 1978), together with emphasising the stressfulness of both work overload and work underload, reports that control over the work load is an important variable in terms of general well being and physical health.

Adequate time off is generally considered to be important and Freudenberger (1977a), raises the questions of where and how it is spent, pointing out that often it is in fact not taken. This in turn would raise the question of whether this time is not taken for practical reasons such as the live-in workers having no place to go to. Many workers earning low salaries might not be able to afford to get away for weekends or holidays unless they have families to go to, or the home offers some compensation such as alternative living accommodation or a holiday bonus.

Weiskopf (1980), and Freudenberger (1975; 1977a), also point out the additional burnout risk if regular time off is messed around or the worker is required to do relief work during regular time off. Kyriacou & Sutcliffe (1978), in an empirical study, found the latter to be significantly related to stress amongst teachers.

Recommendations for more chances of temporary withdrawal from the stress generating work situation are made in many of the articles (Pines & Maslach, 1978; Maslach & Pines, 1977; Freudenberger, 1975, 1977a, 1977b). The staffing structure or system of voluntary help would have to be able to make these possible. The suggested temporary withdrawal could take the form of extra hours off, days off, or extra vacations for the overwhelmed workers.

It would be expected that when a houseparent has frequent direct contact with a child's natural parents, the amount of stress will increase due to the guilt and jealousies in this relationship.

However, Wolkind (1977), found that children visited frequently by their natural parents were more likely to relate well to their houseparents than children visited infrequently or not at all. There is perhaps a countering effect in this finding. Wolkind (ibid.), also found that prolonged contact with the same houseparents was related to lower rates of psychiatric disorder and deviant behaviour in the children.

Lack of opportunities for promotion, or for temporary transfer to a less stressful position, are also positively related to burnout by Bertrand (1981), Freudemberger (1977b), and Mattingly (1977b).

2.7 ADDITIONAL FACTORS LINKED TO THE BURNOUT PHENOMENON.

The nature of the work suggests that unless there has been a promotional job change, two years is the maximum amount of time to be spent in this type of work. The day-to-day demands, the emotional draining, the love-hate dichotomies that are challenged, the need to be watchful and alert about other's lives, the countertransference emotions - all suggest that for our good, as well as the children's, time off is called for after this period. It is a difficult decision to make, because the leaving as well as the decision to work in this environment is often emotionally based, but, nevertheless, leaving after two years is appropriate. (Freudemberger, 1977a P.98)

This statement would come as a shock to many managements of children's homes who are doing everything in their power to lower the rate of staff turnover. From the writer's own experience, working in this field, the figure of two years would appear to be a realistic estimate of the present actual average length of service given by houseparents. Mc Kendric (1974), in a study undertaken in 1970, on white females who graduated as social workers from the Universities of Natal and the Witwatersrand over the 11 year period from 1955 to 1965, found that the average length of time a social worker stayed in a single job was 15 months. Looking at the mean length of service by fields, he found the mean to be

13 months for the field of child and family welfare as opposed to 17 months for positions in state departments and 6 months for working with the aged. Unfortunately, no South African figures for houseparents are available. Shostack (1978), in a study of 18 American institutions, found that in the 11 who employed houseparents, only 2 of the 11 couples had been in their positions for more than 12 months and 5 had been employed for less than 6 months. Marital problems were believed to be the contributing factor to this high rate of turnover.

Sarata (1979), from an investigation into the experiences associated with the first 12 months of being employed as a houseparent, develops an interesting hypothesis i.e. that houseparents encounter, in sequence, 3 distinct phases. Phase 1, he gives as being characterised by a preoccupation with learning standard operating procedures. In Phase 2, houseparents focus on comparing their own work attitudes and philosophy with those of colleagues and superiors. Phase 3, involves them in assessing the appropriateness of their committing themselves to the cottage parent role.

2.7.1 Variables of Personal Characteristics.

Landes (1979), in a study of the inter-relationships among personality characteristics, organizational stressors and selected stress reduction techniques, reports that the four groups, derived from combining weak or strong Type A* tendencies and low or high organizational stressors, offered no consistent combinations of predictive value. He also found that the respondents perceived the stress reduction techniques suggested, as having only modest relevance or effectiveness.

* Type A tendencies include: Always moving, walking, eating rapidly etc., feelings of impatience with the rate at which most events take place, striving to think or do two or more things simultaneously, persistent and destructive inability to cope with leisure time, and an obsession with numbers, success being measured in terms of how much of everything they acquire, etc.



Krantz & Stone (1978), in a study of personality characteristics in relation to reactions of success and failure, using a version of Rotter's Internal - External Locus of Control Scale, found that externals tended to perform poorly after failure and that internals performed somewhat better. They concluded however, that the significant difference found could be attributed largely to the elderly group included in the sample. The older externals showed the poorest performance after failure.

Investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and working conditions including pay, agency policy and other variables, Phillips & Hays (1978) report that those workers who had the least formal education tended to be satisfied in more spheres than those with more education. Ganesan (1979) reports the finding that workers who experience a dissonance between their occupational interest and their present occupation show a significant difference in their perception of the organizational climate, family climate and self concept in an unfavourable direction.

In Section 2.4 - The Dynamics in Burnout - additional variables of personal characteristics, such as, whether a worker can identify experiences in his or her own past which are similar to the ones the children are working through at present etc., and which are linked to burnout, became evident. Variables such as these are also important.

2.8 THE THOMPSON STUDY.

The abstract of this study, entitled "'Burnout' in Group Home Houseparents", reads:

Forty-seven houseparents of group homes for emotionally disturbed adolescents completed questionnaires measuring "burnout". There were profound differences between male and female subjects; for men, higher burnout scores were significantly correlated with higher salaries,

screening prospective residents, and having no decision making power in accepting residents. Women burned out more if they screened prospective residents or ran group meetings with residents. Significant relationships were also found between burnout and where time off was spent and support of friends, staff, and the organization. The author suggests that group home programs should differentially allocate tasks to men and women and should work with men on overly high expectations. (Thompson, 1980 p.710)

The aims of this study are given as being-three fold: firstly, to describe more closely the burnout syndrome, secondly, to develop a simple and informative instrument to measure the phenomenon, and thirdly, to study some of the possible etiological factors in burnout.

The following research method was adopted. List of houseparents, past and present, were provided by 27 of the 30 group homes in the North Carolina (USA) public mental health system. Thompson sent 146 questionnaires to 68 current and 78 former houseparents. The reported response rate was 32%, representing 47 responders (n=47). (27 were current and 20 former houseparents). A breakdown showed that, of the responders, 23 were men and 24 were women and that there were 17 couples represented in the sample. The data however, was not analysed in terms of couples. Only houseparents who worked, or had worked more than half time (ie. that houseparenting was their main occupation) in the group home were included in the study.

The questionnaires included items concerning personal data on the houseparents and their observations and experiences regarding their jobs. The subjects were also asked to rate themselves retrospectively on a list of 16 adjectives designed to measure changes in self impression over the course of their being a houseparent. Husbands and wives were asked to complete the questionnaire independently. Anonymity was assured to all participants and informed consent was obtained.

2.8.1 The Measuring Instrument Used.

By having to rate each of 16 adjectives supplied by Thompson on a scale from 1 to 10, the subjects were asked how they felt on each of the dimensions both when they started working as a houseparent ("start" response) and when they left, or were feeling at present, ("stop" response). The score yielded by the start to stop changes on each of the 16 adjectives was then used to compute an overall burnout score. A higher score on each adjective was taken as indicative of greater burnout and the summed start to stop differences were therefore taken as the measurement of the degree of burnout that may have taken place. (8 of the adjectives were in fact stated in their positive form and scored in reverse, with a lower score being taken as indicative of greater burnout).

Thompson reports finding significant start - stop changes for men, woman, or both, on 10 of the 16 adjectives.** He reports using a one-tailed t-test for pairs in this analysis with his significance criteria fixed at the cut off point of $p < .10$. The 10 adjectives found to show significant start - stop changes were:

Confused	Angry
Energetic*	Overworked
Dependable*	Effective*
Cynical	Tired
Bored	Confident*

The 6 adjectives which did not show significant start - stop changes were:

Depressed	Happy*
Uptight	Emotionally healthy*
Committed*	Physically healthy*

(* indicates the positive adjectives scored in reverse.)

All of the self impression adjectives were used in computing the overall burnout score. The reason for this, given by Thompson, is that (because) ... "the list of 16 adjectives was presented as a unit in the research instrument. Separation of the items for

** This finding is discussed in detail in Part 6 of this report.

scoring would have ignored the power of the scale over its component parts and introduced bias by in effect forming a new scale after the fact" (ibid. p.711 - note 3).

He found that the men's scores ranged from -12 to +40 (mean = 7.0, median = 5.5, SD = 12.1, with the curve roughly approximating normal distribution). The woman's scores ranged from -16 to +84 (mean = 10.9, median = 7.5, SD = 19.7, with the curve being approximately bimodal having peaks at -3.0 and +17.0).

In discussing the results of his research, Thompson makes the following statement about the instrument he used:

The self-impression scale used in this study of houseparents in group homes for emotionally disturbed adolescents appears to be a useful measure of burnout. There seemed to be descriptive adjectives on which many of the houseparents agreed and which changed over time. However, my model was one of retrospective recall, the number of subjects was relatively small, and the response rate was low. With regard to the 68% nonresponse rate, people familiar with group homes felt that nonresponders were probably more angry and more cynical (and, for current houseparents, more overwhelmed) than responders. This would indicate that non-responders were probably more burned out than responders. A similar prospective study with a large sample population, as well as other methods of validity and reliability testing, are needed to further develop the measurement device I used. (ibid. pp.712-3)

In his concluding remarks, Thompson also states the following:

Psychiatrists' familiarity with burnout could become increasingly important in administrative and consultative work with organizations and in clinical work with patients who suffer untoward effects from their jobs in these organizations. An instrument such as the one used in this study could lead to the early detection of difficulty in staff personnel ... allowing preventative measures to be taken. ...

Further research in the description and measurement of the burnout syndrome, development of criteria for diagnosis, and delineation of effective modes of prevention and treatment will provide the practising psychiatrist with an important tool in individual treatment and in organizational and hospital consultation. (ibid. p.713)

2.8.2 The Results in relation to possible Etiological Factors.

The group homes included in the study serve between 3 and 10 youths who stay in the facility full-time for a period of at least 1 month. These home units were free standing dwellings. The types of youths in the homes were varied with the most common characteristics being: their having had come into trouble with the law, their having been abused, their having no family to which they could return, their having behaviour problems or their being "emotionally disturbed", as opposed to being developmentally disabled or drug users. It was found that each of the homes served an average of 5 youths with the mean age being 13,5 years. The average length of stay for the youths was 8 months.

The average age of the houseparents was found to be 26 years and the mean income per couple was \$7,000. The subjects had worked as a houseparent for an average of 13 months and had, on average, been out of 'school' for 2 years when they took the job ('school' referring to the South African equivalents of school, college or university). It was found that 73% of the houseparents had at least a bachelors degree. Former houseparents in the sample had been out of their jobs for an average of 17 months.

For each area studied in relation to possible etiological factors, either a coefficient of correlation was computed, or two contrasting groups were delineated according to the subject's response to a question, and the variance of the burnout score means of these two groups would then be compared, using a t-test for groups, to see if the differences in the means could be attributed to the different response itself. (For example, one group might be formed

of those who answered yes, and the other group of those who answered no, to a question of whether or not time off was in fact taken). Thompson reports using 1-tailed tests for most of the analyses with 2-tailed tests being used in a few cases. A p value of .05 or below was taken to be significant, while a p value of between .05 and .10 was regarded as a "trend".

The actual findings of this study were as follows:*

Men with higher salaries showed higher burnout ($p < .002$, 2-tailed t-test). There was no significant relationship among the women. Men burned out more when they screened prospective residents ($p < .01$) and when they had no decision-making power in the acceptance or nonacceptance of prospective residents ($p < .05$). Having actual decision-making power in the acceptance of residents was negatively related to burnout in men ($p < .01$).

Women also burned out more when they had the task of screening prospective residents ($p < .01$). For women, however, burnout was not statistically related to either the possession of decision-making power in the acceptance of prospective residents or to the absence of such power. An additional task related to burnout for women (but not for men) was running group meetings with residents ($p < .01$). Tasks related to counseling residents and families, household maintenance, and liaison activities (with community agencies, schools, and biologic parents) were not significantly related to burnout for either sex.

Time off per week, vacation time taken, and where time off and vacation time were spent were compared with burnout scores. The number of days off per month ranged from 2 to 17 (mean = 7.1, SD = 3.7). There was no statistically significant relationship between burnout and belonging to the group having the most or least time off.

Although subjects were allowed up to 15 days of vacation per year (mean = 10.9, SD = 3.9), the mean number of vacation days actually taken in the year before the study was 4.9 (SD = 5.2), and 41% said they took no vacation at all. An analysis of variance was used to compare vacation time taken with burnout scores, but the F value was not significant. Women burned out more when their time off was spent in a number of locations ($p < .05$) and less when they went to a house in the country away from the group home (trend). Men also burned out more when they spent their time off in many places (trend) and less when they went on unplanned trips ($p < .03$).

* In full, as published.

The amount of formal education houseparents had was varied. None had less than a high school education, 60% had a college degree, and 13% had received a graduate degree. Men with only high school or technical school training burned out significantly more ($p < .003$) than those with college degrees; no difference was found for women.

The houseparents' perception of support from friends was correlated with low burnout for both men ($p < .03$) and women (trend). Perceived support from the board of directors of the group homes was significantly correlated with low burnout for men ($p < .005$) and women ($p < .05$). Perceived staff support was not statistically related to burnout, because of the feelings of the great majority of houseparents that the staff was supportive. This did not allow separation of the data into contrasting groups for analysis. (ibid. pp.711-2)

Thompson's interpretation of his results is as follows:

Several important ideas arise from comparisons of burnout with job and personal data. The first of these is that there appear to be profound sex differences. Salary was not important for women but was a key factor for men. Male houseparents who could not make the actual decision as to which residents to admit or not to admit burned out, but females did not. Making the admission decision appeared to protect men against burnout, but no such correlation was shown for women. This might relate to men's need to be in control or perhaps to their being less able to deal with a wide range of disturbed children, a possible assumption being that given the choice to do so they would screen out potential residents with whom they felt they could not work. Higher education also seemed to protect men, but not women, against burnout.

Sex differences were shown again and again in the study and may indicate that the burnout syndrome is the result of different etiologies for men and women. If this is substantiated in subsequent studies, there are implications for diagnosis and prevention in the individual, as well as implications for program planning in group homes. For example, tasks may have to be differentially allocated to the male and female houseparent.

Male houseparents burned out more when their salary was higher (which is contrary to popular wisdom on the issue). This may indicate that men are more affected by high expectations placed on them by the organization and/or themselves, as represented by higher salaries. All would agree that salaries for these personnel should be higher, but the above finding indicates that perhaps male houseparents and their organizations need to be worked with on the issue of overly high expectations (an appropriate role for psychiatric consultants to group homes).

Subjects in the sample took surprisingly little time off; although this might be postulated to lead to higher burnout, statistical analysis did not bear this out. What was shown to be important was where time off was spent. Going to a number of places (hence being essentially wanderers) led to burnout alternatively, "getting away" from the group home protected against burnout, although getting away took different forms for men and women. Quality rather than quantity appears to be the key factor, with a place of respite away from the work setting being important. The relative unimportance of the quantity of time off is reinforced by the absence of correlations between burnout and the number of routine days taken off per month or the number of vacation days taken.

Last is the strong importance of support from the organization and friends in preventing burnout. Group homes are small organizations, often developed and run in isolation from larger organizational systems. These programs are asked to cure (or at least control) troubled youths who have unsuccessfully been through every other resource in the community. In addition to these perhaps overly high expectations, group home houseparents themselves are put into a deviant role that isolates them from all but their most tolerant friends.

In this study the group home staff was seen by the houseparents as a great source of support. But this is a heavy burden for a staff which is itself isolated from a larger organization. More appropriate sources of support for all staff (including houseparents) are needed. Psychiatrists in a position to provide clinical and administrative consultation could provide much of this support. (ibid. p.713)

PART THREE.

THE AIMS OF
AND THE RATIONALE FOR
THIS RESEARCH.

The staffing problems faced by the managements of children's homes are very real. Within restricted budgets, they have to maintain and constantly improve on the quality of service they offer. As mentioned previously, the development of residential child care has, to a large extent, been hindered by staffing related problems particularly at the level of houseparents. At the same time, in the literature a phenomenon called burnout, is delineated and described as being very pertinent in many of the problems encountered.

Looking at the houseparent role structure, it emerges as perhaps the most stressful one in the field of child care. Burnout is presented as a specific form of stress reaction, a syndrome of emotional and physical exhaustion, and many of its 'symptoms' are the very same attitudes, behaviours and energy levels that have played their role in holding back the development of residential child care. This has particularly been the case since residential care has become a therapeutically orientated care. It has been postulated that burnout is a withdrawal and it has been seen to be linked to both the high rate of staff turnover and to the decrements, through psychological withdrawal, in the quality of caring provided by houseparents under certain circumstances.

There is also a considerable body of literature making positive suggestions as to what can be done to lower the inherent risk of burnout. Most of these suggestions have focussed on the situational variables which are likely to be a source of stress and which can in fact be manipulated. Other suggestions have been directed towards staff training programs and intake selection criteria.

In the Introduction, it was suggested that the overall staffing problems of children's homes tend to cluster into three categories viz. availability, suitability and turnover, and to each of these categories the literature on burnout has something to offer.

The concept of burnout would appear to be highly relevant to the field of residential child care and a concept full of potential.

At the same time it can be seen that research into this phenomenon is highly problematic. The exact syndrome, if in fact a unitary one exists, is difficult to define and the techniques for measuring burnout could be described as crude, or at least, far less advanced than the measurement of, for example, intelligence or personality traits.

In Section 2.2, it was suggested that because of the concept's potential usefulness, there is a sense of urgency reflected in the literature to discover more about the phenomenon and its relationship to both situational variables and the variables of personal characteristics. As a result, burnout research has often been undertaken using measuring instruments with low validity and reliability, if in fact, instruments have been used at all.

When a study such as that of Thompson is considered, the published findings appeal. It has the form of an empirical study and the results offer insight into the burnout process and outline specific situational variables which appear to be directly related to its etiology. The implications being, that if the suggestions made were followed, something concrete would be being done to lower the burnout risk. The instrument he used is also presented as being a useful measure of burnout, and such a measure is badly needed if other aspects of the burnout phenomenon are to be explored.

Caution needs to be exercised though. It was mentioned previously that the houseparent role structure evolved out of developments centered around the children's needs and the overall best interests of the larger group, of which the children are the center. This evolution also took place with very real financial considerations in mind. If one is to manipulate the situational variables in such a way as to change this structure, then one would need to be

quite sure that the reasons for changing it were valid and that the overall best interests would still be served, even if indirectly. If the overall staffing problems could be lessened by lowering the burnout risk, and if the burnout risk is in fact lowered through the methods suggested, then this would constitute a valid reason. Anything less could make change a rather risky venture.

Theory and research need to complement one another. Under normal circumstances hypotheses are generated from theory and these are then tested by means of research using strict experimental designs. Unpredicted occurrences are often highlighted through research, or hypotheses not confirmed, and these then have to be accounted for by revised theory. Burnout theory and research has not however, developed to the point where this simple natural scientific model is directly applicable. The phenomenon does not appear to lend itself to being easily defined operationally, and, just as in many other fields of psychological research, measurement and control of extraneous variables is not all that easily accomplished.

In other areas of research into therapy and counselling, similar methodological problems are found. In a discussion on methodology related to counselling research, Resnikoff, Tinsley, Sperry & Schmidt (1978), make the point that in the field of counselling psychology, it is perhaps premature to focus research efforts primarily on strict experimental designs. At this stage, they would suggest that research using various designs, should be directed towards concept formation, model building and the generation of hypotheses. They also argue, that until such time as theory has developed to the point where operational definitions can be arrived at and the resultant research designs can control more adequately for extraneous variables, replication of results is far more important than merely establishing statistical significances.

In burnout research we also find that the most appropriate definitional paradigm changes the emphasis from a strict sense of what burnout is, within a hypothetico-deductive system, to considerations of the types of phenomena that are being referred to and investigated under this rubric, 'burnout', and how these phenomena are related to one another. Burnout is not at this stage a 'rigorous scientific concept' and the research itself needs to be used for concept formation, model building and the generation of hypotheses. It is the view of the writer, that at this stage, studies using designs such as that of Thompson's are important and that they can gain added significance through attempts at replication. The interest, after all, is on stress and the situational variables, which if present, give rise to the potential for burnout. Research must be exploratory.

3.1 THE RESEARCH AIMS OF THE PRESENT STUDY.

The present study is based on a replication of the Thompson (1980) study although efforts will be made to extend the findings in both breadth and depth. The aims of this study are therefore similar to those of Thompson's and could be stated as follows:

- 1) By looking at the phenomenon in another context, the aim is to be able to describe more closely the burnout syndrome.
- 2) Through replication and by incorporating other measures of burnout, the aim is to be able to throw more light on the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument used by Thompson and presented by him as "a useful measure of burnout".
- 3) In studying some possible etiological factors, the aim is to see how certain situational variables and variables of personal characteristics, linked to burnout in the literature, are in fact related to this phenomenon within the context of the houseparent role in South African children's homes.

- 4) The aim is to attempt to establish whether this line of research can, at present, offer any guidelines in the resolution of the current staffing crisis faced by these institutions.

As they stand, the findings of the Thompson study have an unknown external and internal validity and this necessitates replication. These more practical reasons for replication are discussed below.

3.2 REASONS FOR REPLICATION OF THE THOMPSON STUDY.

In terms of external validity, before Thompson's findings could be generalised to the South African situation, it would be necessary to know if his sample were in fact representative of local houseparents. It is perhaps of significance, that in the American sample, 73% of the houseparents had at least a bachelor's degree. From the writer's personal experience, it was estimated that this percentage would be as low as 1% in the local situation. The mean age of 26 years, established for his sample, was also considered to be, in all probability, a lot lower. It would appear that in the USA a higher proportion of men are employed as houseparents, than there are locally, and this fact could be expected to exert an influence, as could the number of couples represented (74%).

The Group Homes studied, and the respective population of residents of these homes, would appear to be comparable to the South African homes run on "cottage style"/"family unit" systems. However, the fact that the group homes were all free standing units and not physically a part of a larger institution could have a differential effect on the staff support systems studied, and could be relevant to burnout. In the South African context, most of the family units are situated within a village complex or within the same building.

Also significant in the Thompson study, is the sample size and the response rate, as both of these could have an influence on the external and internal validities of his findings. The number of

subjects $n=47$ (23 males & 24 females) is considered small when it is remembered that in the statistical analysis of the data, groups were delineated according to the response given, and that this was done for the male and females separately. The response rate was also low - 32%. Thompson makes the suggestion that the 68% non-responders were probably more burnt-out (more cynical, angry or overwhelmed) than the responders, but this is only an assumption with the exact nature of the bias unknown.

In his measurement of burnout, for some subjects Thompson relied on their retrospective recall of both how they felt when they started in their position as houseparent ("start" response) and of how they felt when they had left ("stop" response). For other subjects, he relied on their retrospective recall only of how they had felt when they began ("start" response), as for the "stop" response he was relying only on immediate feelings. The mean length of time that former houseparents had been out of their positions was established to be 17 months. The range or SD is not given, but this is a long period of time over which to recall essentially how one felt at some time in the past, and the period of time for the "start" response would be even longer. Recall of how one felt at a particular time in the past can be influenced and modified by many subsequent factors and experiences. Because no differentiation was made between these two groups of subjects in the analysis of the data, the possibility of a differential in these influencing factors may have introduced important artifacts not controlled for.

In the present study, only houseparents who fell into the latter group ie. presently in the position, were included in the sample and measures were also taken to ensure a higher response rate and a larger sample size. It was expected that in the South African situation there would not be as many men actually employed as houseparents, so the emphasis was more on studying the possible etiological factors in relation to housemothers, than on a male/female comparison as in the Thompson study. It was aimed to have

the size of the sample of at least the female houseparents far larger, and couples were to be excluded. In the South African situation, many of the husbands of housemothers assume the role of housefather within the family unit while they maintain their regular employment outside, but as the degree of involvement of these non-paid workers varies considerably, they were not included in the sample.

In addition to the methodological and more practical reasons given above, a final reason for replication of the Thompson study was the fact that there are variables of structure referred to in the literature, which are currently being looked at by the managements of South African children's homes and which did not come under consideration in the Thompson research.

3.3 THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES OF THE PRESENT STUDY.

In order to achieve the research aims, various hypotheses are tested. These hypotheses could be stated in a general form as follows:

H_1 : For each subject there are three independent measures of the degree of burnout which may have taken place, and it is hypothesised that these three measures are related to one another in some way. A positive correlation between them is expected, which would indicate that as the scores on one measure increase, so too, would the scores on the other measures increase. It is also expected that if two groups are delineated according to high versus low levels of burnout as measured on the one scale, then the variance of the means of the scores for these two groups on each of the other measures, could be attributable to more than just the effects of chance operating.

H₂ : With regard to Thompson's instrument, it is hypothesised that the stresses inherent in the houseparent's role give rise to a change in the start - stop responses for each of the 16 adjectives presented and that this change is greater than if only chance were operating. If this recorded change is significant ie. attributable to more than just chance operating, then it is assumed that this difference represents burnout in either a positive or negative degree. The summed differences on all 16 adjectives for each subject are taken as the measure of burnout. (This instrument is discussed in more detail in a later section - 4.2.1).

H₃ : It is hypothesised that for each of the situational variables or variables of personal characteristics (the independent variables) there is a relationship to the burnout scores obtained (the dependant variable) of the form predicted in the literature. For some of these variables a correlation is expected, and for others it is expected that, if groups are delineated according to the response given to an I.V. question, then the variance of the burnout score means for these groups will be greater than if only chance were operating.

In addition to testing the above hypotheses in order to confirm or discard the above expectations, basic descriptive statistics are also calculated to aid the interpretation of the findings. It is from the overall interpretation of the results that the more general research aims are achieved.

PART FOUR.

THE RESEARCH METHOD.

4.1 THE SAMPLING AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE.

All the 'english speaking'* children's homes in the Witwatersrand-Pretoria region of South Africa, who describe themselves as running according to a "cottage plan" or "family unit" type system, were approached through their respective managements. All of the houseparents employed by the homes, who agreed to participate, were invited, with management encouragement, to take part in the research.

The current list of children's homes supplied by the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions was found to be out of date and therefore inaccurate with regard to the size of the homes and the systems adopted in the running of them. The Transvaal Branch Chairman of the National Association of Child Care Workers, who in 1981 was involved in the organization of a national conference for this association, was approached and he was able to supply more up to date lists, and information regarding the systems adopted. It was found that 15 homes met the criteria of the above description and they were therefore approached. The exact number of houseparents employed by these homes was not known, nor was the number of units, run by them collectively, known. From the information that was available, it was estimated that there would be in the region of 100 houseparents in the sample, so a sample was in fact not drawn.

* Most children's homes describe themselves as being bilingual and do not discriminate on the grounds of language in their admission policies. It is the policy of the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, however, to place children, whenever possible, in homes which have the same religious and cultural backgrounds as those of the natural parents, and in this sense they differentiate between 'english' and 'afrikaans' speaking homes. While individual houseparents may have english or afrikaans as their mother tongue, the 'english speaking' here refers to the cultural background of the home and its management.

The decision to limit the population of homes eligible for inclusion was a multi-faceted one. Firstly, it was economic in terms of both time and cost. Because of the importance of obtaining a high response rate, the decision was made against mailing questionnaires. It was decided to rather both deliver and collect them by hand, and extending the research to other regions would have multiplied the time and costs involved to a point of making this no longer feasible. Secondly, it is the 'english speaking' homes who have pioneered and developed the "cottage plan" and "family unit" systems in this country and who are at present faced with the most urgent staffing problems in relation to the houseparent role. These systems, as employed in the 'afrikaans speaking' homes, are conceived of rather differently, and in addition to the cultural variables, the inclusion of these homes would have introduced additional variables difficult to control for. Thirdly, the homes included are the ones most similar to the ones described in the Thompson research. The sample size was regarded as sufficiently large due to the fact that a high response rate was expected.

4.2 THE INSTRUMENTS USED:

4.2.1 Thompson's 16 Adjective Check-List.

On this measure of burnout, the subjects were presented with a sheet containing 16 adjectives which could be used to describe their overall feelings or experience. They were then asked to rate themselves, by marking a point on a 9 point continuum line, as to how they felt on each of these dimensions when they first started as a houseparent in their present position ("start" response) and then to rate themselves again with regard to their current feelings or experience ("stop" response).

The summed start to stop differences were taken as a measure of the degree of burnout which may have taken place. Of the adjectives, the 8 presented in their positive form, were in fact

scored in reverse when the overall burnout score was calculated and this was done in terms of the predicted direction of the change that would take place in burnout. In terms of these adjectives, the prediction was, that if burnout had taken place, then the person would be more confused, depressed, uptight, cynical, bored, angry, overworked, tired and less energetic, dependable, committed, happy, emotionally healthy, physically healthy, effective and confident. With the direction of the change having been accounted for by the reverse scoring, a higher score was taken as indicative of a higher degree of burnout.

The methods of validity and reliability testing of this instrument that were used by Thompson were repeated for the purpose of comparison. The method he used, was to determine the statistical significance of the start - stop changes on each of these adjectives using a 1-tailed t-test for pairs. He fixed his significance criterion at the level $p < .10$ which is believed to be low seeing that a 1-tailed test was used (Wood, 1977). For the purpose of comparison the same criterion was used in one instance, and in another, for the purpose of comment on the usefulness of the scale, the significance criterion was fixed at the more acceptable level of $p < .05$. It is the view of the writer (and substantiated by Wood, 1977), that because of the high incidence of unexpected occurrences in exploratory research, 2-tailed tests of significance are more appropriate. For this reason, the results were analysed also using 2-tailed criteria, both here and for all other statistical tests in this research. The significance criterion of $p > .05 < .10$ was regarded as a "trend" when a 2-tailed test was used.

A copy of this check-list, as presented, is included as Appendix C.*

4.2.2 Burnout Identification - self rating scale.

To obtain the second measure of burnout, the subjects were presented with a quotation, written in the first person, and described as containing "... some of the experiences a housemother once

* The Appendices are given in the order that they were presented to subjects and are therefore referred to out of sequence here.

shared about how she started feeling and what began happening to her after she had been working in a children's home for some time". They were asked to read it and afterwards give some measure of the extent to which they identified with the person describing her experiences. This measure, recorded by marking a point on a 10 point scale (0 to 10), it was suggested, should be of the degree to which their own experiences at present, may or may not be similar to those expressed in the quotation. Additional instructions were:

Without trying to match your experiences, opinions or feelings to those described point by point, I would like you to try and relate to the more general "state" that this housemother is trying to describe. A lot of it may ring true for you on a feeling level. The extent or degree to which it does is what I would like you to record below. For example, if nothing in it rings true for you, then perhaps an X next to the No.0 best describes your degree of identification but it may be that your measure of identification is best described by No.2,5 or 6,3 or 8,5 etc.

Criteria descriptions, corresponding to points 0; 2,5; 5; 7,5 and 10 on the scale, were given in order to try and increase the uniformity in the criteria adopted.

While Mattingly (1977a), does not believe that burnout can be measured in the sense of checking off a list of symptoms, she does suggest that burnout is ... "a painful and debilitating response to work pressures, which child care workers immediately find familiar". (p.68 - underlining mine). Freudenberger (1977b) differentiates between how changes due to burnout are experienced by the employees as opposed to the employer. In writing the description of changes, given in the quotation, Freudenberger's description of how burnout would be experienced by a person in the process of burning out, was used as a guide. It was written in the first person in order to make it sound more real and to try to involve the subject on a feeling level. It is believed that

if burnout is in fact taking place, then a subject should find a subjective description of this, given by someone else, 'immediately familiar' and he should therefore be able to identify with that other person. For the purpose of this study, a score of 10 was taken to represent a state of 'total burnout', and a score of 0 taken as representing a state in which there was an absence of any burnout having taken place.

Added confidence for using this scale as a burnout measure was gained from a report on research conducted by Jackson (1975), in which it was found that the relative validity of scales prepared by naive item writers surpassed that of scales prepared using an external-empirical strategy. He did however, find that the scales prepared by the former were less free from desirability variance than the latter.

A copy of this self-rating scale, as presented, is included as Appendix D.

4.2.3 Manifest Burnout - rating by the Principal or person responsible for the in-service training.

To obtain the third measure of burnout, the supervisors of the houseparents in the home were given a definitive description of the burnout phenomenon and they were asked to rate each of their houseparents according to the degree, expressed as a percentage, to which they believed that the particular houseparent was burnt-out. The 'supervisor' could be the Principal or the Social Worker, and in some cases the Psychologist. The management/Principal was asked to have these ratings done by the person who has the closest day-to-day contact with the houseparents in a supervisory capacity. For the purposes of this research, 100% was taken as representing a state of 'total burnout', and 0% taken as representing a state in which there was a total absence of any burnout having taken place.

The definitive description that was given included a quotation from Freudenberger, a list of the 'distancing techniques' put forward by Maslach, and Maslach and Freudenberger's respective definitions. The point was also made, through a short quotation from Maslach, that the effects of burnout often generalise and are played out in relation to the staff member's own family and circle of friends. The quotation of Freudenberger is one in which he outlines how he has found it possible to recognise burnout in employees, and he takes the position that if the employer knows what to look for, the employer would be able to detect burnout. Freudenberger believes that the signs will always be there - "only slightly camouflaged". In this definitive description some of the possible signs to look for were given.

In order to aid the person doing the rating, the following instruction was also given:

Without trying to match characteristics or 'symptoms', point by point, I would like you to give a rating to each of your houseparents according to the degree or extent to which you believe that they may be "burnt-out" in terms of the more general 'state' or overall phenomenon described above. Remember that the techniques or strategies listed above are alternatives. A person may rely primarily on one, or on an elaborate combination of a few, in coping with the same degree of stress.

A copy of this scale, as presented, is included as Appendix E.

4.2.4 The Questionnaire - assessment of the Independent Variables.

In order to assess the situational variables and variables of personal characteristics applicable to each subject, the subjects were asked to complete a questionnaire. This covered all the situational variables and variables of personal characteristics that are related to burnout in the literature and which are believed to be relevant in the South African situation. The variables included tend to cluster around themes; viz. personal

characteristics, decision making power, role clarity, support systems, in-service training, task variety, breaks and time off, working conditions, living conditions and personal and job satisfaction.

The questionnaire was designed to elicit mainly yes or no type answers which would make delineation into two groups possible. Other questions would yield the type of data necessary for correlational analysis or purely descriptive statistics of the variables. It was estimated that the questionnaire, although 7 pages long, would take approximately 20 minutes to complete. 93 variables were represented.

A copy of this questionnaire, as presented, is included as Appendix B.

4.3 THE TESTING PROCEDURE.

Appointments were made to see each of the Principals of the 15 homes included in the study. The homes were then visited by the researcher over a 2 day period, and the Principals asked if their home would be prepared to participate in the research. Once they agreed to take part, they were asked to distribute the questionnaires to each of their houseparents and, if possible, to arrange for them to be ready for collection 48 hours later.* The questionnaires were collected over the third and fourth days (those distributed on the first day collected on the third etc.). In addition to this, the Principals were asked to have the houseparents rated by their 'supervisor' on the separate scale provided.

The reason for the prompt collection of the questionnaires was given in terms of the necessity for a high response rate. In order not to be drawn into a discussion about the aims of the

* The researcher is well known to most of the Principals, having served on committees with them. The requests were therefore more positively received than if he were a stranger to them.

research, a short bibliography on burnout was provided with the descriptive definition given to them and they were referred to it. (A copy of this bibliography is included as Appendix F). As the findings of this research could be of interest/value to the managements of these homes, they were informed that they would receive feedback on the findings in due course, either in the form of a report sent directly to them, or as a publication in the house journal of the National Association of Child Care Workers.

The individual houseparents were invited to participate in the research by means of a covering letter attached to the questionnaire. In this letter a brief statement of some of the reasons for the research was given. They were told that it would take approximately 30 minutes to complete both sections of the questionnaire and anonymity was assured. (A copy of this letter is included as Appendix A).

In order to ensure anonymity and to allow the houseparents to feel free to answer the questions as honestly as possible, they were asked not to give their names on the questionnaire. It was necessary, however, to be able to match their questionnaire and burnout ratings with the rating given by their 'supervisor', so a code system was used. Each questionnaire was marked with a code number and on the 'supervisor's' rating sheet there were three columns. In the first he was to write the houseparent's name, in the second the code number, and in the third he was to give his rating. They were asked to distribute the questionnaires according to the code corresponding to the name on this sheet, and the houseparents were then to be rated according to name. After the rating had been completed, and sometime before the questionnaires were collected, the 'supervisor' was asked to cut out the first column containing the names and this was to be destroyed.

Only houseparents who were employed full-time in their positions and who had the ongoing responsibility for a single family unit were invited to participate. Relief houseparents were therefore excluded from the sample.

4.4 THE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA.

The research hypotheses, restated as a series of hypotheses in the null form, were tested with the aid of a computer to calculate the necessary statistics. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS - ICL 1900 implementation; University of Nottingham: release 3, November 1980) was used with sub-programs: CONDESCRIPTIVE, T-TFST Groups & Pairs, PEARSON CORR. and SCATTERGRAM called.

Due to the exploratory nature of the research, 2-tailed tests of significance were used unless otherwise specified in reporting results. This differs from the Thompson study where 1-tailed tests were mostly used. In line with the Thompson study the same significance criteria were set. A p value of .05 or less was taken as being significant, while a p value greater than .05 but less than or equal to .10 was regarded as a "trend". The use of 2-tailed tests had the effect of raising the significance criteria to a level above those used by Thompson but this was considered to be desirable. In addition to being exploratory, this research had an applied aspect. As future management and structural decisions could be based on significant findings, the possibility of making Type 1 errors is important and 2-tailed tests would be more conservative in this regard.

The burnout scores yielded by the scales used in this study are not absolute measures but merely scores to enable comparison. For the purpose of the research, however, they were assumed to have 'interval' status (a fairly common assumption made in social science research). This assumption was more difficult to make in the case of the 'supervisor's' rating where having 15 different persons rating could mean that 15 sets of criteria are used. It is for this reason that both correlational and variance analysis were performed when the 3 scales were compared. If the different sets of criteria did not differ markedly then the correlational analysis would suffice, however, should they differ, then the variance analysis would be effected to a lesser extent.

The different null hypotheses were tested using the test statistic most appropriate in each individual case. The test used will be specified when the result is reported. Those linked to the first research hypothesis, ie. concerned with the relatedness of the 3 measures, were tested using Pearson correlations and t-tests for pairs. Those linked to the second, ie. concerned with the start-to-stop changes on the 16 adjectives, were tested using t-tests for pairs. Those linked to the third, ie. concerned with the relationship of the independent variables and burnout, were tested using mostly t-tests for groups but parametric correlation studies were also performed where appropriate.

The hypothesised relationships between the IVs and burnout were tested using each of the 3 burnout measures independently, and the data was also analysed for males and females separately. This was due to Thompson's reported finding of "profound sex differences". As mentioned previously, descriptive statistics were also calculated in order to aid the interpretation.

PART FIVE.

THE RESULTS.

5.1 RESULTS IN RELATION TO ADMINISTRATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES.

The 15 homes included in the study all agreed to participate and they were found to have full-time paid* posts for 83 houseparents. The response rate was 98.4% with 78.3% of the population sampled. The breakdown of these results is given in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1. BREAKDOWN OF RESULTS OF THE SAMPLING PROCEDURE.

Number of posts	83	
Unfilled posts	<u>11</u>	13.3 %
Number of posts filled	72	86.7 %
Number away ill**	<u>7</u>	9.7 %
Number sampled	65	78.3 %
Questionnaire not returned***	<u>1</u>	1.5 %
Number of questionnaires returned	64	98.5 %
Excluded (spoilt questionnaire)	<u>1</u>	1.6 %
Number of subjects	63	
Number of men in sample	<u>9</u>	14.3 %
Number of women in sample	54	85.7 %

** In hospital or with family/friends recuperating.

*** Reason given - felt too threatened by it. However, it was received in the post after the results had been processed.

The Principals had been asked to have the 'supervisor' rating done by the person who has the most day-to-day contact with the houseparents in a supervisory capacity. It was found that in 12 of the 15 homes this was done by the Principal himself and in the other 3 it was done by the home's Social Worker. In 3 instances, the Principals expressed reservations about rating their staff in terms of burnout for fear that actually admitting to the existence of burnout amongst their staff could "put the good name of their home in a bad light" (as one Principal explained).

* The Nuns working in full-time houseparent posts, while not paid, were regarded as meeting the criteria for inclusion.

They asked for the assurance of anonymity with respect to their home's name, and this assurance was given. The short time period allowed for completion of questionnaires did not pose any serious problems. In 9 cases the questionnaires were ready and waiting and in the other 6 the researcher had to wait for up to 30 minutes.

The length of the questionnaires did not appear to be problematic. There were very few missing answers and just on half of the questionnaires had additional comments written in the margins etc. While most of these additional comments were explanations of the responses given, there were many comments relating to information which the subject possibly felt that the researcher might find useful. In a few instances additional questions were suggested.

A possible oversight in the testing procedure was that the subjects were not specifically asked to work independently. Evidence of collaboration was detected in three of the questionnaires completed.

5.2 RESULTS IN RELATION TO THE POPULATION SAMPLED.

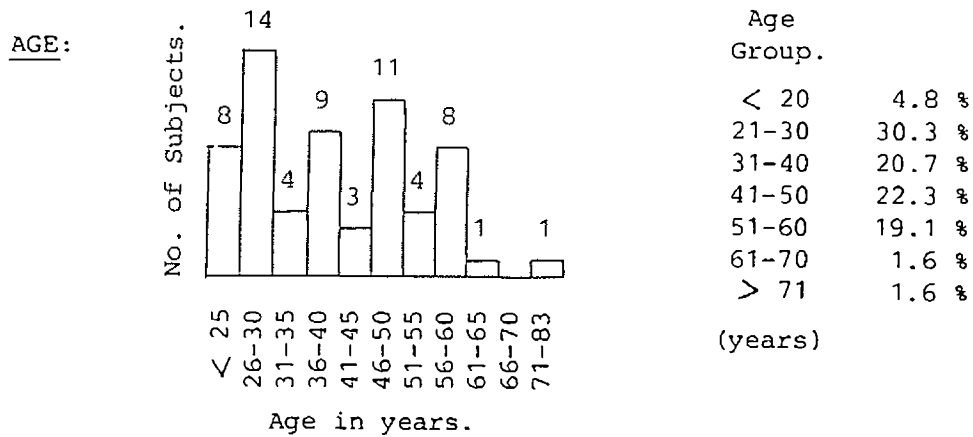
Characteristics of the population of houseparents sampled are given in Tables 2, 3 and 4 below.

TABLE 2.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS.

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mode</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Range</u>	
Age.	40.3	39.8	26.0	14.1	18 - 83	years.
Gross monthly salary.	291	285	250	131.6	0 - 570	R - p.m.
Gross monthly family income.	564	420	395	476.6	0 - 2000	R - p.m.
Length of service.	42.3	15.5	12.0	52.2	1 - 185	months.
Length of previous service in similar positions (if any).	76.0	54.0	6.0	56.1	6 - 192	months.
Number of years out of school before starting in present position.	20.4	18.2	8.0	13.8	0 - 48	years.
Length of post-school training (where applicable).	2.6	2.5	1.0	1.5	1 - 7	years.

TABLE 3. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTIC DISTRIBUTIONS.

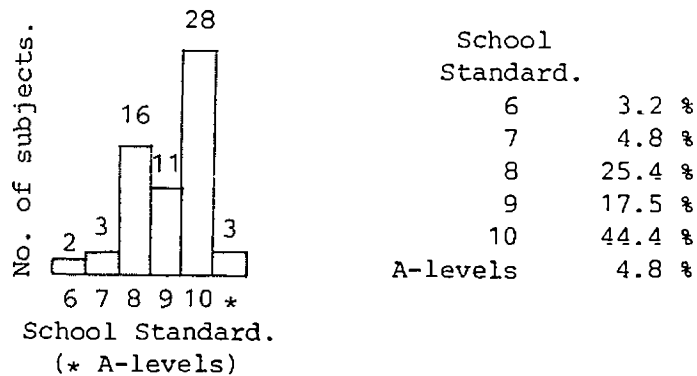


SEX: Males 14.3 % Females 85.7 %

MARITAL STATUS: Married 42.9 % Single 30.2 %
Widowed 17.5 %
Divorced 9.5 %
No spouse 57.2 %

NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN 1 - 9.5 % 2 - 20.6 % 3 - 19.0 %
LIVING WITH SUBJECTS: 4 - 7.9 % 5 - 3.2 % 0 - 39.7 %

HIGHEST STANDARD ATTAINED AT SCHOOL:



POST-SCHOOL TRAINING/STUDY:

None	41.3 %
Specific technical	11.1 %
Specific non-technical	7.9 %
Theological	12.7 %
Nursing	6.3 %
Working towards degree	4.8 %
University degree	3.2 %
Residential Child Care part-time course	12.7 %

TABLE 3. (Continued)CAREER ASPIRATIONS/IDEAL OCCUPATION:

Clinical psychologist or social worker.	11.1 %
Nursing.	14.3 %
Teaching.	12.7 %
"Anything called to by God".	9.5 %
Present position.	20.6 %
Other - various.	31.8 %

TABLE 4.FAMILY UNIT SIZE.

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mode</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Range</u>
Number of home children per family unit.	14.1	9.8	9	7.8	6 - 34
Number considered as the ideal.	10.5	8.3	8	6.6	5 - 30

5.3 RESULTS IN RELATION TO THE FIRST RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS - H_1 .

It was hypothesised that for each subject the three independent measures of burnout would be related in some significant way. The results do not confirm the expectation that they would be positively correlated, nor do they confirm the expectation that if two groups were delineated according to high versus low levels of burnout as measured on the one scale, then the variance of the means for the scores of these two groups on each of the other measures, could be attributable to more than just the effects of chance operating.

The coefficients of correlation found for the three burnout measures are presented in Table 5 below.

TABLE 5. PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF THE THREE INDEPENDENT MEASURES OF BURNOUT.

'B Adj.'	--		
'B Self'	.12 (NS)	--	
'B Prin.'	.07 (NS)	.15 (NS)	--
	'B Adj.'	'B Self'	'B Prin.'

(NS) - Non-significant.

The t - values obtained from the series of t-tests for groups that was performed are given in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6. t-VALUES OF THE 'T-TESTS FOR GROUPS' PERFORMED ON THE VARIANCE OF THE THREE BURNOUT MEASURES.

'B ADJ.' VARIANCE.

<u>Group</u>	<u>n=</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-val</u>	<u>p</u>
'B Self' score > 45.	23	-1.0	34.1	.66	NS
'B Self' score < 45.	40	-5.3	20.3		
'B Self' score > 60.	16	-2.6	25.1	.20	NS
'B Self' score < 60.	47	-4.0	24.8		
'B Prin.' score > 40.	24	-0.4	30.8	.95	NS
'B Prin.' score < 40.	36	-6.8	20.7		
'B Prin.' score > 55.	12	-3.6	36.4	.10	NS
'B Prin.' score < 55.	48	-4.4	22.1		

'B SELF' VARIANCE.

<u>Group</u>	<u>n=</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-val</u>	<u>p</u>
'B Prin.' score > 40.	24	38.1	28.8	.93	NS
'B Prin.' score < 40.	36	31.4	24.9		
'B Prin.' score > 55.	12	39.6	23.6	.87	NS
'B Prin.' score < 55.	48	32.8	27.3		

'B PRIN.' VARIANCE.

<u>Group</u>	<u>n=</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-val</u>	<u>p</u>
'B Self' score > 45.	23	36.9	25.8	1.0	NS
'B Self' score < 45.	37	30.4	22.3		
'B Self' score > 60.	16	33.4	26.9	.10	NS
'B Self' score < 60.	44	32.7	22.8		

(NS) - non-significant.

-
- 'B Adj.' refers to the measure obtained from the 16 adjective check-list.
 'B Self' refers to the measure obtained from the self-rating scale completed by the houseparents.
 'B Prin.' refers to the measure obtained from the burnout rating given by the houseparent's supervisor (found to be the Principal in most instances).

The basic descriptive statistics of the three measures are given in Table 7 below.

TABLE 7. BASIC DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE THREE BURNOUT MEASURES.

<u>Measure</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mode</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Range</u>
'B Adj.'	-3.71	-3.25	26.0	24.7	-70 - +88 (158)
'B Self'	33.44	29.11	0.0	26.1	0 - 90 (90)
'B Prin.'	32.90	30.21	10.0	23.7	0 - 100 (100)

5.4 RESULTS IN RELATION TO THE SECOND RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS - H₂.

It was hypothesised that the stresses inherent in the houseparent's role would give rise to a significant change in the start - stop responses for each of the 16 adjectives presented. The t - values obtained from the series of t-tests for pairs that was performed are given in Tables 8 and 9 below, for the women and the men subjects respectively. In Table 10, the overall results are presented in summary form.

In Tables 8 and 9, the means and standard deviation (SD) for the start and stop responses for each of the 16 adjectives is given. The positive adjectives marked with an asterisk (*) were scored in reverse for the overall scale but the means and SDs are shown here without reverse scoring. The t - value takes the reverse scoring into account. The p values for both 1-tail and 2-tail t-tests for pairs is given with a dash (--) representing non-significant t - values. In the X and Y columns, SIG., stands for statistically significant; "tr", stands for "trend" towards being statistically significant; and a p value in brackets signifies the level of significance that could have been ascribed if the sign had been positive*. In the Z column, the start - stop changes, on an adjective, found to be statistically significant and in the direction predicted are marked with a (P). Start - refers to how the houseparent recalls feeling when he or she started in the position. Stop - refers to present feelings on each dimension.

* Although a 1-tail test only relates to the positive tail, these bracketed p values are given for the purpose of comparison with the Thompson study - this will be discussed in Part 6.

TABLE 8. t-VALUES OF CHANGES IN START - STOP RESPONSES ON THE
16 ADJECTIVES - FOR WOMEN.

WOMEN n = 54.

	Mean	SD	t-val.	Significance				
				1-tail	2-tail			
				X col.	Y col.	Z col.		
CONFUSED								
Start	5.15	2.90						
Stop	3.17	2.61	-4.04	p= --	(.005)	p=.01	SIG.	
DEPRESSED								
Start	3.85	3.08						
Stop	3.15	2.55	-1.37	p= --	(.10)	p= --	--	
UPTIGHT								
Start	3.76	2.85						
Stop	3.19	2.48	-1.29	p= --	--	p= --	--	
ENERGETIC*								
Start	8.37	2.12						
Stop	7.06	2.41	3.22	p=.005	SIG.	p=.01	SIG.	(P)
DEPENDABLE*								
Start	7.44	2.82						
Stop	8.02	2.49	-1.63	p= --	(.10)	p= --	--	
CYNICAL								
Start	2.67	2.30						
Stop	3.28	2.60	1.73	p=.05	SIG.	p=.10	"tr"	(P)
BORED								
Start	1.48	1.12						
Stop	1.85	1.98	1.55	p=.10	"tr"	p= --	--	
COMMITTED*								
Start	8.04	2.46						
Stop	8.46	2.33	-1.85	p= --	(.05)	p=.10	"tr"	
HAPPY*								
Start	7.11	2.77						
Stop	7.74	2.34	-2.11	p= --	(.025)	p=.05	SIG.	
EMOTIONALLY*								
HEALTHY								
Start	7.91	2.78						
Stop	8.22	2.14	-1.08	p= --	--	p= --	--	
PHYSICALLY*								
HEALTHY								
Start	8.70	2.32						
Stop	8.17	2.38	2.55	p=.01	SIG.	p=.02	SIG.	(P)
ANGRY								
Start	2.83	2.21						
Stop	3.46	2.67	1.65	p=.10	"tr"	p= --	--	
OVERWORKED								
Start	5.04	3.17						
Stop	5.20	2.87	0.34	p= --	--	p= --	--	
EFFECTIVE*								
Start	5.52	2.64						
Stop	7.04	2.04	-4.32	p= --	(.005)	p=.01	SIG.	
TIRED								
Start	5.13	3.43						
Stop	5.65	2.48	0.91	p= --	--	p= --	--	
CONFIDENT*								
Start	6.00	2.74						
Stop	7.56	2.48	-3.72	p= --	(.005)	p=.01	SIG.	

TABLE 9. t-VALUES OF CHANGES IN START - STOP RESPONSES ON THE
16 ADJECTIVES - FOR MEN.

MEN n = 9.

	Mean	SD	t-val.	Significance			
				1-tail	2-tail		
				X col.	Y col.	Z col.	
CONFUSED							
Start	5.00	3.12					
Stop	3.44	2.51	-1.90	p= --	(.05)	p=.10	"tr"
DEPRESSED							
Start	4.00	2.57					
Stop	4.11	2.61	0.15	p= --	--	p= --	--
UPTIGHT							
Start	3.67	2.41					
Stop	4.00	2.85	0.49	p= --	--	p= --	--
ENERGETIC*							
Start	7.22	2.31					
Stop	6.89	2.23	0.40	p= --	--	p= --	--
DEPENDABLE*							
Start	7.67	2.69					
Stop	8.33	3.10	-1.51	p= --	(.10)	p= --	--
CYNICAL							
Start	3.33	2.27					
Stop	5.11	2.71	2.14	p=.025	SIG.	p=.05	SIG. (P)
BORED							
Start	1.89	1.10					
Stop	3.89	1.22	1.92	p=.05	SIG.	p=.10	"tr" (P)
COMMITTED*							
Start	7.22	2.77					
Stop	7.11	2.93	0.15	p= --	--	p= --	--
HAPPY*							
Start	8.00	2.97					
Stop	6.78	2.61	1.61	p=.10	"tr"	p= --	--
EMOTIONALLY*							
HEALTHY							
Start	7.44	2.77					
Stop	7.78	2.57	-1.00	p= --	--	p= --	--
PHYSICALLY*							
HEALTHY							
Start	8.22	2.68					
Stop	7.00	2.51	2.82	p=.025	SIG.	p=.05	SIG. (P)
ANGRY							
Start	3.33	2.11					
Stop	3.78	2.27	1.51	p=.10	"tr"	p= --	--
OVERWORKED							
Start	5.89	2.51					
Stop	7.00	2.73	1.38	p= --	--	p= --	--
EFFECTIVE*							
Start	6.22	2.59					
Stop	7.00	2.80	-0.94	p= --	--	p= --	--
TIRED							
Start	5.44	2.49					
Stop	7.89	2.69	1.75	p=.10	"tr"	p= --	--
CONFIDENT*							
Start	5.11	2.41					
Stop	6.00	2.58	-1.02	p= --	--	p= --	--

TABLE 10. SUMMARY OF THE CHANGES IN START - STOP RESPONSES ON THE
16 ADJECTIVES.

	<u>WOMEN</u>	<u>MEN</u>
<u>With a 1-tailed test performed.</u>		
Total number of significant t-values with the sign ignored and $p < .10$.	12	8
Total number of significant t-values falling in the +ve tail and $p < .10$.	5	6
Total number of significant t-values falling in the +ve tail and $p < .05$.	3	3
<u>With a 2-tailed test performed.</u>		
Total number of significant t-values in predicted direction or not, $p < .05$.	6	2
Total number of significant t-values in the predicted direction, $p < .05$.	2	2

The adjectives showing significant start - stop changes in the predicted direction are Energetic and Physically Healthy, in the case of women. (Or Energetic, Physically Healthy and Cynical with a 1-tail test.) In the case of men, the adjectives are Cynical and Physically Healthy (and Bored with a 1-tail test), however, in this instance the low number of subjects ($n=9$) would put the validity of this finding in question.

The adjectives showing significant start - stop changes in the direction opposite to that predicted are Confused, Happy, Effective, and Confident in the case of women. There are none in the case of men.

5.5 RESULTS IN RELATION TO THE THIRD RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS - H_3 .

It was hypothesised that for each of the situational variables or variables of personal characteristics (the Independent Variables - I.V.s) there would be a relationship to the burnout scores obtained (the Dependent Variable - D.V.) of the form predicted from the literature.

For some of these variables it was expected that, if groups were delineated according to response given to an I.V. question, then the variance of the burnout score means for each of these groups would be statistically significant, or show a "trend" towards such significance ie. greater than if only chance were operating. The low number of men subjects (n=9) did not permit the statistical analysis of their data and the results given in this section are for women (n=54). The t-values obtained from the series of t-tests for groups that was performed are given in Table 11 below.

In Table 11, for each of the independent burnout measures obtained ('B Adj.', 'B Self' and 'B Prin. '), the t-value is given in the first column, the 2-tail p value in the second, and in the third, SIG. stands for statistically significant ($p < .05$) and "tr" stands for "trend" towards significance ($p < .10$). A dash (--) represents non-significance.

The means, standard deviation and number of subjects for each I.V. group are not included in Table 11 but are given in Appendix G. In each of the third columns on Table 11, the position of the asterisk signifies which group showed the higher burnout mean. An asterisk in the top right hand corner would indicate that it was the first group (eg. SIG.*) and one in the bottom right hand corner would indicate that it was the second group (eg. "tr" *). Where the significance symbol is underlined (eg. SIG.), this indicates that the finding is concordant with the prediction from the literature. Where it is encased (eg. "tr") the finding is in the direction opposite to which the literature would suggest. A t-value which

TABLE 11. RESULTS INDICATING WHICH INDEPENDENT VARIABLE GROUP
SHOWED THE HIGHER BURNOUT.

Q	GROUPS	'B ADJ.'			'B SELF'			'B PRIN.'		
		t-VAL	p	SIG.	t-VAL	p	SIG.	t-VAL	p	SIG.
Q1	Age > 40 years. Age < 40 years.	0.71	--	--	-0.22	--	--	-0.63	--	--
Q3	Marital Status - single. Marital Status - Married.	-0.06	--	--	-1.96	.06	"tr"	0.73	--	--
Q5	Have child/children of own. No children of own.	-0.20	--	--	1.82	.08	"tr"	-0.84	--	--
Q9	Length of service > 36 months. Length of service < 36 months.	0.10	--	--	-0.36	--	--	0.10	--	--
Q10	Worked as houseparent previously. Not worked as houseparent before.	-1.34	--	--	-1.67	--	--	0.08	--	--
Q20	Ideal number for unit > 9. Ideal number for unit < 9.	0.34	--	--	1.46	--	--	-1.43	--	--
Q21	Decide on admission into unit. Management decides on admission.	-1.93	.07	"tr"	-0.33	--	--	-1.22	--	--
Q22	Confidence in management decision. No confidence in their decision.	1.12	--	--	1.73	.09	"tr"	-3.17	.003	SIG.
Q23	Attend case conferences. Do not attend case conferences.	2.20	.04	SIG.	-0.14	--	--	0.70	--	--
Q24	Attend management meetings. Do not attend management meetings.	-0.08	--	--	0.24	--	--	-0.19	--	--
Q25	Have access to meeting minutes. No access to meeting minutes.	0.55	--	--	0.49	--	--	-0.83	--	--
Q26	Encouraged in own natural style. Adhere to prescribed routines.	-2.36	.02	SIG.	-1.56	--	--	-0.65	--	--
Q27	Make own rules for unit. Rule making centralised.	1.78	.08	"tr"	0.44	--	--	1.06	--	--
Q28	Responsible for punishment. Punishment centralised.	1.20	--	--	0.59	--	--	-0.84	--	--
Q29	Children active in running home. Children take passive role.	0.27	--	--	-1.39	--	--	0.29	--	--
Q30	Children have input into policy. No input into policy by children.	-1.33	--	--	0.55	--	--	-0.06	--	--
Q31	Have input into policy decisions. No input into policy decisions.	-1.40	--	--	-0.26	--	--	-2.60	.01	SIG.
Q32	Management is the "taskmaster". Self the "taskmaster".	-0.22	--	--	-0.09	--	--	-1.09	--	--
Q33	Clear concept of expectations. Not sure what is expected.	-1.94	.06	"tr"	-1.33	--	--	-1.91	.08	"tr"
Q34	See role as therapeutic. See role as custodial.	0.69	--	--	-3.96	.000	SIG.	0.27	--	--
Q35	More competent - therapeutic role. More competent - custodial role.	0.41	--	--	-3.07	.004	SIG.	-0.27	--	--
Q36	Experience role conflict. Do not experience role conflict.	-2.06	.04	SIG.	-0.49	--	--	3.49	.002	SIG.
Q37	Trust between self & management. No relationship of trust.	0.00	--	--	-1.62	--	--	-2.76	.025	SIG.
Q38a	Most "strokes" from colleagues. Most "strokes" from management.	0.36	--	--	-1.39	--	--	1.05	--	--
Q38b	Most "strokes" from children. Most "strokes" from management.	-0.46	--	--	-0.62	--	--	1.25	--	--
Q39	See positive results of work. Do not see positive results.	-0.61	--	--	1.29	--	--	1.21	--	--
Q40	Expect success with > 40% child'n. Expect success with < 40% child'n.	-2.36	.03	SIG.	-1.21	--	--	-1.71	.10	"tr"
Q41	Housekeeping > 4 hours per day. Housekeeping < 4 hours per day.	0.26	--	--	1.94	.06	"tr"	1.46	--	--
Q45	Self development in other fields. No self development outside.	-0.48	--	--	-2.36	.03	SIG.	-0.43	--	--

TABLE 11. (Continued)

Q	GROUPS	'B ADJ.'			'B SELF'			'B PRIN.'		
		t-VAL	p	SIG.	t-VAL	p	SIG.	t-VAL	p	SIG.
Q46	Pursue active hobby. Do not pursue active hobby.	-1.90	.06	"tr"	-0.90	--	--	-1.11	--	--
Q47	Partake of regular exercise. Do not take regular exercise.	-0.54	--	--	-1.83	.07	"tr"	-1.78	.08	"tr"
Q49	Prepare meals. Do not prepare meals.	0.36	--	--	0.40	--	--	0.35	--	--
Q51	Accommodation - private flat. Accommodation - room only.	-0.15	--	--	1.74	.09	"tr"	-2.60	.01	SIG.
Q52	Days off - more than 6 per month. Days off - less than 6 per month.	-0.79	--	--	-0.37	--	--	-3.76	.000	SIG.
Q53	Full quota of time-off taken. Not all time-off taken.	-1.12	--	--	-0.61	--	--	-1.90	.07	"tr"
Q54	Most time-off - away from the home. Most time-off - in the home.	0.11	--	--	0.74	--	--	-0.47	--	--
Q56	Full quota of leave taken. Not all leave taken.	-2.56	.01	SIG.	-4.00	.002	SIG.	-2.44	.04	SIG.
Q57	Leave split over the year. Leave taken all together.	-3.17	.003	SIG.	-0.59	--	--	0.72	--	--
Q58a	Leave - unplanned trips. Leave - with family/friends.	-4.50	.006	SIG.	0.59	--	--	9.20	.000	SIG.
Q58b	Leave - away from home. Leave - at home/with home child'n.	3.28	.01	SIG.	1.06	--	--	-0.85	--	--
Q59	Leave - allowance/alt. accom. Leave - no alt. accom./allowance.	1.45	--	--	0.25	--	--	-0.08	--	--
Q60	Time-off frequently messed around. Time-off seldom messed around.	1.97	.06	"tr"	-1.13	--	--	3.98	.001	SIG.
Q61	Days off when over-stressed. No days off when over-stressed.	-0.24	--	--	-3.15	.003	SIG.	-3.49	.002	SIG.
Q62	Extra hours off when stressed. No extra hours off when stressed.	-0.01	--	--	-0.74	--	--	-2.23	.04	SIG.
Q65	Extra duties - role variety. No role variety.	1.31	--	--	0.06	--	--	2.48	.06	"tr"
Q66	Liason activities. No liason activities.	-0.51	--	--	-2.24	.03	SIG.	2.81	.007	SIG.
Q68	<u>Form in-service training takes:</u>									
a	Attend lectures outside home. Do not attend outside lectures.	1.23	--	--	1.76	.09	"tr"	0.75	--	--
b	Lectures given in the home. No lectures given in the home.	-1.86	.07	"tr"	-0.68	--	--	0.66	--	--
c	In 'personal growth' group. No 'personal growth' group.	-1.56	--	--	0.22	--	--	0.29	--	--
d	Regular individual supervision. No individual supervision.	-0.34	--	--	1.86	.07	"tr"	0.77	--	--
Q72	Training confrontative. Training not confrontative.	0.02	--	--	1.54	--	--	1.52	--	--
Q76	Frequent contact - nat. parents. Minimal contact - nat. parents.	0.39	--	--	-1.67	--	--	-0.75	--	--
Q77	Frequent contact - host parents. Minimal contact - host parents.	-1.11	--	--	-1.11	--	--	-0.99	--	--
Q78	Weekly/daily serious crises. Seldom - serious crises.	0.89	--	--	0.36	--	--	0.49	--	--
Q79	Organising creates anxiety. Organising - anxiety free.	1.56	.005	SIG.	-0.94	--	--	-0.79	--	--
Q82	Similar experiences in own past. Experiences different in own past.	-3.65	.003	SIG.	0.87	--	--	2.23	.03	SIG.

is underlined with a dotted line is one where there were less than 10 subjects in one of the groups and the finding, for this parametric test, may therefore not be reliable.

In the table only brief descriptions of the variable groups are used. For a more complete understanding of the variable under consideration, these would have to be read in conjunction with the actual question asked. The number of the question is included in the table in order that the questionnaire (Appendix B) may be consulted.

The responses on some of the questions did not allow separation of the data into contrasting groups for analysis and these variables are not included in the table. The variables not included were where there were less than 5 subjects in one of the groups and they are given below:

- Q63 Time off to attend conferences, outside lectures etc.
(96.4% reported attending.)
- Q74 Think that more children should be on medication.
(96.4% answered no.)
- Q75 Own use of medication to cope emotionally.
(92.3% reported non-use of such.)
- Q81 Job Compatability.
(92.3% reported interests, skills, abilities and needs to be compatible with their job.)
- Q83 A fulfilling life prior to taking the position.
(98.4% reported having had such.)
- Q84 A fulfilling life outside now.
(92.3% reported having such.)
- Q85 Feel fulfilled in their role at present.
(94.4% reported feeling fulfilled.)

It was also expected that there would be a correlation between different values of some of the I.V.s and burnout. The coefficients (r-values) of the Pearson Product Moment correlations performed are given in Table 12* below.

* This table has a similar format to Table 11 and the Legend is the same.

TABLE 12. RESULTS INDICATING WHICH INDEPENDENT VARIABLES WERE FOUND TO CORRELATE WITH BURNOUT.

Q	VARIABLES ACROSS WITH VARIABLES DOWN.	n=	'B ADJ.'			'B SELF'			'B PRIN.'		
			r-VAL	p	SIG.	r-VAL	p	SIG.	r-VAL	p	SIG.
Q1	Age.	54	-0.01	--	--	-0.03	--	--	-0.04	--	--
Q6	Gross monthly salary.	50	-0.31	.03	SIG.	0.17	--	--	0.01	--	--
Q8	Family monthly income.	44	-0.26	.09	"tr"	0.29	.05	SIG.	0.16	--	--
Q9	Length of service.	54	-0.04	--	--	0.04	--	--	-0.00	--	--
Q11	Length of previous service.	18	0.36	--	--	-0.01	--	--	-0.50	.06	"tr"
Q12	Level of schooling.	54	-0.09	--	--	-0.29	.03	SIG.	0.14	--	--
Q13	Post-school training.	32	0.09	--	--	0.05	--	--	-0.07	--	--
Q14	Gap from school-houseparent.	54	0.04	--	--	0.10	--	--	-0.03	--	--
Q17	Number of children in unit.	54	0.17	--	--	0.17	--	--	-0.16	--	--
Q18a	Number - teenage boys.	31	-0.04	--	--	0.32	.08	"tr"	-0.07	--	--
Q18b	Number - teenage girls.	37	0.31	.06	"tr"	-0.04	--	--	-0.21	--	--
Q18c	Number - pre-teen boys.	42	-0.15	--	--	-0.01	--	--	0.09	--	--
Q18d	Number - pre-teen girls.	32	-0.04	--	--	-0.09	--	--	-0.40	.03	SIG.
Q19	Turnover of children.	54	0.16	--	--	0.14	--	--	-0.29	.04	SIG.
Q20	Ideal number for unit.	54	0.06	--	--	0.19	--	--	-0.22	--	--
Q40	Expected rate of success.	35	-0.42	.01	SIG.	-0.27	--	--	-0.30	.08	"tr"
Q41	Length of working day.	54	0.01	--	--	-0.14	--	--	-0.25	.07	"tr"
Q42	Hours - without child contact.	54	0.17	--	--	-0.03	--	--	-0.23	.10	"tr"
Q44	Hours - spent on self.	53	-0.01	--	--	-0.25	.07	"tr"	-0.23	--	--
Q55	Number of days - annual leave.	54	-0.04	--	--	-0.09	--	--	-0.01	--	--
Q70	Number of opportunities afforded - in-service training.	52	-0.02	--	--	0.06	--	--	0.01	--	--

In Tables 13 and 14, various descriptive statistics are given which aided the interpretation of results or which contribute towards an understanding of them.

Table 13. ESTABLISHED MEANS FOR SOME OF THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES.

	Mean	SD	Range	Min.	Max.
Annual leave granted. (working days.)	27.6	7.0	26	14	40
Length of working day. (hours)	15.7	5.3	16	8	24
Length of time without child contact. (hours per day.)	5.9	3.0	9	0	9
Length of time spent on self. (hours per day.)	1.9	1.8	12	0	12
Length of time spent in in-service training (hours per week.)	2.3	1.4	7	0	7
Number of 'necessary opportunities' afforded by training & meetings. (out of 22 maximum.)	10.7	6.3	22	0	22

TABLE 14. DISTRIBUTION OF - THE FORM IN-SERVICE TRAINING TAKES.*

	n=	%
A course of lectures given outside the home.	45	71.4
Lectures on various aspects of child care given in the home.	43	68.3
A regular group aimed at facilitating personal growth.	21	33.3
Regular individual supervision by Psychologist, Social Worker etc.	24	38.1
Hearing the way to go about things in staff meetings.	38	60.3
Informal chats to the other houseparents.	49	77.8
Self training - learning from personal experience.	55	87.3

* The alternate forms are not exclusive and the distribution is as reported by houseparents. This result is for men and women combined.

PART SIX.

THE DISCUSSION.

The present study was in essence a replication of the Thompson study into the phenomenon of burnout. The purpose was to discover whether this line of exploratory burnout research could, at present, offer any guidelines in the resolution of the current staffing crisis faced by South African children's homes. It had the additional aims of extending both the range and validity of Thompson's findings and of investigating the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument used.

The aims of this research were achieved through the testing of three research hypotheses. Before the results in relation to these are discussed, the results in relation to the administration of questionnaires and the population sampled are considered.

6.1 THE ADMINISTRATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES AND THE POPULATION SAMPLED.

The measures taken to ensure a high response rate proved to be effective. Thompson made the suggestion that the 68% non-responders in his sample were probably more burnt-out (more cynical, angry or overwhelmed) than the responders. If this were the case, it would have introduced a bias. The 98.5% response rate in the present study would exclude the possibility of such bias.

The number of subjects ($n=63$) fell short of the expected sample size ($n=100$). The original estimate of the total number of houseparent posts was upset by the fact that the mean number of children per family unit was higher than expected (mean=14.1, SD=7.8, mode=9, and a 34 maximum in the range). The 13.3% unfilled posts and the 9.7% away ill were also slightly higher than expected. While the former could be taken as evidence of the staff shortage faced by these homes, in relation to the latter, it is of interest to note that illness is related to burnout and stress in the literature. (Questioning the principals informally, the most common illness causing the houseparents to be away was given as Jaundice.) The sample size was considered to be adequate for the Pearson Corre-

lation and the t-Test for pairs statistical tests. In the case of the t-Test for groups, however, the small number of men (n=9) precluded the data for men from being analysed. The number of women subjects (n=54) tended towards being on the low side. In the case of women, the original intention had been to have at least 30 subjects in each group (delineated according to response given). The fact that there were very few missing answers, however, prevented this problem from becoming a serious one.

The populations of houseparents sampled in the respective studies differed most notably in respect of the mean age of houseparents and the level of educational attainment. The mean age in the American sample of 26 years contrasted with the South African mean of 40.3 years (SD=14.1) and although the local mode is 26 years, 64.9% of the South African houseparents fell into the 30 years plus age group. The finding that in the American sample 73% of the houseparents had at least a bachelors degree contrasted with the local figure of 3.2%. In fact, 50.9% of the South African houseparents had less than a Standard 10 school leaving certificate. It is evident that houseparents in the South African sample tended to be both older and less educated than their American counterparts.

Together with the higher mean age, the length of time houseparents had been out of school before starting in their present positions was also considerably higher (mean=20.4 years, SD=13.8). This contrasts with the mean of 2 years in the American sample and it could suggest that in the local situation houseparenting is less likely to be seen as a career in itself, or that it is more likely to be seen as a second career.

The mean lengths of service in the 2 samples are comparable when the median of 15.5 and the mode of 12 months are considered in relation to the American mean of 13 months. The South African mean of 42.3 months is inflated by the upper limit of the range (185 months maximum) which applies to a few of the houseparents.

The mean length of post-school training (mean=2.6 years, mode=1.0), for the 58.7% of the houseparents who had undergone any at all, was considered to be low when seen in relation to the fact that in 58.7% of the career aspirations expressed, a period of 3 years would be the minimum time required to obtain the necessary qualification (or a formal qualification in the case of residential child care). This finding could suggest that the low minimum entry qualification is an attractive feature of the houseparent role.

By way of a general comparison, the mean income per couple of \$7,000 per annum and the mean family income of R6,768 per annum in the local sample would suggest that in both populations the role of houseparent is a poorly paid one. A more accurate or detailed comparison would have to take into account the respective cost-of-living indexes which apply.

It would be difficult to draw up a profile of the 'average' South African houseparent as the population sampled was heterogeneous with regard to most of the variables considered. In most instances the range and SD were found to be large. One burnout related factor in relation to which the 2 samples could differ markedly is level of expectations. Older, less well educated subjects in the South African sample who enter this poorly paid role at a stage of life in which they would not be regarded as being in the process of embarking on a future career, could be considered to have lower levels of expectation than their American counterparts. The suggested attractiveness of the low minimum entry qualifications for the role and the fact that only 12.7% of the houseparents had undergone post-school training in the specific field of residential child care would lend support to this assumption of lower level of expectations.

6.2 THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS USED.

Thompson made the suggestion that the 16 adjective check-list he used was "a useful measure of burnout" (1980, p.712). He based this on the fact that "a one-tailed t-test showed significant start-to-stop changes for men, women, or both on 10 of the 16 adjectives" (ibid. p.711). In an attempt at a replication of these results, in the present study it was found that there were significant changes on only 6 of the adjectives in the case of men and 5 in the case of women with a 1-tailed t-test and the same significance criterion used.

In order to be able to comment on the usefulness of the scale, it was hypothesised (H_2) that the stresses inherent in the houseparent role would give rise to a significant change in the start - stop responses for each of the adjectives presented. Due to the exploratory nature of the research the direction of this change was not predicted and a 2-tailed t-test was therefore used with the significance criterion fixed at $p < .05$. Here it was found that there were significant changes on only 2 of the adjectives in the case of men and 6 in the case of women. There was a trend towards significance ($p < .10$) in a further 2 in the case of men, and 2 in the case of women. When the direction of the change, predicted in terms of burnout, was taken into consideration the finding was that there was a significant change in the predicted direction on 2 of the adjectives in the case of men and only 2 in the case of women. In each case there was a trend towards significance on a further 1 adjective. These findings would suggest that this instrument is not a useful measure of burnout.

In an attempt at closer comparison of results in order to discover the reasons for this failure at replication, irregularities in Thompson's published table of results were found. These irregularities are discussed as they made comparison very difficult.

TABLE 15. THE PUBLISHED TABLE - THOMPSON (1980) - RESULTS OF START - STOP CHANGES IN SCORES OF GROUP HOME HOUSE-PARENTS ON THE 16 ADJECTIVE CHECK-LIST.

Self-Impression Adjective ^a	Men (N=23)			Women (N=24)			Significance
	Mean	SD	t	Mean	SD	t	
Angry	3.52	2.97	2.38	2.32	2.82	1.80	p=.04
Start	1.83	1.75		3.55	3.23		
Stop							
Bored	2.96	2.44	-2.40	2.30	2.69	-0.13	n.s.
Start	1.83	1.15		2.26	2.05		
Stop							
Confident ^b	3.83	2.42	-1.33	4.82	2.58	-1.53	.05 < p < .10
Start	3.00	1.98		3.64	1.84		
Stop							
Confused	4.52	3.07	-2.61	4.26	3.43	-0.88	n.s.
Start	2.61	2.29		3.48	2.68		
Stop							
Cynical	2.43	2.04	2.17	2.91	2.58	0.25	n.s.
Start	3.87	2.87		3.05	2.38		
Stop							
Dependable ^b	2.96	2.25	-1.39	2.39	2.02	-1.97	p=.03
Start	2.39	1.34		1.91	1.24		
Stop							
Effective ^b	4.70	2.32	-2.37	4.78	2.30	-2.29	p=.02
Start	3.39	1.73		3.39	1.73		
Stop							
Energetic ^b	3.13	1.94	3.49	3.22	2.32	2.51	p=.01
Start	5.04	2.08		4.70	1.92		
Stop							
Overworked	2.87	2.49	4.11	2.83	1.88	4.48	p<.001
Start	5.87	2.93		6.09	2.45		
Stop							
Tired	3.13	2.18	3.94	2.74	2.28	4.58	p<.001
Start	5.83	2.95		6.74	3.12		
Stop							

^aStart scores represent subjects' retrospective impression of how they felt when they started as houseparents; "stop" indicates how they felt when they left or, if they were currently houseparents, their current feelings.

^bThese positive adjectives were scored in reverse for the overall scale but are shown here without reverse scoring.

Firstly, there is what is assumed to be a printing error where the t-value for the start - stop variance on the adjective - Angry - has a positive sign. The fact that the 'start' mean (3.52) is higher than the 'stop' mean (1.83) would suggest that this t-value should have a negative sign, or alternatively, that the means may have been erroneously inverted.

Secondly, Thompson reports using a 1-tailed t-test and yet in 4 (possibly 5) instances it appears that the sign has been ignored in ascribing significance to the t-value. This would constitute a misuse of the 1-tailed test. His use of a 1-tailed test would imply that the direction of the start - stop change was predicted. He states that "a higher score on each adjective was taken as indicative of greater burnout. The scores on each of the self-impression adjectives were added separately for start and stop categories, and the algebraic difference taken so that a higher difference score indicated greater burnout" (ibid. p.711). From this it can be assumed that Thompson was interested in values falling in the positive tail, or extreme, of the sampling distribution curve, and only t-values with a positive sign could therefore be ascribed significance. In the table there are 4 adjectives which were presented to subjects in their positive form but scored in reverse. In these instances a negative t-value would be regarded as falling in the positive tail because the values for these adjectives are given in the table without their reverse scoring. With reverse scoring these negative t-values would become positive. The start - stop changes erroneously ascribed significance were on the following adjectives: Bored, Confused, and Energetic in the case of men and Energetic in the case of women. The fifth possibility is Angry in the case of men if the present sign is in fact a misprint.

In order to account for this apparent misuse of the 1-tailed test in terms of printing errors would require the assumption that in the table the means were erroneously inverted in 8 instances and the wrong t-value sign printed in 7.

If the 1-tailed t-test was in fact misused, then Thompson's actual findings would have been that there were significant start - stop changes on only 7 (possibly 6) of the 16 adjectives in the case of men and 6 in the case of women.

Thirdly, ascribing significance to t-values falling in either tail, while using the cumulative probability critical values of a 1-tailed test, has the effect of re-setting the significance criterion at an 80% probability level ($p < .20$) as 10% of the area under the curve at each tail would then be designated as null hypothesis rejection area. If it is assumed that Thompson intended using a 2-tailed test, then at the $p < .10$ level the start - stop changes would be significant on 8 of the 16 adjectives in the case of men and 6 in the case of women. Only 5 (possibly 4) of these in the case of men and 5 in the case of women would be in the direction predicted. At the $p < .05$ level (the probability level used in the present study) the changes would be significant on 8 of the 16 adjectives in the case of men and 4 in the case of women with the number of significant changes in the predicted direction being 5 (possibly 4) and 3 respectively.

Without knowing the real reasons for the irregularities in Thompson's published table, it would be impossible to decide on what the actual findings of his study were. In terms of the significance of the start - stop changes on the 16 adjectives it was difficult to decide whether the present study came close to achieving a replication of Thompson's results or whether it failed in this regard. If adjustments are made to the results in order to counter the effects of these irregularities, then it would appear that the findings of the respective studies were similar. For instance, if the 1-tailed test was misused in the same way for the present study as it may have been in the Thompson study, then the present finding of significant changes in start - stop response on 8 adjectives in the case of men and 12 in the case of women would compare with Thompson's finding of 10 and 7 respectively. If Thompson's results on the

other hand, were subjected to the same significance criteria as those used in the present study (2-tailed test, $p < .05$), then his finding of significant changes in the direction predicted on 4 adjectives in the case of men and 3 in the case of women would compare with the finding in the present study of 2 and 2 respectively, and in which case he could not have reached the same conclusion that this instrument "appears to be a useful measure of burnout". For the purpose of comparison these 'adjusted' findings are summarised in Table 16 below.

TABLE 16. SUMMARY OF 'ADJUSTED' RESULTS FOR THE PURPOSE OF COMPARISON OF SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN START - STOP SCORES ON THE 16 ADJECTIVES.

ADJECTIVE	THOMPSON STUDY - AS PUBLISHED		PRESENT STUDY - WITH SAME 'MISUSE'		THOMPSON STUDY - 1-TAIL, $p < .10$ (if misuse assumption correct)		PRESENT STUDY - 1-TAIL, $p < .10$		THOMPSON STUDY - 2-TAIL, $p < .10$		THOMPSON STUDY - 2-TAIL, $p < .10$ (IN DIRECTION PREDICTED)		PRESENT STUDY - 2-TAIL, $p < .10$ (IN DIRECTION PREDICTED)		THOMPSON STUDY - 2-TAIL, $p < .05$		PRESENT STUDY - 2-TAIL, $p < .05$		THOMPSON STUDY - 2-TAIL, $p < .05$ (IN DIRECTION PREDICTED)		PRESENT STUDY - 2-TAIL, $p < .05$ (IN DIRECTION PREDICTED)			
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women		
CONFUSED	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
DEPRESSED	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
UPTIGHT	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
ENERGETIC	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
DEPENDABLE	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
CYNICAL	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
BORED	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
COMMITTED	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
HAPPY	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
EMOTIONALLY	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
HEALTHY	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
PHYSICALLY	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
HEALTHY	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
ANGRY	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
OVERWORKED	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
EFFECTIVE	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
TIRED	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
CONFIDENT	*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*		*			
Column Totals	10	7	8	12	6	6	6	5	8	6	4	5	4	8	3	3	8	4	2	6	4	3	2	2

* Indicates significance ascribed.
 Δ If the assumption of a misprint on the t-value sign for 'Angry' is not made, then an extra 1 would be added to these totals.

The low number of men subjects (n=9) in the present study would put the validity of the findings in relation to men into question. The overall burnout score means, for women subjects, in the respective samples are as follows:

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Range</u>	<u>Min.</u>	<u>Max.</u> *
THOMPSON STUDY	10.9	7.5	19.7	100	-16	+84
PRESENT STUDY	-3.7	-3.3	24.7	158	-70	+88

From this it would appear that housemothers working in South African children's homes are, on average, less burnt-out than their American counterparts. One possible explanation of this would be the suggested lower general level of expectations that may apply in the case of the former. However, this finding is questionable because in terms of this instrument, housemothers working in children's homes were found to become more effective, confident and happy over time, at the same time as they became less confused, energetic and physically healthy. There was also a trend towards their becoming more committed and more cynical.

The aspects of this description which would suggest evidence of burnout having taken place would be their having become less energetic and physically healthy with the trend towards their having become more cynical. However, these aspects alone could not be regarded as a manifestation of burnout having taken place, nor could they be attributed only to burnout having taken place, and the instrument is therefore not considered to be a useful measure of the burnout phenomenon.

Reading the description of the significant changes that are believed to have taken place, the possibility of a 'fake good' response set having been adopted by the subjects in completing this check-list cannot be overlooked.

* These scores are regarded as relative measures and not absolute measures of the degree of burnout present.

In order to be able to throw more light on the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument used by Thompson, two other independent measures of burnout were obtained; the Burnout Identification - self-rating scale ('B Self') and the Manifest Burnout rating by the Principal or person responsible for the in-service training ('B Prin.'). It was hypothesised (H_1) that these three independent measures would be related to one another in some statistically significant way. It was expected that the scores obtained from each of them would be positively correlated and that the t-values obtained for the variance of one scale's means, for groups delineated according to high versus low levels of burnout on each of the other scales, would be significant.

This research hypothesis was not confirmed. Neither the three coefficients of correlation, nor any of the t-values were found to be significant. The relationships were all in the direction predicted but not statistically significant.

If reasons could be found for the lack of significant relationships between the 'B Self' and 'B Prin.' scales, then this finding would lend further support to the indication that the 'B Adj.' instrument is not a useful measure of burnout and that it has a low internal validity. The means for the scores on these two scales would appear to be comparable:

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mode</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Range</u>	<u>Min.</u>	<u>Max.</u>
'B SELF'	33.4	29.11	0.0	26.1	90	0	90
'B PRIN.'	32.9	30.21	10.0	23.7	100	0	100

However, not only were these measures not found to be significantly related, but also, in relation to the Independent Variables, in 3 instances they yielded significant findings which were contradictory.

In the first instance, in terms of the 'B Self' scale, it was found that the houseparent's having confidence in the management's

admission decisions* was related (trend) to higher burnout. In the case of 'B Prin.' this was related ($p < .003$) to lower burnout. In the second instance, the 'B Self' scale found that lack of privacy ie. having only a room rather than a private flat for personal accommodation, was related to lower burnout (trend) while in terms of 'B Prin.' this was related ($p < .01$) to higher burnout. In the third instance, being responsible for the liason with a child in the unit's teacher, doctor, dentist etc. was found to be related ($p < .03$) to lower burnout in terms of 'B Self', and higher burnout ($p < .007$) in terms of 'B Prin.'.

A possible explanation for these contradictory findings could lie in the fact that having 15 different persons doing the rating on the 'B Prin.' measure meant that 15 different sets of rating criteria were in fact used. These may have differed markedly, in which case artifacts would have been introduced which could account for this lack of statistically significant relationships between the measures. The fact that the scores on the two scales showed a correlation with one another in the direction predicted, even though not a statistically significant one, supports this interpretation.

For some of the Independant Variables studied, the group that would manifest the greater burnout could be predicted from the literature on burnout. If these variables are considered, then for the purpose of comparing the instruments, the findings that were 'significant' in the direction opposite to that predicted could be expressed as a percentage of the total number of 'significant' findings.** These percentages would compare as follows:

* Their accurately assessing the degree of the child's disturbance, what can realistically be accomplished with that child, the extent to which that child's disturbance may upset the progress of the other children, the houseparent's present load, and the additional load that having this child may put on them, before deciding on whether to admit a child to a particular family unit.

** Where the number of subjects in one of the groups was less than 10, the finding is not included in this total. (t-values underlined with a dotted line in Table 11.)

	<u>'B SELF'</u>	<u>'B PRIN.'</u>	<u>'B ADJ.'</u>
<u>LEVEL p .10</u>			
No. of 'significant' findings in opposite direction.	$\frac{1}{7}$ 14.3 %	$\frac{3}{12}$ 25 %	$\frac{4}{8}$ 50 %
No. of 'significant' findings.			
<u>LEVEL p .05</u>			
No. of significant findings in opposite direction.	$\frac{0}{3}$ 0.0 %	$\frac{3}{9}$ 33 %	$\frac{3}{4}$ 75 %
No. of significant findings.			

From this comparison of the results of the 'B Self' and 'B Prin.' scales, it would appear that the results of the former were the most concordant with the literature on burnout. This could indicate that of the two burnout measures, it was the one least contaminated by artifacts or with the least error variance. If the 'B Adj.' scale with its low validity was not in fact measuring burnout at all, then the high percentages found in relation to it would also be explained.

A failure on the part of Principals to recognise burnout in their houseparents could in itself be a contributing factor towards burnout. The lack of a positive correlation between the 'B Self' and 'B Prin.' measures could be construed as an indication of such a failure, however, this would require the assumption of equal validity and reliability of these two measures to be made. This interpretation is not made, due to the fact that there is evidence contra-indicating equal validity and reliability between the measures.

From a consideration of the results in relation to the measuring instruments used, it is indicated that the central instrument in this replication study ('B Adj.') was not a useful measure of burnout at all. As a measuring instrument it was found to have a low internal validity and its reliability therefore became a non-issue. The two supporting instruments ('B Self' and 'B Prin'), originally included for the purpose of establishing the validity and reliability of the 'B Adj.' scale, are believed to be more

useful measures of burnout although they themselves would have relatively low levels of validity and reliability. The reliability of the 'B Prin.' scale in particular is in question due to the fact that the 15 sets of rating criteria appeared to have differed markedly.

6.3 POSSIBLE ETIOLOGICAL FACTORS IN BURNOUT.

It was hypothesised (H_3) that for each of the situational variables or variables of personal characteristics (the Independent Variables) there would be a relationship to the burnout scores obtained of the form predicted in the literature. The results indicate that relatively few significant relationships were in fact found. This finding is difficult to interpret due to the fact that the central measuring instrument was found to have a low validity in terms of burnout measurement. More valid in fact, were the supporting instruments used and the results in relation to these are therefore discussed. These findings, however, can only be tentatively adopted as the exact validity and reliability of the 'B Self' and 'B Prin.' scales is unknown.

The only variables to reflect a significant relationship to burnout on both scales were; where not all leave was taken by housemothers (Q56/11*, 'B Self' $p < .002$ & 'B Prin.' $p < .04$), and where housemothers were not able to arrange extra time off when they felt particularly worn down or over stressed (Q61/11, 'B Self' $p < .003$ & 'B Prin.' $p < .002$). In relation to housemothers being responsible for the liason with others outside the home, the significant but contradictory findings discussed above are perhaps best explained in terms of the assumption of errors of measurement in the scales themselves.

Burnout was found to be related to different variables for each of the two scales. The results will be discussed in relation to each of these before possible reasons for this are inferred.

* The designation /11 or /12 following the question number refers to the Table on which the result may be found. Table 11 (pp.91-2) and Table 12 (p.94), respectively.

In terms of the 'B Self' scale, the following relationships were established. Housemothers who were married as opposed to being single showed a trend towards being more burnt-out (Q3/11, $p < .08$) as did those who had one or more of their own children living with them (Q5/11 $p < .09$). There was a significant correlation between gross family income and burnout (Q8/12, $p < .05$) suggesting that higher income is associated with higher burnout. Higher relative levels of expectations in these higher income families could be an explanation for this. While in the literature it was suggested that those with the least formal education showed greater job satisfaction, in the case of men, Thompson (ibid.) found lower levels of education to be related to higher burnout and no significant relationship in the case of women. In the present study, level of schooling was found to be negatively correlated with burnout in housemothers (Q12/12, $p < .03$), those having the least showing higher burnout.

Housemothers who saw their role as primarily a therapeutic one, as opposed to a custodial one, showed lower levels of burnout (Q34/11, $p = .000$). Those who felt that they were more competent in this therapeutically defined role also showed the least burnout (Q35/11, $p < .004$). This would indicate that redefinition of the role into a custodial one would not serve as a protection against burnout even though burnout is seen to result from distresses inherent in interpersonal contact.

Lower rates of burnout were found to be related to housemothers being involved in developing their expertise in other non-child care related fields (Q45/11, $p < .03$) and their taking regular exercise showed a similar trend (Q47/11, $p < .07$). There was also a trend towards burnout being negatively correlated with the amount of time per day housemothers spent on themselves (Q44/12, $p < .07$). The group of housemothers who spent the greater number of hours per day involved in basic housekeeping chores showed a trend towards higher burnout (Q43/11, $p < .06$).

The number of teenage boys in a family unit was found to show a trend towards a positive correlation with burnout (Q18a/12, $p < .08$) and in terms of the 'B Prin.' scale, the number of pre-teenage girls was negatively correlated with burnout (Q18d/12, $p < .03$). This finding would suggest that for housemothers there are greater burnout related stresses linked to caring for teenagers. Teenage boys being the most stressful and pre-teenage girls the least stressful to care for. Higher turnover of children was found to be correlated with higher burnout in terms of the 'B Prin.' scale (Q19/12, $p < .03$).

Before looking at the findings in terms of the 'B Prin.' scale as such, further comparative findings need to be considered. The housemothers who attended a course of lectures on residential child care* given outside of the home were found to show a trend towards higher rates of burnout than those who did not attend (Q68a/11, 'B Self' $p < .09$) and those who received regular individual supervision from a Psychologist, Social Worker etc. were also found to show a trend towards higher burnout (Q68d/11, 'B Self' $p < .07$). Both of these results were contrary to what would have been expected. In relation to the latter, if it was the case that those housemothers who were more burnt-out were the ones who were assigned this supervision, then it would have been expected to also find a high significant t-value on the 'B Prin.' scale. This was not found. Although the finding, with regard to whether or not the training was experienced as being confronting or attacking, was not significant, the possibility exists that these lectures and this supervision may be direct sources of burnout related stress. However, an alternative explanation of these findings would be that errors of measurement in the scales themselves played a role as in both instances the corresponding t-values for the 'B Prin.' scale are very low. The high percentage of houseparents who reported feeling replenished

* Run jointly by the Association of Child Care Workers and the University of the Witwatersrand - Department of Extra-Mural Studies.

by the in-service training would lend support to this latter interpretation.

Looking at the findings in terms of the 'B Prin.' scale, the following relationships were established. For those housemothers who had worked previously in similar houseparenting positions, there was a trend towards a longer period of previous service to be correlated with lower burnout (Q11/12, $p < .06$). This finding, together with the large difference between the 'inflated' mean and median for length of service (42.5 and 15 months respectively), would suggest the possibility of there being a critical period in burnout. It would appear that the risk of burnout progressively increases up to a critical point, between 18 and 36 months, after which the risk progressively decreases. This interpretation could account for the fact that the variance of the mean scores for those who had been in their positions for more than 36 months, as opposed to less than 36 months, were not found to be significantly different.

The contradictory finding in relation to confidence in the management's admission decisions, mentioned above, is perhaps best explained in terms of errors of measurement in the respective scales. A speculative interpretation would be that the housemothers who's locus of control was more externalised would also be inclined to experience a higher degree of identification with another's description, whether burnout had taken place or not. The influence of this bias would not be present in the case of 'B Prin.' where the finding was in the direction predicted in the literature.

The lack of a relationship of mutual trust and caring between the housemother and the management of the home was found to be related to higher burnout (Q37/11, $p < .025$). Housemothers who experienced a conflict of duties in their roles showed higher burnout (Q36/11, $p < .002$) as was the case with those who did not have a clear concept of what was expected of them in their roles, where there

was a trend shown (Q33/11, $p < .08$). Where housemothers felt that they had no direct input into policy decisions and the running of the home, this was related to higher burnout (Q31/11, $p < .01$).

The subjects were asked what percentage of children, on average, they believed that they would be successful with. There was both a trend towards a negative correlation (Q40/12, $p < .08$) and a trend towards higher percentages being related to lower burnout (Q40/11, $p < .10$). This would indicate that the ability of a housemother to see herself as a positive change agent would be related to lower burnout risk. However, high level of expectations has been linked to higher burnout in the literature. The latter would be an alternative explanation not confirmed in the present study.

In the literature it was suggested that experiences, particularly childhood experiences, in the houseparent's past which have not been resolved would come to be restimulated and relived in a counter-transferential way, and that this would lead to burnout. The subjects were asked if they had many experiences in their own childhoods that were similar to the one's that the children may be experiencing difficulty in working through at present. The finding was that those who could not identify similar experiences in their own pasts showed higher burnout (Q82/11, $p < .03$) and that those with similar experiences were less burnt-out. This finding appears at first to be contrary to what would be expected from the literature, however, the housemother's ability to identify similar experiences may be what is being highlighted in this result. In those cases where such an ability is lacking, the involvement may be one of over-identification with the children and with a lack of the necessary limits to protect against burnout.

The greater number of hours spent, on a typical working day without any children around (their being at school or involved in some outside activity) showed a trend towards being correlated with

lower burnout (Q42/12, $p < .10$). The actual length of the house-mother's average working day was found to show a trend towards being negatively correlated with burnout (Q41/12, $p < .07$) which would suggest that those who worked the longest showed the least burnout. This finding was in the direction opposite to that predicted.

Housemothers who had less than 6 days off per month showed higher burnout (Q52/11, $p = .000$) and those who did not take their full quota of time off showed a trend towards this (Q53/11, $p < .07$). Where time off rosters were frequently messed around with house-mother being expected to do extra 'relief work' etc., there was a significant relationship to higher burnout (Q60/11, $p < .001$). As mentioned above, the full quota of annual leave not being taken was significantly related to higher burnout on both scales.

The relatively few significant findings in relation to in-service training would suggest that it is not a particularly important variable in the phenomenon of burnout. The 'opportunities' afforded by the in-service training, which are regarded in the literature as being 'necessary' in order to combat burnout, were not found to correlate with the different levels of burnout measured.

One possible reason for the lack of correspondence between the findings of the two scales would be that the housemothers and the supervisors doing the rating saw burnout differently, despite the attempt made to present similar descriptions of symptomatology to each. However, the influence of the 15 sets of rating criteria, that appeared to have differed, cannot be overlooked.

Comparing the number of significant findings on each of the two scales, it is noted that in the case of the 'B Self' scale, out of the 7 significant results, 3 were on variables of organizational structure or of management procedure as opposed to 4 being of personal characteristics. In the case of the 'B Prin.' scale,

out of the 12 significant results, 11 were on variables of organizational structure or of management procedure, as opposed to the 1 variable of personal characteristic. While in the case of the 'B Self' scale there was a fairly even dispersion, in the case of 'B Prin.' the results were clearly weighted towards variables of organizational structure and management procedure.

A possible reason for this discrepancy would be that the variables of organizational structure and of management procedure were more sensitive to the effects of the 15 different sets of rating criteria used in the 'B Prin.' scale. These variables would differ between the homes but would tend not to differ within a home. The variables of personal characteristics on the other hand would differ both between and within homes.

If, for example, a particular principal who gave his or her house-parents only 4 days off per month also adopted low criteria when rating burnout, then this would have had the effect of biasing the variance of a group of the scores towards fewer days off per week being associated with higher rates of burnout. In the case of the 'B Self' scale or with variables of personal characteristics, groups of the scores would not have been biased in this manner.

The fact that with variables which showed a trend towards significance there is a more even dispersion would lend support to this hypothesis of the 15 sets of rating criteria having had a biasing effect. (With 'B Self' 3 out of 8 "trends" were on variables of organizational structure or management procedure and with 'B Prin.' 6 out of 10 were.)

Although the above could account for some of the lack of correspondence between the scales, when considered on a numerical basis, the lack of a one to one correspondence would suggest that burnout is also perhaps seen differently by the housemothers and the principals of the homes.

PART SEVEN.

THE CONCLUSIONS DRAWN
AND RECOMMENDATIONS MADE.

In the rationale for this research the reasons for the importance of replication of findings such as those of Thompson's were outlined. The present study was aimed, in part, at establishing whether the line of research adopted by Thompson, within this highly problematic research field, could at present, offer any guidelines in the resolution of the current staffing crisis faced by South African children's homes.

The present study can be regarded as having failed to replicate Thompson's results. The results of the present study indicated that the reason for this failure at replication was the low validity of the burnout measuring instrument used in these studies. It was suggested previously that because of the burnout concept's potential usefulness, a sense of urgency has resulted in research being undertaken using measuring instruments, where instruments have been used at all, with low validity and reliability. It was found that the Thompson study was a case in point. The results indicated that in the present study it was highly unlikely that burnout was being measured at all in terms of this instrument. The results in relation to etiological factors in burnout were therefore not comparable.

Although the present study had an exploratory design and directed itself in part towards attempting to describe more closely the burnout syndrome, due to the level of the instruments used, it was not able to greatly extend the present understanding of burnout in either breadth or depth.

In light of the findings of the present study, the conclusion is drawn, that the line of research adopted by Thompson can at present offer only very tentative guidelines towards the resolution of the staffing crisis faced. Although many situational variables and variables of personal characteristics have been quite consistently linked to burnout in the literature, empirical verification of their

proposed relationship to its etiology would have to be gained before selection procedures, training programs and organizational structures could safely be modified with the sole purpose of reducing the incidence of burnout and before structural changes which may relieve the staffing crisis could be made. This necessary verification will not be possible until such time as valid and reliable instruments to measure normative burnout change have been developed.

It is recommended that further research into the phenomenon of burnout directs itself towards the development of such instruments. The field of burnout research is a highly problematic one and in lieu of the findings of this study, it is believed that in this form of applied research the point has been reached where in order for further progress to be made, valid and reliable measuring instruments need to be developed.

The general rubric or concept of burnout is well described in the literature and a consensus of agreement as to who would be regarded as being burnt-out could fairly easily be reached. With this as a starting point, a factor analytic study could well delineate the common essence of burnout or the indices of normative burnout change and a measuring instrument could be developed from this.

A study such as this would also throw more light onto the question of whether or not a unitary syndrome in fact exists. This is an assumption which needs to be questioned due to the relatively low number of significant results, with regard to etiological factors, found in the present study. It would appear that different people burn out in different ways and the assumption is made in the literature that these different manifestations of burnout have a common etiology. If this latter assumption were found to be false, then there would be no reason to believe that burnout risk could be significantly lowered through a generalised manipulation of a set of situational variables or through steps taken as a result of generalised guidelines regarding training and selection criteria

Related to the above, the dearth of information regarding the role of personality variables in the process of burnout suggests another area for future research. In this, both the question of whether certain types of people are more prone to burning out and the question of whether certain types of people burn out in particular types of ways would need to be looked at.

Seen within the context of the research needs outlined above, with hindsight, the applied nature of the present study would appear to have been premature. However, although the results in relation to possible etiological factors can only be tentatively adopted, by looking at burnout within another context many of the suggested relationships between the independent variables and burnout were confirmed, points of guidance can be offered to the managements of children's homes and in some respects the syndrome can be more closely described.

The results that would suggest the possibility of there being a 'critical period' in burnout are regarded as important due to the fact that if such a period were found to exist, then preventative measures could become more focussed. A critical period such as this would most likely be directly linked to the problem of high turnover and special measures to assist new recruits through this period could be developed and introduced. The hypothesis of there being such a period is suggested as an additional area for further research.

In relation to the selection process and the finding of suitable staff, it would appear that housemothers who are married, have one or more of their own children living with them and those who come from higher income families are at a higher risk of burning out. If it is the management's policy to employ couples, then it should be realised that these housemothers are at additional risk and special measures would have to be taken to avoid their burning out. The possible higher level of expectations of these housemothers would also have to be focussed on in training for, while the

necessity for housemothers to see themselves as positive change agents emerged, this is a field in which the positive results of one's work are seldom seen,

Prospective housemothers who have received only low levels of schooling and who would be inclined to define the role and feel more competent in the role defined as a custodial one would also be at a higher risk of burning out if employed. Prospective housemother who would be interested in developing their expertise in other non-child care related fields and who would be inclined to take regular physical exercise would, on the other hand, be in the lower risk group. In maintaining such staff, it would be important to encourage outside interests and exercise programs, and to make time available for these.

A prospective housemother being able to identify similar experiences in her own past to those of the children would appear to be a favourable characteristic in terms of burnout risk. While this could come to be regarded as an important starting point in the development of an empathetic understanding in workers, the possibility of counter-transferential feelings increasing the level of role stress would have to be guarded against. The in-service training and individual supervision could effectively be used in this regard.

Other characteristics which could be regarded as favourable in terms of burnout risk would be housemothers having worked previously in similar positions and their seeing the role as a therapeutic one as well as their seeing themselves as being more competent for such a role.

With regard to the maintenance of suitable staff and keeping the risk of burnout at a minimum, the burnout related variables of management procedure to emerge were: the importance of there being a relationship of mutual trust and caring between the housemothers

and the management of the home; the importance of their having input into the policies and the running of the home; the importance of their having a clear concept of what is expected of them in their role; and the importance of them not experiencing a conflict of duties within the role.

In relation to the organizational structure, the increased burnout risk associated with working with teenagers and of having a high client turnover emerged. A longer working day was associated, if anything, with lower burnout, however, the importance of housemothers having time to spend on themselves, of having time free from direct child contact and lengthy housekeeping chores emerged as being important variables if burnout risk is to be lowered.

In order to keep the burnout risk at a minimum, the organizational structure would also have to allow for housemothers being able to have in excess of six days off per month and for their being able to take extra days or hours off when over-stressed. It would likewise be important to ensure that housemothers were able to take their full quota of leave and time off and to ensure that scheduled time off was not interfered with.

While no specific guidelines regarding the form that the in-service training should take or the components that it should incorporate could be formally established, the different role expectations that emerged for the South African population are important. The generally older, less well educated South African houseparents, who are no doubt attracted by the low minimum entry qualifications of the role, are most likely to see the role as a second career or as a career suitable for pre-retirement and any in-service training program should direct itself towards the needs of such a group.

The fact that there is some evidence to suggest that burnout is perhaps seen differently by the housemothers and the principals or supervisors, highlights a potential source of burnout related

stress. If the process of burnout is to be arrested, then its early manifestations would have to be recognised by all those in a position to do something about the situation causing it. This would include both the housemothers and the principals or supervisors, and it is therefore necessary that this discrepancy in the conceptualization of burnout be kept at a minimum. It is recommended that the in-service training program be used partially for this purpose. The very real danger of burnout within this role needs to be spoken about and the dynamics of burnout understood if it is to be effectively combatted. The types of sharing necessary between the housemothers, principals and supervisors in order to accomplish this would be most appropriate in the training seminars run.

The major shortcoming in the present study was that, while a large amount of data concerning situational variables and variables of personal characteristics were obtained, this information could not be fully utilised due to the weaknesses of the measuring instruments used. Thompson's instrument emerged as being clearly not a useful measure of burnout and would therefore not be recommended for future use. The 'B Prin.' scale, relying on different raters, would also not be recommended unless the suggested rating criteria could be made more standardised. Of the three scales, the 'B Self' rating is believed to have been the most valid and reliable and the one with the most potential for further use and development. An instrument of this level, however, could not be used on its own and would have to be supported by some other independent measure. Until such time as more valid and reliable instruments are developed, the recommended means of burnout measurement for future research would be through the researcher using a structured interview technique.

While an emphasis on strictly applied aspects is not recommended at this stage in the development of burnout theory and research, if such a study was embarked upon, then a similar research design

to the one adopted in this study could prove to be useful. The measures taken to ensure a high response rate were also found to be effective and could be repeated. Participation in burnout research can be interesting to workers in careers in which the risk of burnout is real and the length of the time commitment required of subjects in this study did not prove to be excessive. This time period could be extended if an interview technique were incorporated. Where the eventual findings can be of direct benefit to the participants, such as in this applied research, the offer of a report on the findings was found to be sufficient to ensure all necessary co-operation.

Research into the phenomenon of burnout poses multiple problems but it is very necessary and should be continued. Possible directions for further research have been presented and at the same time the suggestions of Resnikoff et.al. (1978) are endorsed. They suggest that it is perhaps premature to focus all research efforts on strictly experimental designs and until such time as theory has developed to the point where operational definitions can be arrived at and the resultant research designs can control more adequately for extraneous variables, attempts at replication of results are far more important than merely establishing statistical significances.

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APPENDICES.

APPENDIX A.THE COVERING LETTER TO HOUSEPARENTS.

Department of Psychology
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6140

9 March 1982

Dear Houseparent,

I would like to invite you to participate in this research I am doing. I will explain to you briefly something of what it's aims are.

Compared to other fields, and particularly in South Africa, not much research has been done on Residential Child Care. Even then, the little that is available has focussed primarily on conditions related to the children in care. I am interested in conditions related to those who do the caring - the Houseparents. I regard the environment in which a Houseparent lives and works as the most demanding and stressful of any in the field of Child Care. After living and working in this environment for a period of time it would be reasonable to expect some signs of fatigue and stress to show. In this research, I would like to find out more about this process if it exists.

The Managements of Homes establish systems, make rules, work out procedures, define policy and develop programs with the needs and best interests of the children in mind, and this is to be encouraged. They also have limited budgets to work within. What we don't know enough about, is how different systems, rules, procedures, policies and programs effect Houseparents and the environment they have to live and work in. This is another area that I hope this research will be able to throw some light on.

When first looking at the questionnaire it may appear to be very long, in fact it is designed to make it as easy as possible for you to fill in, requiring costly a tick, a cross, a yes or no answer. It should take you about 30 minutes to complete.

I would like you to feel free to answer this questionnaire as honestly as possible and therefore do not want you to give your name. Your questionnaire will have a code number on it but I have ensured that your name can not be traced by myself or anyone through this code.

I thank you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely,

Peter Bath.

APPENDIX B.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE - ASSESSMENT OF THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES.

SECTION A.

- NB. • Please answer all questions - if a particular question does not apply to you then merely insert "N/A".
- Please do not give your name on this questionnaire.

1. AGE: years. 2. SEX: (female, Male)
3. MARITAL STATUS:
(eg. single, married, widowed, separated, divorced etc.)
4. Do you have any children of your own? (yes, no)
5. If yes to above - how many? Please give the sex and age of those still living with you. (eg. girl 12, boy 10, boy 6, etc.)
.....
6. What is your gross monthly salary?
(From your work as a Houseparent.)
7. Does your spouse receive a salary from the Home? (yes, no)
8. What is your Family gross monthly income?
(Include spouse's salary and/or income from any other sources, if applic.)
9. What is your length of service as a
Houseparent in your present position? years months.
10. Have you previously worked in a (yes, no)
similar position/s.
11. If yes to above - for how long? years months.
12. What was the highest school standard you passed?
13. If you have studied or undergone any formal training since leaving school please give the name of the course, diploma or degree and the length of time it took to complete it.
..... years.
14. For how many years had you been out of school/college before starting in your present position?
..... years.
15. What was your previous occupation?
16. If you had free choice, the required training and there were the necessary openings, what occupation or career would you most like to follow?
.....
17. How many "Home" children do you have in your "Family Unit"?
18. Please list the ages of the children in your Unit (eg. 17, 15, 10, 10, 6) the boys and girls separately.

BOYS:
GIRLS:

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19. How many of the above children have been in your Unit for the past twelve months?
.....
20. What would you regard as being the ideal number of Home children for your particular Unit?
.....
21. Is it up to you to decide which children are admitted into your Unit?
..... (yes, no)
22. If no to above - in the case of a new child being admitted, do you believe that whoever is/are responsible for this decision accurately assess the degree of the child's disturbance, what can realistically be accomplished with him, the extent to which his disturbance may upset the progress of the other children, your present load and the extra load that having this child may put on you?
..... (yes, no)
23. With regard to Case Conferences, or meetings where the overall long and short term planning for a child is carried out or reviewed (eg. where progress with family reconstruction or the child's needs for therapy or remedial help etc. or the advisability of attempting to find foster parents for him etc. are discussed) (Please tick whichever of the following most applies to you, tick one only.)
- A) I attend on a regular basis, including when children not in my Unit are discussed.
- B) I attend on a regular basis, only when children in my Unit are discussed.
- C) I am occasionally invited to give my opinion on a specific aspect and then I leave.
- D) I am never invited to attend these meetings.
- E) To my knowledge, they do not have meetings like this in our Home.
24. Do you attend Management Committee Meetings where matters such as future plans, policy, the financial position, fund raising, staff planning, shortages etc. are discussed?
..... (yes, no)
25. If no to above - do you get regular direct feedback from or have access to the Minutes of these meetings?
..... (yes, no)
26. Are you encouraged to be creative and inovative and to run your Family Unit according to your own natural style of doing things (Tick A) or are you expected to adhere to prescribed standards, routines and procedures as laid down by the Internal Management? (Tick B)
(A)..... (B)..... (A or B, not both.)
27. With regard to rules - does your Unit function relatively independantly from the others (with you mostly deciding on bed times, meal times etc., if a teenager may go out on a date, if a child may go and play at a school friend's home etc.) (Tick A) or are they centralised (rules covering whole home, permission must be obtained from Principal, Social Worker etc.) (Tick B)
(A)..... (B).....
28. With regard to punishment for more serious offences - are you expected to find appropriate punishment (eg. for petty theft, truancy from school, drunkenness etc.) (Tick A) or is this the responsibility of the Internal Management? (Tick B)
(A)..... (B).....

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29. Are the children in your Home encouraged to be independent and to take an active role in running their Family Unit and Home?
 (yes, no)
30. Do they have direct input into policy decisions and the running of the Home?
 (yes, no)
31. Do you have direct input into policy decisions and the running of the Home?
 (yes, no)
32. Who is your most demanding "task master", spurring you on to try harder, achieve more, be more successful etc.? (Tick one)
- A) The Internal Management.
 B) The needs and demands of the children.
 C) Yourself and the standards you set.
33. Do you have a clear concept of exactly what is expected of you in your role as Houseparent and what being effective in it would require?
 (yes, no)
34. Do you see your role primarily as a therapeutic one (Tick A), or as a custodial one (Tick B)?
 (A) (B)
35. In which of these do you feel you are more competent at present?
 (A) (B)
36. Do you have any two duties as a Houseparent that you feel put you in a role conflict (ie. carrying out one successfully makes it almost impossible to do the other successfully), if so, what are they briefly?
 (No) Yes -
-
37. Do you have a relationship of mutual trust and caring between yourself and the Management of the Home?
 (yes, no)
38. Where do most of your positive "strokes" (compliments, approval, pats on the back etc.) come from? (Tick one)
- A) The children.
 B) Fellow Houseparents.
 C) The Management.
 D) The person responsible for training.
 E) Family or friends outside the Home.
39. Do you ever see any of the positive results of your work? (eg. a child returning years later, happy and who appears to be coping well with life or say, seeing a child happily reunited with his natural family)
 (yes, no)
40. What percentage of the children, on average, do you believe that you will be successful with? (Use your own criteria here as to what you would regard as being successful)

41. What is the length of your average working day?
 hours.
42. How many hours, on a typical working day, do you spend without any children around you? (eg. all the children at school/playschool or involved in some outside activity etc.)
 hours.

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43. How many hours, on average, do you spend involved primarily in housekeeping chores? (cooking, cleaning, mending etc.)
..... hours.
44. How many hours do you spend on yourself (reading, taking a nap, playing sport etc.) during a typical working day?
..... hours.
45. Are you involved in developing your expertise in any other non child care related field? (studying, pottery classes etc.) (yes, no)
46. Do you pursue an active hobby? (yes, no)
47. Do you partake in physical exercise on a regular basis? (yes, no)
48. If yes to above - does it take the form of sport (Tick A), Yoga (Tick B) or some other form (Tick C)?
(A) (B) (C)
49. Are you responsible for the preparation of meals? (yes, no)
50. If yes to above - which meals? (Tick which apply and underline the main meal of the day)
Breakfast Lunch Supper
51. Which of the following would apply in describing your living quarters? (Tick those applicable)
- A) A bedroom.
B) A private lounge.
C) A private bathroom.
D) A private kitchen.
E) A separate entrance.
F) One or more additional private bedrooms.
(to accommodate your own children)
52. How often do you have a day off? Please describe your time-off system. (eg. 1½ days per week, or 1 day per week and every 2nd weekend off etc.)
.....
53. Do you regularly take your full quota of time off? (yes, no)
54. Do you spend most of your time-off away from the home? (yes, no)
55. How many days vacation, per year, are you allowed? (number of working days.)
.....
56. Do you regularly take your full quota of leave? (yes, no)
57. Do you split your leave over the year (Tick A), or take it all together? (Tick B)
(A) (B)
58. How do you normally spend your vacation? (Tick one)
- A) On unplanned trips.
B) With family or close friends.
C) At holiday resorts.
D) At a number of locations.
E) At the Home relaxing.
F) Taking the children on trips, camps to the seaside etc.
59. Are alternative living quarters provided for you during your leave or a leave living allowance paid for the time you are living away from the Home?
..... (yes, no)

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60. Are your time-off schedules frequently messed around? (eg. days off cancelled, asked to do extra relief etc.) (Tick which applies on average)
- Weekly Once a month Once in six months Never
61. If you are feeling particularly worn down or stressed, would it be possible to arrange to have extra time off or perhaps an additional short vacation? (Tick which applicable)
- Fairly easily arranged Only if it were serious enough to regard as sick leave
62. Are you able to arrange to have a few hours off during the day (ie. by calling in a volunteer etc.) if it is necessary? (yes, no)
63. Are you given time off to attend workshops, conferences, lectures etc.? (yes, no)
64. If yes to above - does the Home assist you financially in attending? (yes, no)
65. Are you often involved in any activities that require you to take on a completely different role to that of Houseparent? (eg. minute secretary at meeting, talk to service clubs, supervise students etc.) (yes, no)
66. Are you responsible for the liaison with a child in your Unit's teacher, doctor, dentist, Guide mistress etc.? (yes, no)
67. What form/s does your in-service training as a Houseparent take? (Tick those which are applicable)
- A) A course of lectures given outside the Home.
- B) Lectures on various aspects of child care given in the Home.
- C) A regular group aimed at facilitating personal growth.
- D) Regular individual supervision by Psychologist, Social Worker etc.
- E) Hearing the way to go about things in staff meetings.
- F) Informal chats to the other Houseparents.
- G) Self training - learning from personal experience.
68. Which of the above do you personally find most beneficial? (Tick one)
- (A) (B) (C) (D) (E) (F) (G)
69. How many hours per week do you spend in what could be regarded as "formal in-service training"? hours.
70. Which of the following opportunities are afforded you by the in-service training program, the staff meetings and the tea times afterwards? (Tick whichever apply, would be encouraged, or at least not frowned upon)
- A) To socialize freely with other adults.
- B) To have a good laugh, or say something humorous.
- C) To compare your performance with that of others.
- D) To express anger or any negative emotion building up inside.
- E) To get in touch with your feelings in the here and now.
- F) To express these here and now feelings to those present.
- G) To confer about a problem you're having with a child.
- H) To share successes.
- I) To share failures, doubts and insecurities.
- J) To attempt to clarify for yourself your underlying motives in coming to work in residential child care.
- K) To discover what feelings other Houseparents experience.
- L) To resolve interpersonal conflicts with other Houseparents.

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- M) To vent disagreement with say a decision made by someone else or with a rule.
- N) To feel loved and accepted for who and what you are.
- O) To give support, understanding and encouragement to others.
- P) To get support understanding and encouragement from others.
- Q) To get more in touch with what your own basic character deficiencies are and to accept these.
- R) To feel part of a team and that the responsibility for your children is a shared one.
- S) To become aware of and to clarify for yourself what the long and short range goals for your children are.
- T) To become aware of unrealistic expectations you may have for yourself, your children or of your job.
- U) To get feedback on your performance. (positive and negative)
- V) To learn techniques of personal stress management.
71. It has been said that one of the goals of an in-service training program for Houseparents should be "to replenish the participants with the feelings of which they have been depleted in the course of their very demanding work", do you feel that your training program achieves this goal? (Tick one)
- Successfully Partially Not at all
72. Does your training program sometimes leave you feeling as though you've been torn down, confronted, attacked and left feeling angry or even more inadequate? (Tick one)
- Very often Very seldom
73. Are you responsible for the medical side of the children's care? (eg. keep medical records, arrange dentist/doctors appointments etc.)
- (yes, no - it is centralized)
74. Do you think that more of your children should be on medication for hyperactivity, enuresis etc.?
- (yes, no, less)
75. Are you presently on medication that helps you cope emotionally? (mild tranquilisers, anti-depressant medication, sleeping tablets etc.)
- (yes, no)
76. Do you have direct contact with the children's natural parents? (Tick which applies on average)
- No contact Weekly Monthly Very infrequent
77. Do you have direct contact with the children's holiday host parents? (Tick which applies on average)
- No contact Weekly Monthly Holiday time only
78. On average, how often do you have to deal with a serious crisis situation? (Tick one)
- Almost daily Weekly Monthly Very seldom
79. Are you an organised person who is able to plan schedules, work out rosters, draw up shopping lists etc. without feeling anxiety?
- (yes, no)
80. Thinking about the question of what attracted you to this work, rate the following on their order of importance to you. (Give the most important the number 1, the second most important the number 2 and so on)
- The fringe benefits, free board and keep etc.
 - The salary.
 - The fact that no specific training/experience was called for.
 - Opportunity to serve others or minister to children.
 - Opportunity for personal growth.
 - Opportunity to live communally.
 - Opportunity to learn about child care.

81. Do you feel that your job interests, skills, personal needs and abilities are compatible with the job you are doing? (yes, no)
82. Did you have many similar experiences in your own childhood to the ones the children may be having difficulty working through now? (ie. alcoholic parent/s, abused by parents, lived in a Home yourself etc.) (yes, no)
83. Do you feel that you had a fulfilling life prior to taking up your present position? (yes, no)
84. Do you have a fulfilling life outside of the Home now? (yes, no)
85. Do you feel fulfilled working in your role as Houseparent? (yes, no)

(Go on to Section B, pages 8 and 9)

APPENDIX C.THOMPSON'S 16 ADJECTIVE CHECK-LIST.

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SECTION B.

In this section there are a number of adjectives presented which could be used to describe your overall feelings or experience. I would like you to rate, on a nine point scale, how you felt on each of these dimensions when you first started as a Houseparent in your present position ("Start" response) and then again to rate your current feelings with regard to each of them ("Present" response).

Point number 10 represents a very high level of the particular dimension. Point number 1 represents a very low level of the particular dimension. Make a cross (X) at the point on the continuum line which you feel most accurately describes your feeling on each dimension in the "Start" or "Present" contexts respectively.

	"Start"	"Present"
CONFUSED	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
DEPRESSED	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
UPTIGHT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
ENERGETIC	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
DEPENDABLE	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
CYNICAL	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
BORED	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
COMMITTED	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
HAPPY	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
EMOTIONALLY HEALTHY	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
PHYSICALLY HEALTHY	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
ANGRY	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
OVERWORKED	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
EFFECTIVE	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
TIRED	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
CONFIDENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

APPENDIX D.BURNOUT IDENTIFICATION - SELF-RATING SCALE.

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The following quotation contains some of the experiences a Housemother once shared about how she started feeling and what began happening to her after she had been working in a Children's Home for some time. I would like you to read it and then afterwards give some measure of the extent to which you identify with her, the degree to which your own experiences at present may or may not be similar to hers.

"At work I am working harder than anyone else, I'm contributing more, I am taking on super-human tasks, I've even ruined my health in the process and yet all my efforts seem to be futile. My slaving is not appreciated. All it has led to is my having a lot of sleepless nights and more visits to the doctor. I feel so bogged down in my work and yet I know that I'm the only one who can do it. No one else knows enough or cares enough to do it properly. It's important work, I love those little brats you know. There's also this nagging doubt that the others may be out to get me. It's as though I hav'nt got a real friend in the entire place. I'm just so tired and the meetings particularly, I find so difficult to cope with. They bore me, I keep feeling - 'what's the use, its all been tried before'. The situation there is really hopeless, everyone talks a lot but no one does anything. I just get angry or more depressed.

I guess I am able to be more definite with the children now as I have learnt what is important for them. I also find, now that I am able to work out and understand the dynamics behind a child's behaviour, that I don't get personally hurt by the children anymore. I guess with the backgrounds that a lot of our children have had, we can't really expect much, they'll probably just grow up to be like their parents. Sometimes I feel that I am just wasting my time here, that there's nothing I can really do, their futures just seem so hopeless. I don't quite understand it but since I've been here my own personal family life has lost a lot of it's meaning. There just seem to be so many conflicts now, it's difficult to feel close anymore."

Without trying to match your experiences, opinions or feelings to those described, point by point, I would like you to try and relate to the more general "state" that this Housemother is trying to describe. A lot of it may ring true for you on a feeling level. The extent or degree to which it does is what I would like you to record below. For example, if nothing in it rings true for you then perhaps an X next to #0 best describes your degree of identification but it may be that your measure of identification is best described by #2.5 or #6.3 or #8.5 Etc.

- | | |
|----|---|
| 10 | I can identify with her fully, it could be my experience that she is describing. |
| 9 | |
| 8 | I can identify with the bulk of her description but not all of it fits my experience right now. (eg. a $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ balance) |
| 7 | |
| 6 | |
| 5 | Her experience is as similar to mine as it is completely different. ($\frac{1}{2}$) |
| 4 | |
| 3 | |
| 2 | A small part of her overall experience I can identify with but the bulk of it is very different. (eg. a $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ balance) |
| 1 | |
| 0 | I can feel for her but my experiences at present are in no ways similar to what she is describing. |

APPENDIX E.MANIFEST BURNOUT - RATING BY THE PRINCIPAL OR PERSON
RESPONSIBLE FOR THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING.FOR PRINCIPAL OR PERSON RESPONSIBLE FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING.

The literature on Child Care describes a phenomenon, called "Burn-out", which seems to strike effective and dedicated members of staff causing them to become gradually less productive, less energetic and less interested in their jobs. It links "Burn-out" with the high turnover of staff in Children's Homes and in other helping professions. It also reports that "burnt-out" staff are inclined to experience a loss of concern and feeling for clients and to treat them in detached and often dehumanised ways. (Freudenberger '75, '77a, '77b. Maslach '78. Mattingly '77. Pines & Maslach '78. Thompson '80)

The following could serve as a definitive description of the "Burn-out" phenomenon. I would like you to read it and then rate each of your House-parents according to the degree to which you feel that they are experiencing "Burn-out".

I, as a psychoanalyst, observe men and women, in a variety of responsible positions, sitting down in my office and telling me a remarkably similar story. They had originally entered into their professions with interest and enthusiasm, bursting with ideas and the desire to impement them. These were fields they had chosen, jobs they had studied for.

Nothing drastic had gone wrong in their lives ... their job conditions had'nt noticeably changed. Yet, they now found themselves fatigued, depressed, irritable, bored and overworked. Each day they seemed to have less to contribute and more in the way of physical symptoms to cope with.

If you and your co-workers are dealing with a burn-out, you are probably noticing an ever increasing rigidity, a resistance to new concepts and programs, an inflexibility that says no to change, even if that change means progress. People who are in the throes of burning out often fail to see their situation as stemming from inside themselves. Instead they find fault with everything and everyone around them, complaining about the organization and reacting cynically to whatever is suggested or attempted by others.

These individuals are not normally part of the anti-establishment group whose history is one of rebellion. On the contrary, they are often seen taking work home or staying late at the office, albeit with increasingly minimal results. Indeed one of the first signs of burn-out in a member of an organization is that he or she works harder and harder, longer and longer and yet appears to be accomplishing less and less.

When these signs appear ... rigidity, irritability, cynicism, unproductive effort ... it is imperative to recognise them as cries of pain. You've got a burn-out on your hands, calling for someone to help extinguish the fire. Yet paradoxically, when you do take notice and express your concern, you'll probably be faced with a denial that anything is wrong.

Since burn-out builds up gradually rather than flaring up all at once, sufferers are genuinely unaware of what is happening to them. They are not perceiving themselves as the angry, rigid, cynical and depressed human beings others are having difficulty working with. From their vantage point, quite the reverse is true!

Freudenberger (1977b p.26)

While Freudenberger defined "burn-out" as becoming exhausted from excessive demands on energy, strength or resources, Maslach extended the concept to members of the helping professions. She defined "burn-out" as "emotional exhaustion resulting from the stress of interpersonal contact" ('79a p.56) From her research she suggests that a person who is unable to cope with continued emotional stress loses concern and feeling for the individuals he or she is trying to help. They distance themselves from their clients

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becoming less involved emotionally and developing a "detached concern" about their clients' social, physical and emotional needs. They often develop an almost callous response to their clients. Some of the alternative methods of coping with this stress and the distancing techniques employed are given as:

- Δ "The use of certain types of language": The terms used to describe clients, their backgrounds and the functional relationship between them and client changes and they often use derogatory or flip terms. Eg. "my little savages", "those kids", "my quota of brats" etc.
- Δ "Compartmentalization": A very sharp distinction is drawn between their job and their personal life in an attempt to confine the emotional stress to a smaller part of their life. This contrasts sharply with the state where prior to burnout this boundary may have been totally lacking.
- Δ "Intellectualization": It becomes easier to stand back and analyse than to get personally involved. "Now that I am able to work out and understand the dynamics behind a child's behaviour I don't get personally hurt by the children any more".
- Δ "Withdrawal": Spending less time with clients, more time chatting to the other staff etc. Avoiding eye contact, standing further away from people etc.
- Δ "Social techniques": A turning to others for "advice, comfort, tension reduction, help in achieving distance from the situation or in intellectualizing it (stress), and a sense of diffusion of responsibility".

Maslach (1977 p.103-4)

A further point to note is that the effects of "burn-out" often generalize and are played out in relation to the staff member's own family and circle of friends.

If emotional stress cannot be resolved while on the job, it is often resurrected at home. People experiencing burn-out often report increased marital and family conflict. After an emotionally trying day with clients, the staff member may simply want to get away from all people for a while, but this desire for solitude usually comes at the expense of family and friends.

Maslach (1978 p.113)

Without trying to match characteristics or "symptoms", point by point, I would like you to give a rating to each of your Houseparents according to the degree or extent to which you believe that they may be "burnt-out" in terms of the more general "state" or overall phenomenon described above. Remember that the techniques or strategies listed above are alternatives. A person may rely primarily on one or on an elaborate combination of a few in coping with the same degree of stress. If you take a state of total "burn-out" to be represented by 100%, and a total absence of "burn-out" to be represented by 0%, then I would like you to express your rating in terms of a percentage on the form provided.

.....

APPENDIX F.SHORT BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR PRINCIPALS.

-3-

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APPENDIX G.

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION AND NUMBER OF SUBJECTS FOR EACH
INDEPENDENT VARIABLE GROUP.

Q	GROUPS	'B ADJ.'			'B SELF'			'B PRIN.'		
		n=	Mean	SD	n=	Mean	SD	n=	Mean	SD
Q1	Age > 40 years.	24	-2.75	23.14	24	30.29	31.68	23	32.96	21.41
	Age < 40 years.	30	-7.67	27.89	30	31.83	20.78	28	37.18	26.42
Q3	Marital Status - single.	14	-6.43	28.29	14	22.86	11.72	11	40.91	23.33
	Marital Status - Married.	23	-5.91	25.26	23	38.13	27.61	23	34.39	26.02
Q5	Have child/children of own.	35	-6.00	26.23	35	35.77	30.24	35	33.40	24.69
	No children of own.	19	-4.53	25.58	19	22.63	11.59	16	39.38	23.16
Q9	Length of service > 16 months.	23	-5.09	15.34	23	29.65	31.30	22	35.68	16.35
	Length of service < 16 months.	31	-5.77	31.63	31	32.26	21.60	29	34.97	28.99
Q10	Worked as houseparent previously.	36	-2.19	28.96	36	34.78	28.33	36	35.08	21.99
	Not worked as houseparent before.	18	-12.06	16.60	18	23.89	18.99	15	35.73	29.55
Q20	Ideal number for unit > 9.	18	-3.61	30.97	18	38.17	24.12	15	26.87	29.17
	Ideal number for unit < 9.	36	-6.42	23.17	36	27.63	26.42	36	38.78	21.21
Q21	Decide on admission into unit.	10	-18.80	24.17	10	29.00	16.47	10	26.57	20.15
	Management decides on admission.	43	-2.23	25.67	43	31.21	27.95	43	36.93	24.86
Q22	Confidence in management decision.	18	-1.11	22.33	18	42.61	31.83	18	23.06	16.99
	No confidence in their decision.	21	-10.43	29.65	21	27.38	21.25	21	47.05	27.96
Q23	Attend case conferences.	18	6.00	28.53	18	30.56	20.36	15	39.60	27.28
	Do not attend case conferences.	35	-11.06	22.86	35	31.49	29.00	35	34.00	23.00
Q24	Attend management meetings.	10	-6.00	20.52	10	32.70	21.64	10	33.57	25.93
	Do not attend management meetings.	44	-5.36	27.03	44	30.80	27.02	44	35.55	24.16
Q25	Have access to meeting minutes.	13	-1.31	30.58	13	34.00	21.32	13	30.77	20.44
	No access to meeting minutes.	36	-6.53	24.89	36	30.28	28.93	36	37.04	35.48
Q26	Encouraged in own natural style.	41	-9.95	21.18	41	28.46	27.04	38	33.97	24.16
	Averse to prescribed routines.	13	8.61	33.97	13	39.62	20.76	13	39.08	24.69
Q27	Make own rules for unit.	34	-0.91	26.31	34	32.26	28.19	31	38.16	23.98
	Rule making centralised.	20	-13.25	23.43	20	29.25	22.14	20	30.80	24.34
Q28	Responsible for punishment.	12	0.92	18.74	12	35.58	30.99	12	31.11	13.64
	Punishment centralised.	42	-7.31	27.37	42	29.88	24.58	42	36.17	25.89
Q29	Children active in running home.	42	-4.95	25.59	42	28.50	25.47	39	35.72	26.09
	Children take passive role.	12	-7.33	27.46	12	40.41	26.49	12	33.83	17.17
Q30	Children have input into policy.	17	-12.29	14.88	17	34.24	29.22	17	35.00	24.74
	No input into policy by children.	37	-2.35	29.11	37	29.73	24.58	34	35.41	24.22
Q31	Have input into policy decisions.	23	-11.09	19.53	23	31.09	25.40	20	26.00	23.65
	No input into policy decisions.	29	-0.93	30.17	29	33.00	26.71	29	43.41	22.05
Q32	Management is the "taskmaster".	44	-4.70	25.30	44	30.47	25.00	44	36.11	25.12
	Self the "taskmaster".	10	-10.71	30.35	10	35.71	33.47	10	30.00	17.31
Q33	Clear concept of expectations.	44	-8.64	19.13	44	29.25	26.81	41	32.32	23.96
	Not sure what is expected.	10	8.40	43.58	10	39.50	20.74	10	47.40	22.05
Q34	See role as therapeutic.	26	-3.00	21.09	26	19.81	15.59	23	38.04	18.99
	See role as custodial.	25	-8.12	31.44	25	45.28	28.74	25	36.16	27.77
Q35	More competent - therapeutic role.	20	-2.90	21.51	20	20.25	16.50	17	35.88	20.17
	More competent - custodial role.	27	-6.04	31.31	27	42.48	29.04	27	37.92	27.14
Q36	Experience role conflict.	15	-16.80	33.74	15	28.67	21.33	15	51.93	22.14
	Do not experience role conflict.	39	-1.13	20.90	39	32.10	27.69	36	28.33	21.65
Q37	Trust between self & management.	45	-4.51	21.23	45	29.17	26.44	42	30.12	21.65
	No relationship of trust.	7	-4.43	48.34	7	45.00	23.45	57	56.28	23.51
Q38a	Most "strokes" from colleagues.	6	1.33	28.75	6	20.00	8.94	5	38.00	15.65
	Most "strokes" from management.	11	-3.27	15.74	11	35.91	35.97	11	29.09	15.78
Q38b	Most "strokes" from children.	19	-8.36	34.13	19	28.42	23.16	19	38.63	26.13
	Most "strokes" from management.	11	-3.27	15.74	11	35.91	35.97	11	29.09	15.78
Q39	See positive results of work.	34	-8.38	20.50	34	35.06	29.18	31	37.29	22.52
	Do not see positive results.	12	-3.08	37.45	12	24.58	22.20	12	26.50	27.53
Q40	Expect success with > 40% child'n.	19	-18.05	22.09	19	28.42	24.15	19	31.05	27.71
	Expect success with < 40% child'n.	16	3.25	29.95	16	39.69	29.80	16	46.12	24.53
Q41	Housekeeping > 4 hours per day.	24	-4.62	27.74	24	39.04	29.87	24	40.37	21.05
	Housekeeping < 4 hours per day.	29	-6.52	24.90	29	25.00	21.04	27	30.74	26.15
Q45	Self development in other fields.	30	-7.00	25.05	30	23.83	22.23	27	33.89	22.80
	No self development outside.	24	-3.58	27.06	24	40.29	27.74	24	35.83	25.99

Q	GROUPS	'B ADJ.'			'B SELF'			'B PRIN'		
		n=	Mean	SD	n=	Mean	SD	n=	Mean	SD
		23	-13.48	23.71	23	28.04	20.43	22	30.91	25.76
Q46	Pursue active hobby.	29	-0.14	26.80	29	34.38	30.29	29	38.59	22.75
	Do not pursue active hobby.	21	-8.76	20.48	21	22.62	15.54	20	27.25	22.56
Q47	Partake of regular exercise.	31	-5.39	23.86	31	35.87	30.57	29	39.00	22.99
	Do not take regular exercise.									
Q49	Prepare meals.	29	-6.41	23.10	29	31.45	31.05	29	34.65	21.46
	Do not prepare meals.	22	-8.64	21.37	22	28.41	18.98	19	32.16	26.30
Q51	Accommodation - private flat.	22	-4.82	29.68	22	23.86	16.83	19	45.95	22.14
	Accommodation - room only.	32	-5.94	23.20	32	36.16	29.91	32	28.94	23.34
Q52	Days off - more than 6 per month.	23	-8.65	24.37	23	29.65	23.80	32	22.83	21.04
	Days off - less than 6 per month.	31	-3.13	26.91	31	32.26	27.74	28	45.50	21.88
Q53	Full quota of time-off taken.	33	-7.88	24.75	33	29.91	22.35	30	29.70	22.85
	Not all time-off taken.	20	0.35	26.48	20	34.75	31.10	20	42.90	24.82
Q54	Most time-off - away from the home.	29	-4.41	25.74	29	34.21	22.48	27	33.52	27.10
	Most time-off - in the home.	24	-5.21	25.71	24	28.75	29.57	23	36.69	21.02
Q56	Full quota of leave taken.	45	-9.02	21.72	45	25.55	23.40	42	31.52	20.75
	Not all leave taken.	8	15.25	38.53	8	57.75	20.54	8	58.12	29.51
Q57	Leave split over the year.	35	-12.86	27.49	35	29.00	27.30	35	37.40	27.09
	Leave taken all together.	18	9.22	14.68	18	33.17	22.44	15	32.00	15.21
Q58a	Leave - unplanned trips.	6	-37.33	10.97	6	43.33	31.75	6	71.67	2.89
	Leave - with family/friends.	27	-1.10	27.27	27	32.23	26.71	27	29.17	23.60
Q58b	Leave - away from home.	49	-3.55	26.10	49	32.49	25.50	46	34.54	24.78
	Leave - at home/with home child'n.	5	-24.40	11.50	5	18.00	29.50	5	42.00	17.89
Q59	Leave - allowance/alt. accom.	13	3.92	15.22	13	33.85	33.24	11	34.54	16.95
	Leave - no alt. accom./allowance.	39	-7.90	27.88	39	31.33	23.62	39	35.10	26.19
Q60	Time-off frequently messed around.	18	4.83	28.79	18	25.28	21.79	15	53.33	20.59
	Time-off seldom messed around.	35	-10.60	23.16	35	33.06	27.28	35	28.26	21.67
Q61	Days off when over-stressed.	16	-4.62	20.39	16	15.62	16.62	13	20.38	18.54
	No days off when over-stressed.	32	-2.87	29.14	32	39.28	27.58	32	43.75	24.20
Q62	Extra hours off when stressed.	39	-5.43	22.55	39	30.69	26.67	36	32.08	23.89
	No extra hours off when stressed.	13	-5.38	36.37	13	36.54	23.93	13	48.00	21.29
Q65	Extra duties - role variety.	8	11.00	36.73	8	31.87	24.19	5	66.00	28.81
	No role variety.	41	-6.61	23.05	41	31.27	27.20	41	32.93	22.13
Q66	Liason activities.	31	-6.87	26.93	31	24.03	19.12	28	43.53	24.90
	No liason activities.	22	-3.23	25.09	22	39.41	30.93	22	25.91	19.43
Q68	<u>Form in-service training takes:</u>									
a	Attend lectures outside home.	39	-2.46	23.22	39	34.92	28.20	36	36.91	24.32
	Do not attend outside lectures.	15	-13.33	30.97	15	21.33	15.64	15	31.33	24.09
b	Lectures given in the home.	41	-9.07	27.94	41	29.88	26.73	41	36.19	25.39
	No lectures given in the home.	13	5.84	12.14	13	35.15	23.79	10	31.50	18.86
c	In 'personal growth' group.	21	-11.85	21.22	21	32.14	26.72	18	36.61	24.90
	No 'personal growth' group.	33	-1.42	27.84	33	30.51	25.82	33	34.54	24.09
d	Regular individual supervision.	24	-6.83	28.45	24	38.33	25.86	24	38.08	26.49
	No individual supervision.	30	-4.40	23.85	30	25.40	24.93	27	32.78	20.95
Q72	Training confrontative.	19	-4.47	30.59	19	40.00	25.44	19	41.53	27.08
	Training not confrontative.	28	-4.68	24.40	28	27.93	27.75	28	30.53	19.74
Q76	Frequent contact - nat. parents.	18	-3.55	11.64	18	23.61	21.13	15	31.00	27.72
	Minimal contact - nat. parents.	36	-6.44	30.61	36	34.92	27.53	36	37.05	22.68
Q77	Frequent contact - host parents.	36	-8.05	26.19	36	27.42	22.52	33	33.45	25.07
	Minimal contact - host parents.	17	0.35	25.42	17	36.76	30.77	17	40.29	22.18
Q78	Weekly/daily serious crises.	13	1.23	33.39	13	33.85	32.99	12	38.33	25.17
	Seldom - serious crises.	41	-7.61	22.04	41	30.29	23.70	39	34.33	24.09
Q79	Organising creates anxiety.	7	18.14	17.72	7	24.28	19.67	7	30.71	14.56
	Organising - anxiety free.	47	-9.00	25.03	47	32.17	26.76	44	36.00	25.39
Q82	Similar experiences in own past.	10	-30.80	24.70	10	37.50	25.52	10	50.00	32.22
	Experiences different in own past.	44	0.27	22.54	44	29.70	26.10	41	31.68	20.65