BUREAUCRACY AND PROFESSIONALISM IN AN EDUCATIONAL ORGANISATION

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INTRODUCTION

AIMS AND PURPOSES

The development of human societies has been in essence a development of forms of social organisation. In modern societies, social organisation is complex, diverse, and characterised by conditions of industrialisation, division of labour, urbanisation, and the aggregation of individuals into large organisations with specific purposes. One form of social organisation which has developed to maintain social relationships in such conditions is the bureaucracy. Bureaucracies as structures, or systems of rational procedures deliberately set up to achieve specifically prescribed social ends, affect to some degree the lives of all citizens of modern societies.

Educational organisations are bureaucratised to varying degrees, and the rapid and accelerating demand for popular education suggests that bureaucratisation is likely to be a dominating characteristic of education in the future.

However, professionalism also provides a means for dealing with organisational needs - particularly authority structure and division of labour. A professional is assumed to be capable of rational judgments in his sphere of expertise independent of detailed task specifications. As such, professionalism may be antithetical to bureaucracy, or at least a distinct alternative to the rationalised procedures of bureaucracy.

Theoretically, the notions of bureaucracy and professionalism are opposed. And in fact, the majority of research on the professional in the organisation has been based on the classically simple assumption of conflict. The focus has been either to document the existence of such conflict, or the describe various reactions to it, usually in the form of typologies. In spite of the acknowledged capacity of professionals to work in bureaucratic organisations, there appears to be few empirical studies about the accommodation of professionals and bureaucratic organisations to each other.

It is the main purpose of the present investigation to examine professionalism and bureaucracy in a specific organisation - an educational one. It will study the extent to which a sample of teachers working in a bureaucratic setting simultaneously hold professional orientations and a commitment to the organisation. In addition, it will examine some of the conditions under which teachers may give commitment to the organisation, and to various sub-groups within the organisation. The present research examines specifically a group of teachers in a single, tertiary, teacher-training institution.

The thesis is subdivided into seven chapters, the first five giving the general background of the investigation and the final two dealing with the findings. Chapter I is a

theoretical consideration of one of the major concepts of the investigation, bureaucracy, and its relevance to schools as organisations. Chapter II is a theoreticall consideration of a second major concept of the investigation, professionalism, and its relevance to schools. Chapter III is a theoretical consideration of professionalism in bureaucratic work settings, including schools, and of the concept of organisational commitment as an accommodation technique. Chapter IV outlines the major hypotheses of the investigation, and Chapter V is a survey of the research methodology. The research findings are presented in Chapter VI, and discussed in Chapter VII.

CHAPTER I

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS - BUREAUCRACY

The term "bureaucracy", as used in Sociology, has two distinct but related meanings. Firstly, it is used to refer to certain principles of organisation, whereby the work of many individuals is systematically coordinated. Secondly, the term is used to refer to the particular type of organisation which uses these procedures to accomplish large-scale administrative tasks (Blau, 1956).

The Weberian Model

According to classic Weberian theory, bureaucracy is based on the legitimacy of designated authority, and on compliance by members of the organisation. That is, a bureaucracy operates on "legal authority of a rational nature." (Wrong, 1970).

Weber sets out five related conditions on which legal authority depends. These are[1]

(i) that a legal code can be established which can claim obedience from members of the organisation

(ii) that the law is a system of abstract rules which are applied to particular cases, and that administration looks after the interests of the organisation within the limits of that law

(iii) that those exercising authority also obey this impersonal order

(iv) that only as a member does the member obey the law

(v) that obedience is due not to the person holding authority, but to the impersonal order which has granted him this position.

On the basis of these conditions of legitimacy, Weber was able to formulate eight propositions about the structuring of legal authority systems. These are that[2]

(1) official tasks are organised on a continuous, regulated basis.

(2) these tasks are divided into functionally distinct spheres, each furnished with the requisite authority and sanctions.

(3) offices are arranged hierarchically, the rights of control and complaint between them being specified.

(4) the rules according to which work is conducted may be either technical or legal. In both cases trained men are necessary.

(5) the resources of the organisation are quite distinct from those of the members as private individuals.

(6) the office holder cannot appropriate his office.

(7) administration is based on written documents and this makes the office (bureau) the hub of the organisation.

(8) legal authority systems can take many forms, but are seen at their purest in a bureaucratic administrative staff.

The bureaucracy in its most rational form presupposes these, and has the following defining characteristics[3]

(1) the staff members are personally free, observing only the impersonal duties of their offices.

(2) there is a clear hierarchy of offices.

(3) the functions of the offices are clearly specified.

(4) officials are appointed on the basis of a contract.

(5) they are selected on the basis of a professional qualification ideally substantiated by a diploma gained through examination.

(6) they have a money salary, and pension rights. The salary is graded according to position in the hierarchy. The official can always leave the post and under certain circumstances it may also be terminated.

(7) the official's post is his sole or major occupation.

(8) there is a career structure, and promotion is possible either by seniority, or merit, and according to the judgment of superiors.

(9) the official may appropriate neither the post, nor the resources which go with it.

(10) he is subject to a varified control and disciplinary system.

These ten features constitute Weber's ideal-type, rational bureaucracy. Its characteristics of precision, discipline, continuity, and reliability make it technically the most satisfactory form of organisation, both for those holding positions within and for those who have dealings with the organisation from without.

Corwin (1965) suggests that Weber's characteristics of bureaucracy can be contained in two principles — specialisation and coordination. Specialisation is the process of breaking work down into standard components, accomplished through a hierarchy of positions and roles; and coordination is achieved through the centralisation of authority and standardisation of work.

This delineation of the basis and form of the rational bureaucracy has common ground with Blau's definition. Both have a structural, and a functional element.

Criticism of the Weberian Model

The Weberian definition of bureaucracy has been subject to considerable criticism. The rationality of the "rational bureaucracy" has been called into question.

One major set of criticisms attacks the failure of Weber's model to take account of the negative aspects of behaviour within bureaucratic organisations. Using Veblen's concept of "trained incapacity", Merton (1940) argues that rules, initially designed as means to ends, may well become ends in themselves. Similarly, entrenched officials, and the norms of impersonality governing official behaviour, may well produce self-defeating consequences. Selznick (1943) has similarly suggested that division of function may lead to sub-groups setting up goals which conflict with the purposes of the organisation as a whole.

The notion of the official as mere technical functionary has come under strong attack from Parsons (1947), Bendix (1949) Gouldner (1955), and Francis and Stone (1956). Parsons notes the internal inconsistency of attributing administrative staff both professional expertise, and bureaucratic authority. He contends that at the higher levels of the organisation administrative positions may not be accompanied by equivalent professional skill. This poses the problem of whether right to command, or greater expertise should gain compliance from members. Bendix, Gouldner, and Francis and Stone raise

further the problem of compliance to rules. They point out that although impersonality and fixed procedures may be demanded by the organisation, in practice the staff may adapt their actions to suit individuals, differing circumstances, and the general social and political climate.

The discussion is taken further by Blau (1956) and Stinchombe (1960). They argue that efficiency cannot be guaranteed only by the formulation of a set of official rules. It is the identification of the official with the purposes of the organisation as a whole that promotes efficient administration.

These critics of Weber's conceptualisation of bureaucracy have focussed largely on apparent dysfunctional consequences of internal inconsistencies of the model, and on what Blau (1963) has referred to as "Bureaucracy's Other Face" - the informal aspects of bureaucratic organisation.

Rebuttal to Criticisms of the Weberian Model

Rebuttals to criticisms of the Weberian model have been offered. Mouzelis (1967) and Albrow (1970) argue that it is not Weber's intention to construct a model of bureaucracy which directly approaches concrete reality. Rather, he identifies the administrative characteristics typical of a certain kind

of organisation. According to this approach an organisation is bureaucratic or non-bureaucratic according to the degree to which its features are similar to the Weberian characteristics. In this sense, considerations of "efficiency", which have preoccupied some critics, may be disregarded.

As a further refinement of this approach to bureaucracy, Mouzelis suggests that the attributes of bureaucracy be considered as dimensions, "each one varying quantitatively from one organisation to another." He thus avoids the bureaucratic — non bureaucratic dichotomy, and raises the prospect of organisations being more or less bureaucratic in one dimension than in another.

Despite his other criticisms, Blau (1956) recognised that Weber was well aware of the contradictory tendencies in the bureaucratic structure, and proposed the "ideal-type construct as a guide in empirical research, not as a substitute for it." This point is also taken up by Bendix (1968) who points out that Weber himself emphasized that an ideal-type simplifies and exaggerates the empirical evidence in the interests of conceptual clarity. A specific organisation then, may possess the constituent elements in varying degrees, or may even lack some. This lies behind

Weber's reference to "mixed types", for example the "patrimonial bureaucracy."

Conclusion on the Weberian Model

It is clear from this analysis of Weber's critics that no absolute refutation, or adequate alternative conceptualization has emerged. Bendix (1968) notes that none of the critics has as yet dispensed with Weber's definition, and Katz (1968) has commented that "it is probably fair to say that recent sociological theories of complex organisations are a series of footnotes to Weber."

With this judgment in mind, reference to bureaucracy in this investigation will be in terms of the Weberian model as outlined. Organisations will be considered bureaucratic to the extent that they display some or all of the following characteristics — — a division of labour; a hierarchy of authority with carefully prescribed responsibilities; a policy or system of rules; impersonality in the interaction of its members; appointment to office by contact and on the basis of professional qualification; and a career structure with promotion, salary and pension rights for officials.

Organisations

Any attempt to measure the relevance of the Weberian concept of bureaucracy to schools[4], is dependent upon an examination of the organisational properties of schools. The purpose of such an examination is to seek out unique characteristics of schools as organisations, in addition to those common to other formal organisations. It is the unique characteristics that have special implication for those within the organisation, and permit explanation and prediction of elements of the functioning of that organisation.

The difficulty of defining "organisation" has been illustrated by Berelson and Steiner (1964). They comment, apparently ruefully, that rather than define the term, it is easier and more useful to give examples. They then list types of organisations (e.g. business firms, military units, churches, hospitals, universities, labour unions) and from these identify what they consider to be a number of common characteristics, viz:

(i) an explicitly formulated set of goals, policies, procedures, rules and regulations that define appropriate behaviours for its members.

(ii) a pyramidal arrangement of power and authority, usually of at least three levels of authority.

(iii) a combination of size and/or complexity that precludes close personal relations among all members.

(iv) an organisation typically exists longer than the lifetime or affiliation of any particular member. (Berelson and Steiner 1964).

There are attributes of schools that reflect each of these criteria. As Berelson and Steiner point out, however, these qualities are common to all formal organisations.

Speculation then, as to whether the school can be termed a formal organisation is largely unprofitable. Within such general definitions the school clearly qualifies. (See also Etzioni 1964; Stinchcombe 1965; Udy 1965). In understanding the special organisational qualities of the school, such general statements have limited usefulness.

Schools as Organisations

A summary analysis of the special organisational qualities of schools is provided by Bidwell (1965), who suggests that the school exhibits four major, distinctive, organisational attributes. Three are related to the personnel of the organisation, and the fourth to its structure. Bidwell begins his analysis with the proposition that schools are client-serving institutions. Hence, he distinguishes between student and staff roles within the organisation. The student role is

ascribed and compulsory, whereas the staff achieve and hold their positions in the light of professional qualifications. According to this analysis, there is a fundamental distinction between the rights and responsibilities of the two types of personnel. Consequently their reasons for action are likely to differ considerably. Whereas the pupil will act in certain ways because he is constrained to do so by teachers, the teacher's behaviour is more likely to be constrained by considerations of professional ethics, or employee-employer relationships. The distinctive combination of bureaucracy and structural looseness in schools is noted in Bidwell's third characteristic. He comments that certain elements of bureaucratic structure and procedure are present in all schools. For example, staff are officeholders recruited on criteria of merit and competence. Their work is specified to some extent, there is some division of labour, and there is a hierarchy of authority. Administrative work follows set procedures, and the discretionary powers of officers are limited by specification. Bidwell notes however, that while these rudiments of bureaucracy are evident, one important characteristic of teacher role tends to transcend such system demands. This is teacher professionalism.[5] Professionalism is an important way of dealing with organisational needs for division of labour and for an

authority hierarchy, but notes Bidwell, it is a non-bureaucratic way. Given these counter elements, Bidwell attributes to the school the distinctive features of bureaucracy, but as well, a characteristic structural looseness. The fourth special organisational quality of schools discussed, is the "dual responsibility of its officers to a clientele and to a public constituency." However Swift (1969) suggests that this may better be seen as an aspect of professionalism, for responsibility to the client and to the public tend to be specified according to the rules made by teachers themselves.

Other distinctive features of the school as an organisation are seen as arising from its function of "people-processing" (Rhea 1963). Fraser (1967) also comments that, firstly, there are problems associated with the specification of the organisational goals. Educational goals are usually "vaguely stated; multiple in nature, such that the school is expected to do many different things to meet the expectations of its many publics; and conflictful, in the sense that different publics may want mutually incompatible things."

A further feature arising from the schools people-processing function is that there is considerable variability in the "input", and no agreed criterian such as production figures or financial statement, by which all processes and "output" can be

evaluated. Similarly, the "products" become an important variable in the operation of the organisation, continuously affecting the nature of the processing.

In summary, specific considerations of schools suggest that they have several salient organisational properties associated with their function as people-processing, client-serving, public-oriented institutions. For example, goals are usually vaguely stated, multiple, and often conflicing; processes are affected by the product in process; and outcomes are difficult to measure. In addition, schools are both bureaucratic, and paradoxically, structurally loose. The paradox apparently inheres in the fact that teachers' conceptions of themselves as professional persons lead them to doubt the relevance of the concept of bureaucracy for the school.

Schools and Bureaucracy

Corwin (1965) states that "complex organisations in modern societies are bureaucratised, and schools are no exception." This view is supported both by Bidwell's analysis of the organisational properties of schools, and by Swift (1969) who points out that all school systems are bureaucratised to some extent. For example, staff are officeholders who are recruited according to certain criteria of merit and competence. They

gain salary and seniority on achievement and qualifications. They enjoy security of tenure by contract, and the requirements of their work are laid down with varying degrees of specificity. Further, staff roles include expectations for universalistic, affectively - neutral relationships with students, especially in connection with student evaluation. There is some division of labour, and there is a clear hierarchy of responsibility and authority, both within the school and through to higher and removed echelons of the system. As well, administrative work goes on according to rules of procedure which set limits to the discretionary powers of officeholders, by specifying both the aims and the modes of official action. Administrative staff have generally been recruited because of their expertise in both administration and teaching, and tend generally to refine their administrative performance (whence lies further promotion) and gradually surrender their teaching expertise. Lines of authority are respected irrespective of the particular incumbents of positions. Finally, the resources of the school are distinct from those of the individuals within the school. For one of the major groups in the school, the staff, there is a clear career structure.

Corwin (1965) suggests that bureaucracy in schools consists essentially of two operating principles, coordination and specialisation. Specialisation, the process of breaking work

down into standard components, is accomplished through a hierarchy of teaching offices, which establish spheres of delegated authority. This hierarchy may range from the relatively undifferentiated, as in the primary school, to the finely differentiated structure of the large university. On the other hand, the counter process of coordination is set in motion because of specialisation. Special offices must be created with responsibility for reintegrating the specialised activities into a coherent whole. Coordination is in turn achieved through the further principles of centralisation of authority and standardisation of work. Standardisation is based on rules, which represent the extension of central authority into the routine work situation. In schools, rules are stated specifically in terms of such things as curriculum guidelines, attendance regulations, and requirements for periodic clerical returns and progress reports from teachers.

Corwin points out that centralisation, standardisation and specialisation do not necessarily occur at the same rates. It is possible for a school, or a school system, to be highly centralised and yet not standardised nor specialised to the same degree.

Thus, Corwin's statement is reminiscent of the Mouzelis argument, that organisations can be measured in terms of being

more or less bureaucratic in a variety of bureaucratic elements.

While these elements of bureaucracy are evident in varying degrees in schools, the notion of a professional staff is in conflict with some of these elements. At the very least, professionalism may produce some elements of "debureaucratisation" (Eisenstadt 1961). In its strongest form it may offer an alternative to the centralized authority structure of schools. However, due to the dual nature of school operation (teaching in separate classroom units, and administering these units) even as an alternative, professionalism would require its own administrative structure. The modern large school, or school system, with its tendencies towards larger units and to centralisation of administration, appears unable to avoid some elements of bureaucratic administrative structure, particularly as teachers are normally salaried employees. The extent to which these bureaucratic elements impinge on the routine work activities of teachers and the area of their professional exper expertise, will depend upon a variety of factors. One of these will be teachers' conception of what professionalism entails, and the strenght with which they hold this conception. As Corwin indicates, it is likely that the inconsistent expectations for teachers to be professional persons while being employees in complex bureaucracies, will create "status dilemmas" for the personnel involved.

The analysis of certain "status dilemmas for teachers is a focus of this investigation. However, before this can be undertaken, some consideration must be given to the elements of professionalism itself, and to the relationship of professionalism to bureaucracy within the context of the school.

Footnotes

(1), (2), (3). This version of Weber's ideal-typical formulation of legal authority and bureaucratic administrative staff is taken from Wirtschaft and Gesellschaft, translated by A.M. Henderson and T. Parsons, in The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation, 1947

(4) The term "school" is used throughout this study as a synonym for any formal educational organisation. It therefore ranges from kindergarten to university.

(5) See Chapter II for a fuller treatment of this topic.

(6) See Duties of Teachers, Teachers' Legal and Service Handbook, New Zealand Educational Institute, Wellington, 1965, 97-124.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS - PROFESSIONALISM

Most analyses of "profession" begin with a discussion of attributes thought to be definitive (Flexner 1915; Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1944; Greenwood 1957). Specific professions are then seen as possessing these attributes to lesser or greater degrees. The whole approach, like characteristic approaches to the definition of bureaucracy, rests on an ideal-type base.

The Structural Model

The first major attempt to make profession a scientific concept can be traced to Flexner (1915). The six conditions essential to his definition of a profession are summarised below.

(i) Its activities must be largely intellectual

(ii) There must be a large amount of individual responsibility

(iii) The raw material for the activity must be gathered from science and learning

(iv) This must be worked up to a practical and definite end.

(v) There must be an educationally communicable technique

(vi) Practitioners must become increasingly altruistically motivated.

Flexner's conditions are almost entirely structural, with only (vi), which refers to a presumed strengthening of attitude over a period of time, the exception. Despite this weighting of structural conditions, Flexner appears to place some priority on attitude by adding a rider "but after all, what matters most is professional spirit."

On the other hand the presence of an intellectual technique acquired by special training, which performs a service for society, and is unavailable to the laity, is seen by Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1944) as the major criterion for professional status. A similar general position is taken by Parsons (1968) who notes that the core criteria of a profession are clear. They are, he says

"(i) The requirement of formal technical training accompanied by some institutionalised mode of validating both the adequacy of the training and the competence of trained individuals. Training must lead to some order of mastery of a generalised cultural tradition, and do so in a manner giving prominence to an intellectual component.

(ii) Not only must the cultural tradition be mastered (i.e. understood) but skills in some form of its use must also be developed.

(iii) A full fledged profession must have some institutional means of making sure that such competence will be put to socially responsible uses e.g. medicine, teaching, research." (Parsons 1968).

Somewhat earlier, Parsons (1959) had discussed the apparent incompatibility of the terms "intellectual" and "technique", and refined the criterion to contain activities which are either applied, or primarily concerned with the advancement and transmission of empirical knowledge. This may well be more simply stated by saying that "professions are organised around bodies of knowledge." (Hall (1969)

An alternative view has been put forward by Greenwood (1957). For profession identification he demands (i) the presence of a systematic theory, intellectual and/or practical, based on research; (ii) clear professional authority based on the client's belief that the professional's knowledge permits correct judgment in serious matters; (iii) both formal and informal community sanction of the profession's power and priveleges; (iv) a regulative code of ethics delineating appropriate behaviour of the professional towards his clients and his fellow professionals; (v) a professional culture, containing norms for training and practice, as well as the language and symbols of the profession.

However, Gross (1958) has moved from these predominantly structural analyses to consider dimensions which are clearly attitudinal. He favoures characteristics which appear to inhere in the orientation of the person concerned, rather than structural attributes which can be ascribed. Gross postulates a personality involvement continuum, and says "the professional" is characterised by a high degree of involvement, which is transmitted to his clients in the form of their belief that he will consistently act in their best interests. Further, he will demonstrate a well developed sense of obligation to his task, and a close identification with his colleagues through both formal and informal professional associations. This close identification serves to both reinforce his professional orientation and to act as a source of control over his behaviour.

Gross also requires structural characteristics. He points out that the professional works with an unstandardised product. His knowledge is applied to solving particular and unique problems which do, however, fit within a general body of theoretical knowledge.

An important structural characteristic with implications for attitudinal orientation has been put forward by Goode (1960). Goode suggests that the student of a profession undergoes a more far-reaching adult socialisation process than the person learning other occupations. He suggests that professional training not

only requires longer formal education, but also involves socialisation into appropriate attitudes and behaviours. This leads Goode to postulate further that a profession, like a bureaucratic office, is typically the terminal occupation for members. Not only has the professional a personal investment of time and money in the occupation, because his skills and his attitudes are relatively fixed by the long period of socialisation, easy occupational change is precluded also.

A synthesis of much of the earlier literature on professionalism is attempted by Wilensky (1964). He draws out a schema to differentiate structural from attitudinal characteristics. In it his structural characteristics are ordered to form a set of sequential stages through which occupations typically pass in the process of professionalisation. These stages, briefly, are

(i) the creation of a full-time occupation

(ii) the establishment of a training school

(iii) the formulation of professional associations

(iv) the formation of a code of ethics.

Such a formulation has value for summarising the nature and order of the structural components, and may be useful as a crude means of determining the degree to which various occupations can be seen as professional.

The Attitudinal Model

In recent years there has been a tendency to be less concerned with structural elements, and more concerned with the behavioural implications of attitudes. Colombotos (1962) identifies three criteria on which there is contemporary consensus, viz technical competence, antonomy, and service ideal. In his own approach he then concentrates on role perceptions that arise from these three elements. He stipulates that professional persons are marked by a feeling of expertise in carrying out their occupational functions, a perception that they are able and prepared to act autonomously, and a disposition to place the welfare of the client before profit, self-interest and institution.

It seems that, as Colombotos points out, professional autonomy is a key element in the theoretical consideration of professionalism, whether structural or attitudinal. The professional is expected to utilise his judgment, and only other professionals will be in any position to question it. In terms of attitude, autonomy is related to the professional's feeling that he is free to exercise his own discretion. Hall (1969) suggests that this attitudinal aspect may be the most crucial of all, since an individual's attitude reflects the manner in which he perceives his work. If the assumption that attitudes influence behaviour is correct, then professional attitudes should relate to professional behaviour, with attitudes thus an important

component of professionalism. As Hughes (1960) comments, "professionalism is a state of mind, not a reality."

The relative priority of attitudinal and structural elements is discussed further by Hall. He suggests that the two sets of variables do not necessarily vary together. Thus, the more professionalised occupations structurally are not always the most professionalised attitudinally. Hall suggests that the attitudinal attributes crucial to professionalism are

(i) "the use of the professional organisation as a major reference. Both the formal organisation and informal colleague groupings can be the major source of ideas and judgment for the professional in his work.

(ii) a belief in service to the public. This component includes the idea that the occupation is indispensible, and that it benefits both the public and the practitioner.

(iii) a belief in self-regulation. This involves the belief that, since the persons best qualified to judge the work of professionals are his fellows, colleague control is both desirable and practical.

(iv) a sense of calling to the field. This attitude reflects the dedication of the professional to his

work, and his feeling that he would probably want to continue in the occupation even if fewer extrinsic rewards were available.

(v) a sense of autonomy. This involves the feeling that the practitioner ought to be allowed to make his own decisions without external pressures from clients, from others who are not members of his profession, or from his employing organisation." (Hall 1969).

This basically attitudinal model of professionalism is adopted for this investigation of professionalism in an educational organisation. The Hall position is taken, that the presence of a measure of either professional structure or attitude does not guarantee necessarily the presence of a similar measure of the other. Hence it is argued that the low level of professional structure attributed to teaching by Page (1951), Liebermann (1956), Katz (1964), Corwin (1965), Hall (1967), and Etzioni and Lortie (1969), does not of necessity indicate a correspondingly low level of professional attitude and behaviour.

Some consideration must be given, however, to the extent and nature of professional attitudes and behaviour associated with the special conditions of the school.

Professionalism and Schools

Both theory and empirical research indicate that schools can be seen to display bureaucratic elements. There is less certainty in the literature that schools are a natural environment for professionalism, or that teachers can be regarded as professionals, either structurally or attitudinally.

Despite certain reservations which will be outlined, the position taken in this investigation is that some degree of teacher professionalism is a necessary attitudinal outcome of the organisational properties of schools.

The proposition that it is a mistake to think that all teachers should be considered members of the same profession, is advanced by Liebermann (1956). He suggests that there is advantage in regarding teachers as comprising a cluster of related but different occupations. Casual observation would suggest some such variation between different divisions of the system is apparent in New Zealand - - particularly over the strength with which professionalism is held to be a significant basis for action.

On the one hand the major teachers' organisations publicly refer to themselves as professional organisations, in the same way as do the established professional groups. Policy statements by teachers' organisations reflect the dynamics of professionalisation in action, as Vollmer and Mills (1966) have

specified them. For example teachers are urged:

> "We must accept that teaching is an occupation wherein the practitioners, possessing high moral principles and a deep sense of social of social responsibility, render a personal service based on the possession of a body of knowledge particular to the calling and a set of specialised skills gained initially through rigorous education and training demanding high intellectual attributes and reinforced from time to time in service, wherein the practitioners individually endeavour to fulfil scrupulously all their obligations and wherein they collectively either determine or strongly influence and safeguard standards of conduct and performance." (1)

Furthermore the drive from "semi-profession" (Etzioni 1969) to the full status of a profession is to be achieved attitudinally:

> "*To help teaching further gain the standing it must have in the minds of the public, we must publicly exhibit respect for and pride in the profession of teaching.
>
> *We must provide for the public the image of the teacher as the expert in the classroom.

*We must be able to prepare not only children to deal effectively with a situation of increasing change but teachers also.

*Realising the complexity of human dynamics, and dedicated to giving the best service possible, we must accept that we can earn professional status. We earn what we are worth in the eyes of the community, no more.

*When the profession is ethically bound to give the best service the community is similarly bound not to accept such service without adequate compensation.

*We must make efforts to ensure that we ourselves and our fellow members are suitably qualified and remain competent for the work we have to do. This means we must press for the highest minimum qualifications for entry, a demanding preparation period and continuing in-service training.

*The authority of competence must be recognised and respected.(2)

Members are urged to adopt a professional code of ethics.

"Teaching is a profession, and membership of a profession carries with it obligations as well as privileges. These obligations concern loyalty, discipline and fair play. Believing that it is essential to create a fellowship conforming to recognised ethics, members (are expected) to conduct themselves honourably in their professional practice and to do their utmost to promote and maintain the dignity and welfare of the profession as a whole. To that end the following actions have been declared unethical

(1) For any member to attempt to influence the Minister, the Department or an Education Board . . . . in a manner contrary to the expressed decisions of the (professional organisation).

(2) For any member to apply for or accept a position which the (professional organisation) directs is not at the time to be filled by members.

(3) For any teacher to censure other teachers or to criticise their work in the hearing of pupils.

(4) For any teacher to be found guilty of conduct

seriously detrimental to the interests of the profession, or the (professional organisation).

(5) For any teacher by public statement to bring the profession into disrepute." 3

On the other hand, in many aspects teachers do not meet the structural criteria for professionalism. While acknowledging that teachers fulfil some of these requirements, Turner (1970) suggests that teachers fail on five particular counts. Briefly, these are that

(i) it is difficult to identify the specialised pedagogical skill or to describe its basis in scientific terms.

(ii) the value of educational theory is generally decried by teachers while practice and experience are highly valued.

(iii) testing of the knowledge acquired in training is less rigorous than in other professions, as adequate performance in examinations is not necessarily a predictor of adequate classroom performance.

(iv) the teacher's authority is not based upon expert attention sought and paid for by the client, but on involuntary compulsion in most cases.

(v) teachers do not control entry to the profession or dismiss practitioners for incompetence or unprofessional

> conduct, and have failed to resist the appointment of unqualified and untrained staff.

Similarly Corwin (1965) has noted that teachers

> "have virtually no control over their standards of work. They have little control over the subjects to be taught; the materials to be used; the criteria for deciding who should be admitted, retained, and graduated from training schools; the qualifications for teacher training; the forms to be used for reporting pupil progress; school boundary lines and the criteria for permitting students to attend; and other matters that affect teaching. Teachers have little voice in determining who is qualified to enter teaching."

Turner and Corwin's criticisms may apply equally well to New Zealand teachers.

Nonetheless, as Katz (1964) has indicated, it is in the large degree of autonomy accorded teachers that main opportunity and necessity for professional behaviour arises. Katz suggests that autonomy may be greater than conventional conceptualisations of bureaucracy have led us to believe. Teacher autonomy is reflected in the social structure of schools, and has as its functional basis a structure related to specialisation of tasks.

Further, the specification for student achievement and assessment which is characteristic of modern school systems, requires that relationships between teachers be universalistic, and should not involve subjective personal factors. The teachers own assessment of any situation however, may lead him to the judgment that pupil achievement is dependent upon satisfactory socialisation, and that socialisation goals are best achieved by affective, particularistic relationships. If he acts autonomously on the basis of his concern for his "client", then his actions seem to be derived from a professional orientation.

Empirical studies support this observation. Taking the Merton and Gross position that professionalism inheres in the orientation of the person concerned, Hall (1967) established that American teachers, in comparison with other "white-collar" occupational groups, show high professional orientation. This finding has support from Colombotos (1962) and Corwin (1970).

The extent to which New Zealand teachers consider themselves to be professionals, hold professional orientations, or are judged to act professionally has not been widely measured (Hansen and King, 1965).

The most extensive modern survey of teacher role in New Zealand (Biddle, Adams, Fraser and Holmes, 1968) includes a

cross section of New Zealand teachers in its international sample, but does not examine professionalism as a source of behaviour.

One recent study (Levesque 1970) attempts to measure the extent to which a perception of professionalism is a significant source of behaviour in New Zealand secondary school teachers. Although he records secondary teachers' aspirations for professional status, Levesque's findings are largely inconclusive.

It appears that any investigation concerned with teacher professionalism in New Zealand is an excursion into an almost entirely unmapped area. Taking the Katz position that teacher professionalism is inherent in the autonomy structure of schools, it is the intention of this investigation to contribute to the mapping of this aspect of educational organisation in New Zealand.

For the purposes of this investigation, the concept of professional orientation is a major variable. To be considered professionally oriented a teacher must see himself as student oriented, colleague oriented, technically competent, and prepared to exercise autonomy in decision making. These components of professional orientation are elaborated further in the discussion of methodology.

Footnotes

*1, 2: Policy statement by the New Zealand Educational Institute, in "Policy 1970-1971," Supplement to National Education, November 1970.

3. Teachers' Legal and Service Handbook. New Zealand Educational Institute, Wellington 1965 p.5

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS - PROFESSIONALISM IN BUREAUCRACIES

It has been suggested that the twin conditions of increasing bureaucratisation of modern life, and increasing professionalism in some occupational groups are certain to create personal problems for those involved in both (Reissman 1949; Gouldner 1957, Corwin 1961). This is thought to be particularly so for those with professional attitudes whose work setting is part of a large organisation. It is theoretically likely that the organisational setting confronts the professional with many situations in which organisational and bureaucratic norms run counter to professional attitudes and standards.

It is conventional to interpret the professional's response to such situations in terms of either overt conflict (Merton 1947, Scott 1966) or some readily categorised rationalisation of conflict (Reissman 1949; Page 1951; Gouldner 1958).

The primary contention of the present investigation is that for many professionals there is possible and likely a further mode of response, viz. to consider various patterns of a accommodation. One such accommodation response is to extend the perception of professionalism to incorporate a commitment to the organisation, when its goals are seen as consistent with professional goals. It is this form of accommodation which is the concern of this investigation.

The remainder of this chapter is concerned with developing the theoretical framework within which the investigation is undertaken, and setting the problem in the context of an educational organisation.

The Conflict Model

The intrinsic dilemma facing the professional working in a bureaucratic organisation is expressed in the principle of accountability, as postulated by Weber. Accountability implies that all actions are subject to scrutiny and criticism by higher authority, whereas professionalism involves elements of trust in the skill and wisdom of the professional as he makes his own (professional) judgments. It is apparent that these elements are in conflict with each other, as the trust implicit in the employment of professionals is at odds with the distrust implicit in the accountability principle.

Initially it was Weber himself who pointed this out. He noted that the tendency of officials to increase their intrinsic superiority as experts by keeping their knowledge and intentions secret, was a major obstacle standing in the way of accountability. More recent analyses have examined the tensions typically arising in the relations between experts and top administrative officials in public bureaucracies (Page 1951), and, more generally the conflict inherent when professionals are involved

in both decision making and administrative implementation (Merton, 1949).

Four basic sources of conflict for the professional in a bureaucratic organisation have been suggested by Scott (1966) The professional, Scott says, may resist bureaucratic rules because they demand methods that are at variance with his internalised normative system. He may further resist bureaucratic standards which in their universalistic application, will contravene his consideration for individual clients. Thirdly, Scott suggests that the professional may resist bureaucratic supervision, particularly if it is likely to place the professional in a subordinate position to another with less expertise. Scott's fourth source of conflict is the professional's conditional loyalty to the organisation, in that it is likely to offer a reward system based on successive advances within the organisation. Kornhauser (1963) identifies four somewhat similar sources of built-in strains between organisational and professional values. He specifies these as being in the nature of the goals sought, the source of control over the professional's work, the kinds of incentives sought, and questions as to who has the ultimate power in decision making.

The theoretical potential for such professional - bureaucratic conflict is indisputable. However, as Hall points out, it is by

no means obvious that professionals within bureaucratic settings do experience more conflict than professionals in other non-bureaucratic work settings. Further, Hall points to the subtle pejorative overtones that pervade such analyses of bureaucratic - professional conditions. These generally imply that professionals are necessarily "good," while the organisation, blocking the higher ideals of professionalism, is ipso facto "bad". There is however, no clear evidence that all the consequences of such conflict are wholly negative. Just as the argument that an atmosphere of conformity is a necessary conditions for the developing of non - conformity,[1] it may well be argued that a bureaucratic organisation offers opportunity for the strengthening of professional attitudes and attributes.

The position taken in the present investigation is that the conflict model on its own is an inadequate and incomplete explanation of the professional's response to bureaucratic work conditions, and that an explanation postulating some form of accommodation is more appropriate.

The Accommodation Model

In specific cases, the prospective theoretical incompatibility of bureaucracy and professionalism may well be diminished or avoided by accommodation on the part of the organisation, or the professional, or both. That is, conflict need not arise for

either the organisation or the professional. For example Kornhauser (1963) points out that one scientific research establishment adjusted to the presence of professionals by allocating control of administrative matters on the basis of hierarchical principles of authority, while subjecting professional matters to group decision - making. Kornhauser concludes that in fact organisations vary widely in their adaptations to professional employees. That they do adapt however, is not surprising, as the employment of professionals by organisations is a necessary condition for organisational survival. At the same time, the survival of the organisation is a necessary condition for the (vocational) survival of the professionals in it.

Hence, accommodation of the organisation to the presence of professionals is often accompanied by reciprocal accommodation of professionals to the organisation (Hall, 1969)

Several typologies of accommodation by individuals to system demands have been formulated. These include Gouldner's "cosmopolitans" and "locals", Corwin's linear professional - employee model, Page's "ritualists", "neurotics", "robber barons", and "rebels", and Reissman's "functional, specialist, service and job bureaucrats." The major weakness of these typologies is that they appear to ascribe clearly defined personality - types to individuals observed in particular

circumstances. There appears to be a fundamental fallacy in assuming a necessary connection between bureaucracy and bureaucratic personality. Such a focus on only one of a number of alternatives (e.g. role perception, contextual restraints etc.) suggests the incapacity of the individual to regulate the dilemmas of work.

The significance of such typologies however, is the implied recognition that some professionals can accommodate to bureaucratic conditions without excessive loss of professional orientation, or excessive conflict. This is typified by Reissman's (1949) functional bureaucrat, who is described as seeking professional recognition and organisational acceptance, perceiving quality of work to be as important as work procedures, and experiencing little or no conflict from the clash of professional and organisational claims. Supporting this point, Corwin (1965) while reaffirming that the professional employee in a bureaucracy encounters one of the fundamental role conflicts of modern society, also points out that the professional has within his power the ability to compromise, and to organise the roles in order to avoid much of the conflict. For example professionals may perceive multiple career lines open to them, and move into higher levels within their professional field, or into higher levels of administration. Such movement into administrative echelons might well initiate further reciprocal

accommodation, as the professional attributes of specialist staff should be well understood by those recently promoted from the field. Such accommodation is likely to be most frequent in organisations in which professionals recognise system demands as legitimate.

Professionalism and Organisational Commitment

If professionals are to function in and for organisations then, it seems essential that organisations and their professionals must identify with each other to some extent. This means that for the organisation and the individual both professional and system commitment is crucial. The particular relevance of this point for personnel in the higher levels of the organisation has been recognised by Merton (1965) who claims that the closer an individual is to the locus of decision-making in public bureaucracies, the greater the likelihood of "compromise with the realities of the case". This contention, that such compromise is achieved by the professional's capacity to recognise organisation demands as legitimate, and consequently to develop commitment to the organisation applies too, and is of considerable importance, in educational organisations.

Professionalism, Organisational Commitment, and Schools

It has been established that many teachers can be regarded

as holding professional orientations while working in settings which reflect bureaucratic characteristics. Teachers, no less than other professionals, are faced with organisational - professional ambiguities. Empirical studies support the notion that teachers with high professional orientations display behaviour consistent with some degree of organisational commitment (Moeller and Charters 1966; Corwin 1970; Thornton 1971). Significantly, this is apparently possible without undue loss of professional commitment.

For example, Moeller and Charters (1966) found that in bureaucratic settings, a teacher's sense of power increased with length of service. Specific items measuring "sense of power" in this study relate closely to aspects of autonomy, an important component in teacher professionalism. Moeller and Charter's data support the contention that teachers can satisfactorily reconcile organisational and professional demands, and suggest that this is increasingly so with long term associations. Similarly, the conflict arising for teachers with professional orientations while working in schools with varying degrees of bureaucratic structure was measured by Corwin (1970), utilizing the "conflict model" of professional - bureaucracy relationships. Because there were apparent contradictions involved in the "compliancy" exhibited by some of the teachers, Corwin's data seem to support Merton's notion that as individuals advance

within the organisation they tend to perceive its demands as legitimate. Again, Thornton (1971) found that in junior colleges conventional "conflict" explanations are inadequate operationalisations of organisational - professional relations. Under certain conditions related to the qualifications of senior staff, Thornton reports that junior college teachers readily maintain dual commitments to both organisation and profession. Thornton concludes that "there does not necessarily have to be a choice between the profession and the organisation for professional employees".

Professionalism, Organisational Commitment, and this Investigation

The aim of this investigation is two fold:

(i) Taking the position argued in theory that professionalism is basically attitudinal, it examines the concept of professional orientation in teachers as it relates to organisational commitment.

(ii) Given that schools are bureaucratised according to elements of the Weberian model, it examines the extent to which teachers both accommodate to organisation demands, and retain a professional orientation.

*Footnote

(1) This argument is used by Liam Hudson in "Contrary Imaginations" to account for part of the development of divergent scientific thinking in secondary school boys.

CHAPTER IV

HYPOTHESES

As discussion in preceding chapters has shown, theoretical analyses of the properties of schools and the characteristics of teachers have frequently suggested an organisational - professional hiatus (Page 1951; Bidwell 1965). Despite this, bureaucratic schools and professional teachers apparently survive contact with each other (Moeller and Charters 1966; Corwin 1970; Thornton 1971). Furthermore, such a survival for both the organisation and its professionals does not appear to be achieved at great cost. However, survival does appear to be dependent upon two main conditions: firstly, the special characteristics of both organisation and professional must be sustained (despite their assumed "discreteness"); secondly, the legitimacy of both profession and organisation has to be recognised.

To achieve such a condition poses problems for both organisation and professional. The problems appear to be threefold viz; (i) to what extent can the organisation, without vitiating its goals, accommodate its bureaucratic procedures to autonomy demands from its professional employees? (ii) to what extent can the professional recognise system demands as legitimate? and (iii) to what extent can the professional employee accommodate to system demands and still retain a

discernibly professional orientation. It is these questions with which this investigation is primarily concerned, and the hypotheses it tests follow from them.

Three sets of hypotheses are put forward. The first consists of the major hypothesis, (H.1.) which is concerned with the capacity of teachers for simultaneous commitment to both profession and organisation. The second set of hypotheses, (H2-4) deals with organisational commitment and priority commitments to organisational reference groups. This set relates to the main hypothesis. The third set, (H5-7) less central to the investigation, deals with the relationship between professional orientation, professional behaviour, and self rating on professionalism. All are dealt with in turn below.

Organisational commitment and professionalism are functionally independent:

H.1. Scores on organisational commitment and professionalism will not covary

Although the concepts of bureaucracy and professionalism have been argued to be theoretically opposed, the fact that organisations and professionals "survive" suggests an alternative thesis is necessary. Were it not possible to hold simultaneous commitments to both profession and organisation, by definition

the professional would be precluded from high level administrative positions. The disturbing conclusion would then have to be that either the unprofessional get promoted, or the promoted become unprofessional. Observation of administrators in organisations suggests that neither is necessarily the case. High administrative and professional qualities are expected of and displayed by the same persons. It is asserted therefore, that there should be no significant differences in the professionalism scores of individuals displaying high or low organisational commitment.

For the present study the hypothesis will be tested by comparing the professionalism scores of populations reflecting varying degrees of organisational commitment. Support for the hypothesis will be gained if no significant difference is revealed.

Organisational commitment is a function of status within the organisation:

H.2. The higher the status, the higher the organisational commitment.

Distance from the centre of organisational policy making is assumed to be a factor affecting commitment to the organisation. The greater the opportunity to participate in shaping organisational policies and practices, the greater the likelihood that system demands arising from such decision making will be recognised as legitimate. As high status positions offer the

greatest opportunity to participate in shaping policy and practice, it is hypothesised that organisational commitment is a function of status in the organisation. The hypothesis will be confirmed if respondents in high status positions score significantly higher on organisational commitment measures than do those of lower status.

Organisational commitment is a function of length of service in the organisation:

H.3. The longer service in the organisation, the higher the organisational commitment.

The longer a teacher serves in an organisation the more likely he is to develop a greater knowledge of the goals and procedures of the organisation. Such knowledge, it is assumed, will lead to understanding, and understanding to sympathy.

Commitment to colleague reference groups is a function of organisational commitment:

H.4. The higher organisational commitment, the higher the commitment to colleague reference groups.

Organisational commitment represents a recognition of the legitimate claims of the organisation, or of those sub-groups of the organisation with the power and authority to pursue organisational goals. As organisational commitment is a complex personal attribute, and the sub-groups of an educational

organisation are many, it may be expected that commitment to the organisation and to sub-groups will show many patterns of variation. However, some consistencies may be predicted. If teachers regard each other as colleagues, through proximity and frequent association with each other, it is likely that they will be prepared to modify their behaviour more for immediate colleague reference groups than for individuals, non-colleague groups, or colleague groups far removed from their normal contact. However, as immediate colleague groups have power to expect individuals to modify their actions in the overall interests of the organisation, such modifications as are made may be interpreted as commitment to the organisation. It is likely then, that teachers who show high preparedness to modify their behaviour will display most preparedness to modify for their immediate colleague reference groups viz course colleagues, and department.

Professional behaviour is a function of professional orientation:

H.5. The higher the professional orientation, the higher the professional behaviour.

Professional orientation and professional behaviour are personal attributes, distinct but related. Professional orientation refers to the expression of personal attitudes about what occupational roles ought to be, whereas professional

behaviour refers to the actual performance of an occupational role. Although it is reasonable to assume that the two conditions are related, the direction of the relationship is not altogether clear. That is, it has not been established unequivocably that a professional orientation elicits professional behaviour, or whether the reverse is the case. However, it is predictable that professional persons act on the basis of rational decisions based on an identifiable conceptual framework, and that this will be demonstrated by a positive relationship between professional orientation and professional behaviour.

Self rating on professionalism is a function of professional orientation:

H.6. The higher the professional orientation, the higher the self rating on professionalism.

The extent to which professional persons see themselves as high or low in professionalism in comparison to other professionals is not clear. Neither is it clear whether such perceptions are a basis for action. However, on face value a general professional orientation should reflect the grounds on which the professional bases his perceptions of his own and others' professionalism. This would be demonstrated by a positive relationship between professional orientation and self rating on professionalism.

Self rating on professionalism is a function of professional behaviour:

H.7. The higher the professional behaviour, the higher the self rating on professionalism

Persons who are prepared to undertake a self rating on professionalism presumably do so on the basis of some private perception of the behavioural attributes of professionalism. It may also be presumed that persons whose behaviour is classified by others as professional can rationalise perceptions of their behaviour in relation to their perceptions of the relative performance of others. A positive relationship then, between professional behaviour and self rating on professionalism would demonstrate this.

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

THE RESEARCH FOCUS

Organisations with professional employees face a two-fold problem. On the one hand the professionalism of these employees must be cherished, since this is presumably the basis for their appointment. On the other hand, organisations must also achieve some degree of commitment from their employees, since achievement of organisational goals presumably depends upon collaboration among personnel.

The specific educational organisation which is the focus of this research is a teachers' college, and the specific professional employees being examined are its lecturers.[1]

The Teachers' College Lecturer

The teaching staff of a teachers' college are a relatively homogeneous group of professionals. Most have come to teachers college direct from either the primary or secondary teaching services. Those few others who have come from universities have invariably been either primary or secondary school teachers

Footnote

(1) To avoid the semantic confusion of the term "teachers' college teachers", the term "lecturer" will be used as synonymous with "teacher".

previously. For most, teacher training is the branch of the service in which they will pursue the remainder of the professional careers.

In general, teachers' college lecturers have higher educational attainment than is usually the case in the teachers' groups from which they have come. While no national figures are available for comparisons, the almost universal incidence of graduate and post-graduate status among teachers' college lecturers contrasts with the situation prevailing in the primary and secondary services. However, the lecturer's main teaching orientation is similar to other teachers'. Like their primary and secondary counterparts, lecturers are largely involved in transmitting knowledge and training skills.

Teachers, however, can be seen to belong to two professional groups. The first is the teaching profession itself; though as Liebermann (1956) has suggested, the various divisions of teaching may in fact be different professions. The second is the professional "discipline" to which the teachers express academic allegiance. It is likely that college lecturers are less oriented towards teaching itself than primary or secondary teachers, but more oriented toward their disciplines. There are several reasons for anticipating that teachers' college lecturers are likely to be more professional than the primary or secondary groups from which they come. Their higher level of formal qualifications indicates a prolonged pursuit of

professional expertise, while a normal requirement for appointment is that they must be successful and experienced practitioners as well.

The Teachers' College - An Organisational Perspective

In general, teachers' colleges are organised on both bureaucratic and "collegial" lines. That is, the formal procedures are largely bureaucratic, while the informal organisation is based on supervision of professionals by fellow professionals. The bureaucratic mode is represented by a clear hierarchy of offices, with differential authority, responsibility, salary and designation. The functions of offices are specified both by conditions of appointment and by written codes. Official tasks are organised on a continuous, regulated basis by the timetable, and the personnel are arranged into functionally distinct departments, each furnished with the requisite authority and sanctions. Administration is based largely on written records, so that the office and its files are important to the functioning of the organisation. At the same time there is marked collegial organisation. The professional staff as a group can exert considerable influence on policy matters particularly those that affect individual lecturers. They can do so informally as professionals among professionals, and they can do so formally as participants in the special bodies that are constituted to perform the college's various academic functions. Again, because much administrative responsibility is vested in

departments or associations of departments, and because these departments act as mediators between the individual lecturer and the organisational hierarchy, collegial influence is further sustained. As well, within departments there may be further collegial support through differentiation into groups of lecturers, or "course teams", cooperating to teach large groups of students. However, in comparison with universities, it is probably true to say that the collegial system is less well developed, and the individual lecturer can experience considerable regulation by administrative edict. In the course of his professional duties he is likely to be concerned, to varying degree with satisfying routine bureaucratic procedures. He is also likely to be confronted with conflicting demands from the many groupings with which he has affiliation inside the organisation.

Implications for Research

If teachers' college lecturers are high in professional orientation, but they also operate within a bureaucratic organisation, the teachers' college provides an appropriate setting in which to examine the problem of the relationship between professional commitment and organisational commitment. It is appropriate because these conditions of professional and organisational structure are likely to produce a more even balance in demands for organisational commitment, thus providing scope if Reissman (1949) and Gouldner (1958) are correct, for

classical professional - bureaucracy role conflict. It was on this assumption that the teachers' college was selected as an appropriate setting for the present investigation.

With the setting selected, the next task was to decide on a suitable method of data collection. Ease of application and convention suggested that a questionnaire designed to measure extent of (i) professional orientation and (ii) organisational commitment would provide an appropriate medium. The questionnaire is described in the following paragraphs.

Construction of the Research Questionnaire

The questionnaire has two major sections devoted respectively to professional orientation and organisational commitment.[1] Each is dealt with in turn below.

Measure of Professional Orientation

The Measure of Professional Orientation is based on dimensions of professional orientation identified in three recent empirical studies concerned with professionalism viz Colombotos (1962), Hall (1967) and Corwin (1970).

Footnote

(1) A copy of the complete Questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

Colombotos (1962). The Colombotos scale has four items based on a conceptualisation of professional orientation that employs three dimensions -- service, antonomy and competence. Colombotos assigned weights to the dimensions and gave precedence to competence. Levesque (1970) who also used the scale assigned client orientation greater weight. Both Colombotos and Levesque administered their scales to secondary school teachers.

Hall (1967). Using a variety of occupations as the basis for his study, Hall examined both structural and attitudinal aspects of the professional model. Attitude scales were developed for five dimensions of professionalism, viz (i) professional organisation as a major reference (ii) belief in service to the public (iii) belief in self-regulation (iv) sense of calling to the field, and (v) feeling of autonomy. The scales were administered to groups of physicians, nurses, accountants, teachers, lawyers, social workers, stockbrokers, librarians, engineers, personnel managers, and advertising executives.

Corwin (1970). The sixteen item Corwin Professional Orientation Scale consists of four subscales: (i) orientation to students, (ii) orientation to the profession and professional colleagues, (iii) belief that competence is based on knowledge, and (iv) belief that teachers should have decision-making authority. The Corwin scale was designed for and administered to secondary school teachers.

To provide a rationalisation for the measure used in the present research, the dimensions on which the three researchers were in agreement were plotted. These were student orientation, colleaque orientation, competence orientation and autonomy orientation. Items appropriate to these areas of consensus were then chosen. This was done by adapting items from Corwin's questionnaire, or designing new ones in a format similar to corwin's. The resulting items were then arranged in a scale with a format similar to Corwin's.

In the Corwin scale, however, the sixteen items -- concerned with student orientation, colleague orientation, technical competence, and decision making -- are distributed unevenly viz three, six, four and three for each of the dimensions respectively. This uneven weighting suggests a rationale that makes colleaque orientation twice as important as client orientation and decision making — a reversal of the Colombotos weightings. Corwin, however, argues that this is not the case. He comments that

> "because the sub-scales are designed to measure different dimensions of a complex concept, it is not necessary that they contribute equally to the total score, as long as they are logically related and there is some degree of empirical relationship to the general concept." Corwin (1970)

However, this argument holds good only as long as the dimensions are viewed separately. Immediately a general interpretation is attempted there arises the problem of "balancing" the uneven weightings. Furthermore, previous studies using weighted dimensions (Colombotos 1962; Levesque 1970) have failed to sustain an argument for the priority of any one dimension over others.

In attempting to avoid these difficulties, the question questionnaire constructed for this investigation used four dimensions and employed sixteen items, but diverged from the Corwin scale in that four responses were required for each dimension. While no definitive argument can be advanced to rationalise the equality of dimensions, equalisation is presumed to minimise the distortion of scores. In the long term, the utility of this (or any) position can be demonstrated only when the degree and kind of explanatory or predictive power of the test is established.

There are then, four sub-scales in the Professional Orientation Measure dealing respectively with student orientation, colleague orientation, competence orientation, and autonomy orientation. The respondent can be scored for each sub-scale, and, by amalgamating sub-scale scores, for general professional orientation as well. Each of the

sub-scales is discussed below.

(1) Student orientation. To score high on student orientation respondent must indicate belief in (i) giving service to students (ii) preparedness to consider the welfare of students above considerations of profit, self-interest and institution, and (iii) a "sense of calling" to the field.

(2) Colleague orientation. To score high on colleague orientation respondent must indicate belief in the use of formal and informal professional groupings as a major source of ideas and judgments for professionalism in his work.

(3) Competence orientation. To score high on competence orientation respondent must indicate belief that his skill is based on a body of knowledge not normally available to the leity, and that it is by virtue of his specialist knowledge and advanced training that he can claim professional expertise in his field. Further, he must indicate concern for other professionals' judgment of his effectiveness, rather than for administrative judgments.

(4) Autonomy orientation. To score high on autonomy orientation respondent must indicate belief in his competence to exercise authority, to make decisions, and to trust his judgment in occupational matters without external pressures from clients, those not members of his profession, or from his

employing authority.

An example item from each sub-scale appears below. The complete scale is reproduced in Appendix A.

(i) A lecturer should be permitted to act counter to college policy, if he is sure that the best interests of the students will be served in doing so. (student orientation)

(ii) A lecturer should try to live up to what he believes are standards appropriate to the profession, even if these standards do not appear to be respected by the community at large. (colleague orientation)

(iii) Lecturers should not be appointed unless they are graduates (or equivalent) in the field of their appointment. (competence orientation)

(iv) A lecturer should be able to make his own decisions about problems that come up in the classroom. (autonomy orientation)

For each item there are five possible alternative responses, ranging from "strongly agree" to strongly "disagree". They are weighted from five through one respectively.

An index of professional orientation is calculated by summing the scores assigned to each item in the scale. High professional orientation is shown by scores from 60 - 80. This is achieved by a variety of possible response patterns,

but the respondent must agree, or strongly agree with the majority of items. Medium professional orientation (40-59) can again be achieved by a variety of responses, but the respondent must generally agree with the majority of items, though some indecision or disagreement is possible. Low professional orientation (16-39) is achieved by consistently disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with every item, or by respondent varying between indecision and disagreement.

Measure of Professional Behaviour.

The extent to which behaviour is consistent with personal orientations is a matter for conjecture because a variety of circumstances can intervene between belief and action. However, Corwin (1970) reports significantly higher professional behaviour from teachers with high professional orientations than those with low professional orientations. In order to compare the declared professional attitudes of respondents in this study with their declared professional behaviour, a Measure of Professional Behaviour was developed. It consists of a five criterion scale, adapted from the nine criterion scale used by Corwin (1970). The criteria attempt to measure behaviour representing an operationalisations of professionalism, viz the gaining of an advanced specialist qualification with a strong intellectual component; a search for professional competence based on contemporary knowledge; use of the professional

organisation as a reference group; and evidence of individual endeavour in the professional field. No changes to Corwin's criteria were made, but adjustments were made to Corwin's nine items in an attempt to relate the scale more closely to New Zealand conditions. Adjustment consisted of collapsing three items with consequent re-wording, and eliminating one item differentiating full-time and part-time teaching. The items sought information on: (weights are in parenthesis)

(i) highest qualification held — weighted

Teacher's Certificate or Diploma	(1)
Bachelor's degree	(2)
Master's degree	(3)

(ii) number of professional journals read regularly

0-1	(1)
2-3	(2)
4+	(3)

(iii) hours per week devoted to professional reading

0-3	(1)
4-7	(2)
8+	(3)

(iv) attendance at professional conferences, or publication of professional articles in past two years

0-1	(1)
2-3	(2)
4+	(3)

(v) activity in professional organisations in past two years

membership of 0-1 (1)

2 (2)

3+ (3)

(plus 1 weight for office-holder)

The complete scale is reproduced in Appendix A.

An index of professional behaviour is obtained by summing the scores assigned to each item in the scale. High professional behaviour is shown by scores from 13-15, medium professional behaviour by scores from 10-12, and low professional behaviour is shown by scores of 9 and below.

Self Rating on Professionalism.

Persons with perceptions of professionalism can presumably make judgments about the relationship between their perceptions of their own behaviour, and their perceptions of the behaviour of professional colleagues. The relationship between these elements has not been clearly established in the literature so that, for example, the extent to which one professional uses his perceptions of the professionalism of his colleagues as a yardstick for judging his own professional behaviour, is unknown. However, it seems reasonable to assume that a relationship could be found. In an attempt to measure it, a self-rating on professionalism was included in the battery. It read:

If you were asked to rate your degree of professionalism by comparison with other persons in the profession, how would you score yourself on this 8 point scale?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Scores of 7-8 indicate high self rating on professionalism, scores of 4-6 medium, and scores of 1-3 indicate low self rating on professionalism.

Measure of Organisational Commitment

For the purposes of this investigation the concept of organisational commitment is a major variable. Organisational commitment entails for the respondent, recognition of the legitimacy of the demands emanating from the administration, or from formal groupings within the organisation. In behavioural terms, organisational commitment is represented at the point at which a respondent indicates that he is prepared to modify his professional actions when they are seen to be at variance with the legitimate professional goals of others within the organisation.

The design of this part of the questionnaire rested on the rationale that teachers' professional and organisational commitments will come into conflict most regularly in areas normally regarded to be within the domain of teacher role.

However, although there have been several conceptualisations of teacher role (e.g. Fishburn 1955; Wilson 1962; Taylor and Musgrave 1966; Havighurst and Neugarten 1967 etc.) Biddle, Twyman and Rankin (1962) suggest that teacher behaviour is not only complex, but difficult to measure objectively except through extensive phenomenological enumerations. In spite of the difficulty of "catching the tiger of teacher role by the tail" (Adams 1970), the conceptualisation adopted in this investigation is the descriptive, non-empirical account of teacher role given by Trow (1960). He uses a three dimensional, eleven point phenomenological categorization of teacher role. His dimensions -- extra-class roles, administrative - executive roles, and instructional roles -- seem to reflect more acurately the diverse activity of teachers than less differentiated measures, e.g. Thornton's (1971) measure of organisational commitment. Within each dimension, Trow includes further role differentiations. Extra-class roles include the teacher as faculty member, community liaison officer, and learner. Administrative and executive roles include the teacher as disciplinarian, measurer - record keeper, learning - aids officer, and programme planner. Instructional roles include the teacher as motivator, resource person, evaluator, and adaptor.

In constructing the questionnaire designed to measure organisational commitment in this investigation, the eleven role specifications were accepted and one addition made. The role

of extra-curricular sponsor was added to the extra-class dimension. This is a recognition of the relative importance of out-of-school sport, recreational and cultural activity in New Zealand schools.

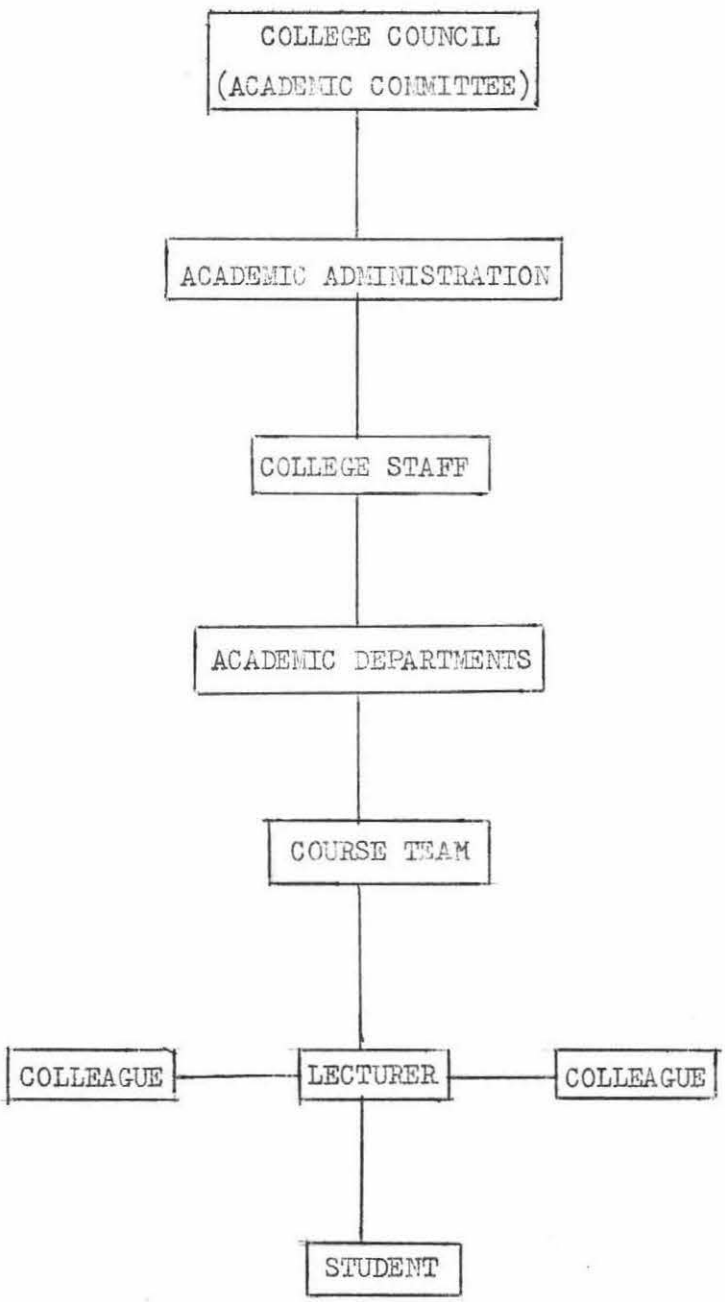
The Questionnaire The measure of organisational commitment comprises twelve items, each based on one of the twelve sub-roles of teacher behaviour specified by Trow. The twelve items were arranged into three groups of four, each group of items representing an operationalisation of one of Trow's three major dimensions of extra-class roles, administrative - executive roles, and instructional roles. Each item described a situation in which the respondent was deemed to be performing appropriately in a sub-role. The situations described might well occur to a member of the teaching staff in the course of his professional duties. Every situation stipulated that the respondent had already taken a self-initiated course of action which was entirely consistent with the respondents professional goals. Each situation, however, had a built-in problem. As a consequence of the respondent's (legitimate) actions, the professional goals of some other person or group in the college, viz College Council, Academic Administration, College Staff, Academic Department, Course Colleagues, a Colleague, the Students, were being compromised. The respondent is told this and asked to indicate whether he would find this fact a sufficient reason for him to modify the

course of action to which he had originally committed himself. If he would, he was asked to indicate the extent to which he would be likely to modify his actions for each of the reference groups specified. If there were situations in which he would not be likely to modify his behaviour for any reference group, the respondent was asked to record any reasons that he would accept as legitimate for modifying his behaviour. In all cases it was specified that the respondent was acting in a manner consistent with his professional goals, that the disagreement was learned of in a proper manner, that exhaustive discussion had not been able to change the matter, and that no compulsion was exterted on the respondent.

The reference groups the respondents were asked to take into account were those with which all teaching staff would have some degree of affiliation and communication. (One of the reference groups is in fact not a group. Respondents were also asked to react to the situation when "a colleague" was involved. This was done because many of the routine contacts in an educational organisation are of one professional person with another.) For the study the reference groups were seen as reflecting a hierarchy based on official responsibility for the academic activity of the college. This hierarchical relationship is illustrated in Figure 1.

FIGURE I

HIERARCHY OF ACADEMIC GROUPS IN THE COLLEGE



In the questionnaire itself the situations were juxtaposed with the reference groups, and the resultant items were then given an introduction that outlined the procedures the respondent should follow. This introduction, and a sample item appear below

On the following pages are described a series of situations which might occur to a member of the teaching staff in the course of a college year.

The situations may not apply directly to you, but you are asked to imagine yourself in such a position and to indicate what you might do.

There are no right or wrong answers nor will any 'evaluation' of any answer be attempted.

NOTES

1. Each situation described supposes that you regard any course of action you undertake in teaching or organising your normal courses, as being consistent with your professional goals.
2. In each situation described however, it is hypothesized that as a consequence of your actions, someone else's goals are compromised e.g. a colleague's goals, your department's, the college council's etc.
3. In each situation described, you are asked to indicate whether you would find the fact that you are compromising the professional goals of these others, a legitimate reason

for you to modify your original course of action.

4. It may be that sometimes you would not modify your behaviour for anyone. If so, you are asked to write into the available space reasons that you would accept as legitimate.

Below is an example situation

You teach part of a compulsory course which is taken by half the students as a degree unit. You set all students a workload that you consider appropriate to the standard you would want students to achieve.

a. It transpires that the Academic Committee of the Council views your requirements as not being in the best interests of the college. You learn of this from the Academic Committee, through the proper channels. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted on you by the Council. To what extent would you be likely to modify your requirements?

Completely	Considerably	Quite a Lot	A Little	Not at all
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

b. In a second case, you learn through proper channels from a representative of the academic administration, that although they are not personally inconvenienced, there is agreement among the administration that your actions are compromising college interests. After exhaustive discussion the matter

remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted on you. To what extent would you be likely to modify

Completely ( ) Considerably ( ) Quite a Lot ( ) A Little ( ) Not at All ( )

c. In a third case you learn through proper channels that the College Staff as a whole, although not personally inconvenienced, agree that the college's interests are compromised by your actions. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted. Would you be likely to modify.

Completely ( ) Considerably ( ) Quite a Lot ( ) A Little ( ) Not at All ( )

d. In a fourth case, you learn through proper channels, that your department members although not personally inconvenienced, agree that the department's interests are compromised by your actions. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted on you. Would you be likely to modify

Completely ( ) Considerably ( ) Quite a lot ( ) A little ( ) Not at All ( )

e. In a fifth case, you learn through proper channels, that your course colleagues although not personally inconvenienced, agree that your actions are not in the best interests of the course. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion

is exerted on you. Would you be likely to modify

Completely ( ) Considerably ( ) Quite a Lot ( ) A little ( ) Not at all ( )

f. In a sixth case, a colleague lets you know that your actions are inconveniencing him in the pursuit of his professional goals. After exhaustive discussion you cannot reconcile your differing points of view, and of course he cannot compel you to change. Would you be likely to modify

Completely ( ) Considerably ( ) Quite a Lot ( ) A little ( ) Not at All ( )

g. In a final case, an appointed representative of the students approaches you and lets you know that your actions are interfcrring with the pursuit of their professional goals. After exhaustive discussions you cannot reconcile your view points, and of course they cannot compel you to change. Would you modify.

Completely ( ) Considerably ( ) Quite a Lot ( ) A little ( ) Not at All ( )

If you did not modify your behaviour at all, can you briefly indicate the conditions under which you think you would -

.....

.....

For each item, responses for the seven groups are assigned weights from five to one. An item score is derived by summing

the value of all responses for that item. A dimension score is derived by summing the four item totals within that dimension. An index of organisational commitment is computed by summing the totals of the three dimensions, or the total for all items. A score of 300 - 420 indicates a high organisational commitment. In order to achieve this the respondent must indicate that in every situation he is likely to modify his actions completely or considerably in accordance with the wishes of all groups. A medium organisational commitment is shown by a score of 200 - 299. This is achieved by a variety of response patterns, but the respondent must show either a consistent pattern of preparedness to modify quite a lot, or considerable variation in the degree of preparedness to modify for all groups. A low organisational commitment is shown by a score of 84 - 199. This can only be achieved by a high degree of consistency in preparedness to modify either a little, or not at all.

In addition to dimension scores of organisational commitment and an index of organisational commitment, measures of preparedness to modify for each reference group can be computed by summing the scores attributed to each group. This may be taken as separate dimension scores of commitment to the reference group specified, or as a total of all dimensions.

Pilot Study. Following construction of the questionnaire, a pilot study was carried out in a different teachers' college.

Its purpose was to test the suitability of both the concepts used, and their operationalisation. Respondents were asked to complete each item as directed, and also to comment on its relevance and clarity. As a result of this preliminary study the questionnaire was modified by minor rewording of some items, clarification of questionnaire instructions, and improved procedures for distribution and return of questionnaires.

Administration of the Questionnaire

After official approval had been obtained to approach all lecturing staff in the teachers' college selected, individual lecturers were invited to answer the questionnaire. All questionnaires were handed personally to respondents to be completed in the respondent's own time. The questionnaire took approximately thirty minutes to do. Respondents were requested not to identify themselves by name, and anonymity was protected by a special procedure for the return of completed questionnaires which involved the following procedure.

i. Write your name on a slip of paper and drop it in the box held by the receptionist for this purpose. This box will be cleared at the end of each week.

ii. Place the completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and return it to one of the unmarked boxes on the bottom row of the staff boxes in the staffroom. These boxes will be cleared daily.

The Sample

Of a total teaching staff of fifty lecturers in the college, forty-eight lecturers voluntarily responded to the research. Three respondents were eliminated from the analysis because of incomplete returns.

Statistical Methods Used

Analysis of the questionnaire data was based on comparisons of the attributes of individual respondents, and on group attributes derived as percentages of the same and group means. To test for differences between group means on the same test, analysis of variance was used. Following Snedecor and Cochran (1967), the model assumed was

$$X_{ij} = u + t_i + e_{ij}$$

That is, each observation depends on

u	an overall mean	
ti	an effect due to the i^{th} group	
eij	a random variation	
for i =	1 .. t	t the number of groups
j =	1 .. n_i	n_i the number of individuals in the i^{th} group.

To test for a relationship between two attributes of the same individual, correlation coefficient, r, was computed using the formula

$$r = \frac{nExy - Ex\,Ey}{\sqrt{\left\{nEx^2-(Ex)^2\right\}\left\{nEy^2-(Ey)^2\right\}}}$$

where x and y are measures of the two attributes for the individual. The hypothesis $H_o : r = 0$ was tested against the alternative $H_A : r \neq 0$, by comparing the sample correlation coefficient with tabulated values (Snedecor and Cochran, 1967).

For all interpretations the .05 level of statistical significance was accepted as minimal.

The foregoing parametric statistical measures assume that the data collected would come from tests that measure factors which are normally distributed throughout the population. While the veridicality of this assumption may be questioned, lack of evidence to the contrary suggests that the procedure is reasonable. Furthermore, the tests used are robust to non-normality.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS

Response Rates and Sample Characteristics

The questionnaire was distributed to all fifty members of the college staff. Forty-five of the returns were usable. The 90% response rate is considerably higher than is usually the case in studies using voluntary respondents (Travers, 1964), while mailed questionnaire studies also report lower response levels (Kerlinger, 1964). The high response level in the present research will largely preclude the possibility of volunteer bias reported by Borg (1963).

A breakdown of the status, tenure, and age characteristics of the research sample appears in Table I

Analysis of the characteristics of the research sample indicates the normal pyramid of status positions characteristic of large organisations. The broad base is provided by six temporary and eighteen permanent Lecturers, who together comprise 53.33% of the sample. The middle echelon of thirteen Senior Lecturers comprises a further 28.89% of the sample, and the peak is provided by the eight Principal Lecturers and high status members of the Academic Administration, who together constitute

TABLE I.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS BY STATUS, TENURE AND AGE.

	Designation	n	%
Status	I Lecturer (temporary)	6	13.33
	II Lecturer	18	40.00
	III Senior Lecturer	13	28.89
	IV Principal Lecturer, Dean, Vice-Principal, Principal	8	17.78
		45	100.00
Years in the college	I 0 - 5 years	31	68.89
	II 5 - 10 years	9	20.00
	III 10 + years	5	11.11
		45	100.00
Years in present	I 0 - 2 years	27	60.00
	II 2 - 5 years	11	24.44
	III 5+ years	7	15.56
		45	100.00
Age	I 20 - 32 years	9	20.00
	II 33 - 45 years	26	57.78
	III 46 + years	10	22.22
		45	100.00

17.78% of the sample.

Over two-thirds of the respondents, 68.89% had been in the college for a comparatively short period. Of the one-third who had had more than five years service in the college, only five respondents, representing approximately one-tenth of the sample, had been in the college for more than ten years. This distribution is similar in shape to the status pyramid.

Analysis of respondents' years of service in their present position indicates a markedly similar pattern to that of their service in the college. Almost 85% of respondents had held their present position for less than five years.

The distribution of respondents' ages is not pyramid shaped, but displays a marked bulge in the middle group by comparison with the almost even numbers in the younger and older groups. While the latter groups contain nine and ten respondents respectively (20% and 22.22%), the middle group contains twenty-six, or 57.78% of respondents.

Professional Orientation

An item analysis of the professional orientation questionnaire is presented in Appendix B. It contains mean and median scores, and ranges for the whole sample for each item. Taken separately these scores provide the base from which a number of general measures have been derived. They are sub-scale scores for respectively, student orientation, colleague orientation, competence orientation, and autonomy orientation. As well, a gross overall score of professional orientation is derived by summing all sub-scale scores.

Table 2 contains details of scores for the whole sample on each of these.

TABLE 2.

MEAN SCORES FOR PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION AND P.O. SUB-SCALES

	SUBSCALES					
	Student Orient-ation	Colleague Orient-ation	Competence Orient-ation	Autonomy Orient-ation	Over all Mean	S.D.
All respondents (n=45)	14.31	16.16	15.02	16.40	61.89	6.51

The scores are uniformly high. For example the overall professional orientation mean score of 61.89 falls within the stipulated limits of high professionalism (60 - 80). Similarly the subscale scores are also high. The four means, 14.31, 16.16, 15.02 and 16.40 are all located towards the top end of the available scale (4 - 20).

Details of the distribution of respondents into groups with high, medium, and low professional orientation scores are contained in Table 3.

TABLE 3.

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY HIGH, MEDIUM, AND LOW PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION SCORES

	Scale	n=	% of sample	Mean
High Professional Orientation	60 - 80	30	66.67	65.23
Medium Professional Orientation	40 - 59	15	33.33	55.20
Low Professional Orientation	16 - 39	-		
All Respondents	16 - 80	45	100.00	61.89

It can be seen from the table that two-thirds of the sample fall within the stipulated limits of high professional orientation, while the remaining one-third fall within the medium professional

orientation limits. No respondent scored low on the professional orientation measure.

Organisational Commitment

An item analysis of the organisational commitment questionnaire appears in Appendix B. It contains means, median scores and ranges for the whole sample for each item, and the number of respondents scoring different values for each reference group in each item. Taken separately these scores provide the base from which a number of general measures have been derived. They are subscale scores for respectively, extra-class roles, administrative - executive roles, and instructional roles, and as well a gross overall score of organisational commitment.

Table 4 contains details of scores for the whole sample on each of these:

TABLE 4.

MEAN SCORES FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND O.C. SUBSCALES

	SUBSCALES				
	Extra-Class Roles	Administrative-Executive Roles	Instructional Roles	Over-all Mean	S.D.
All Respondents (n=45)	76.78	85.00	77.78	239.56	56.28

The scores are uniformly medium. The gross organisational commitment mean score of 239.56 falls within the stipulated limits of medium commitment (200 - 299). Similarly, the subscale means of 76.78, 85.00 and 77.78 are close to the middle of the available scale (28 - 140).

Details of the distribution of respondents into groups with high, medium, and low organisational commitment scores are contained in Table 5.

TABLE 5.

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY HIGH, MEDIUM, AND LOW ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT SCORES

	Scale	n	% of Sample	Mean
High Organisational Commitment	300 - 420	8	17.78	334.13
Medium Organisational Commitment	200 - 299	24	53.33	241.25
Low Organisational Commitment	85 - 200	13	28.89	178.23
All Respondents	85 - 420	45	100.00	239.56

The table indicates that the majority of respondents (71%) fall into the groups displaying medium and high organisational commitment, with slightly more than half falling within the stipulated limits of medium commitment (200 - 299). The remaining quarter to one-third

of respondents fall within the stipulated limits of low organisational commitment (85 - 200).

Status and Organisational Commitment

Details of mean scores for subscale and overall organisational commitment according to respondents' status are contained in Table 6

TABLE 6.

MEAN SCORES FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND O.C. SUBSCALES BY RESPONDENTS' STATUS

	SUBSCALES				
	Extra-Class	Administrative-Executive	Instructional	Overall Mean	S.D.
Status Level I (n=6)	66.83	76.33	62.67	207.83	33.39
Level II (n=18)	70.44	81.06	75.11	226.60	54.71
Level III (n=13)	79.77	86.69	79.69	246.15	53.04
Level IV (n=8)	92.13	97.63	92.00	281.75	52.13

It can be seen from the table that in all organisational commitment sub scales, mean scores increase with status. Increases range from 1.2 between levels I and II in the Extra-Class subscale, to 12.44 between Levels I and II in the Instructional subscale. The overall mean scores for organisational commitment increase by 73.88, from 207.83 at Level I to 281.75 at Level IV, successive levels showing

increases of 18.77, 19.55 and 35.60 respectively.

Years in the College Organisational Commitment

Details of mean scores for subscale and overall organisational commitment according to respondents' years in the college are contained in Table 7

TABLE 7.

MEAN SCORES FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND O.C. SUBSCALES BY RESPONDENTS' YEARS IN THE COLLEGE

	SUBSCALES				
	Extra-Class	Admin-Exec.	Instructional	Overall Mean	S.D.
Years in the College					
I (n = 31)	74.32	82.16	75.48	231.97	54.84
II (n = 9)	77.33	91.22	82.33	250.89	61.36
III (n = 5)	91.00	91.40	83.80	266.20	42.34

Subscale and overall means for organisational commitment according to years in the college show a similar pattern to that shown by organisational commitment and status. In each case subscale scores increase with years in the college, as do overall organisational commitment scores. The subscale increases range from .12 between levels II and III in the Administrative - Executive subscale, to

13.77 between levels II and III in the Extra-Class subscale. The overall mean score for organisational commitment increases by 34.23, from 231.97 at Level I to 266.20 at level III, successive increases being 15.31 and 18.92 respectively.

Commitment to Reference Groups

A full distribution of the priorities allotted to all reference groups appears in Appendix B. Details of the numbers and percentages of respondents allocating major commitment to each reference group are contained in Table 8.

TABLE 8.

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT: DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY MAJOR COMMITMENT TO REFERENCE GROUPS

		REFERENCE GROUPS						
		Council	Admin.	Staff	Dept.	Course Colleagues	Colleague	Students
All	n	8	6	4	16	20	3	11
Respondents	%	11.76	8.82	5.88	23.38	29.41	4.41	16.18

It can be seen from the table that 36 persons, or 52.79% of all respondents place either Course Colleagues or Department first in commitment priority, with four persons more giving priority to Course Colleagues than to Department. Commitment priority to other reference groups is spread at a comparatively low level, except for a 16.18 priority to students and an 11.76% priority to the College Council.

Professional Behaviour

A full distribution of individual scores for professional behaviour appears in Appendix B. Details of the distribution of respondents into groups with high, medium, and low behaviour scores are contained in Table 9.

TABLE 9.

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY HIGH, MEDIUM, AND LOW PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIOUR SCORES

		Scale	n	% of Sample	Group Mean
HIGH	Professional Behaviour	13-15	20	44.44	14.45
MEDIUM	Professional Behaviour	10-12	17	37.78	11.12
LOW	Professional Behaviour	6-9	8	17.78	7.88
	All Respondents	6-15	45	100.00	11.73

It can be seen from the table that the majority of respondents (37, representing 82.22% of the sample) fall within the range for medium or high professional behaviour ratings, with the larger proportion falling within the available limits for high professional behaviour (20 or 44.44% compared to 17 or 37.78%). Less than one-fifth of the sample (8, or 17.78%) fall within the low professional behaviour limits. The mean score of professional behaviour for the total sample falls high in the medium professional behaviour scale at 11.73.

Self Rating on Professionalism

A full distribution of individual scores for self rating on professionalism appears in Appendix B. Details of the distribution

of respondents into groups with high, medium, and low self rating on professionalism scores are contained in Table 10.

TABLE 10.

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY HIGH, MEDIUM, AND LOW SELF RATING ON PROFESSIONALISM SCORES

	Scale	n	% of Sample	Group Mean
HIGH Self Rating on Professionalism	7-8	9	20.00	7.11
MEDIUM " " " "	4-6	34	75.56	5.26
LOW " " " "	1-3	2	4.44	2.00
All Respondents	1-8	45	100.00	5.40

It can be seen from the scale that the great majority of respondents (41, representing 95.56% of the sample) fall within the limits of medium and high self rating on professionalism, with the bulk of these (34, or 75.56% of sample) falling within the medium scale (4-6). The remaining 2 respondents (4.44% of sample) fall within the limits of the low self rating on professionalism scale (1-3). The mean score for self rating on professionalism for the total sample falls relatively high in the medium scale at 5.40.

Findings in Relation to Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 stated:

Scores on organisational commitment and professional orientation will not covary.

The analysis made use of correlations and analysis of variance, in which the base data comprised individual scale scores of organisational commitment and professional orientation, and mean scores for three groups subdivided on the basis of their distribution into high, medium and low organisational commitment scores. The results of the analysis are contained in Table 11.

TABLE 11.

CORRELATIONS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT (OC) AND PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION (PO) SCORES

Group x Organisational Commit.	Mean O.C.	Mean P.O.	r =
All Respondents	239.56	61.89	—.1096 ns
High	334.13	61.63	.9138**
Medium	241.25	61.67	—.0298 ns
Low	178.23	62.46	—.5442 ns
Anova		F = .07 ns	

From the table it can be seen that no significance was established between individual scores on organisational commitment and professional

orientation (r=—.1096). Correlation of group means for organisational commitment established, from high, medium and low groups respectively, coefficients of .9138 (significant at the .001 level), —.0298 (not significant), and —.5442 (which while not quite significant at the .05 level, is suggestive of a relationship). No firm statistical comparisions can be made between groups using correlation coefficients, but the observed tendency for r to recede from high positive significance to an almost significant negative score is suggestive of a decreasing relationship. As the organisational commitment scores are grouped in a markedly decreasing pattern (334.12, 241.25, and 178.23) it appears that there is little of the decrease contributed by the other attribute, scores for professional orientation. Analysis of variance of group means for professional orientation produced F=.07. In order to reject the hypothesis, a sample correlation as high as .997 for the three levels would have been required, due to the narrow range of group means (61.63, 61.67 and 62.46).

It follows then that there is no evidence to reject the hypothesis that the level of professional orientation was the same for each of the three levels of organisational commitment. While this finding does not necessarily confirm Ho1 it does leave open the possibility that scores on organisational commitment and professional orientation would not covary.

Hypothesis 2 stated:

> The higher the status, the higher the organisational commitment.

Analysis of variance was used to test for significant difference between mean scores of organisational commitment for the four status groups. Mean scores for subscales and overall measure of organisational commitment were submitted to analysis. The result of the analysis are contained in Table 12.

TABLE 12.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BY STATUS

		SUBSCALE				
	n=	Extra-Class	Admin-Exec	Instructional	Overall Mean	S.D.
Status Level I	6	68.83	76.33	62.67	207.83	33.39
Level II	18	70.44	81.06	75.11	226.60	54.71
Level III	13	79.77	86.69	79.69	246.15	53.04
Level IV	8	92.13	97.63	92.00	281.75	52.13
All Respondents	45	76.78	85.00	77.78	239.56	56.28
Anova F=		2.61 ns	1.88 ns	2.50 ns	2.75 ns	

It can be seen from the table that no significant difference between means of the four status groups was found, in either subscale or overall organisational commitment scores.

It follows then, that the hypothesis, H.2. that the higher the status the higher the organisational commitment, is rejected.

Hypothesis 3 stated:

The longer the service in the organisation, the higher the organisational commitment.

Analysis of variance was used to test for significant difference between mean scores of organisational commitment for the three groups subdivided according to length of service in the college. Mean scores for subscales and overall measure of organisational commitment were submitted to analysis. The results of the analysis are contained in Table 13.

TABLE 13.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BY LENGTH OF SERVICE IN THE ORGANISATION

		SUBSCALE				
	n =	Extra-Class	Admin-Exec	Instructional	Overall Mean	S.D.
Service in Organisation I	31	74.32	82.16	75.48	231.97	54.84
II	9	77.33	91.22	82.33	250.89	61.36
III	5	91.00	91.40	83.80	266.20	42.34
All Respondents	45	76.78	85.00	77.78	239.56	56.28
Anova F =		1.39 ns	1.03 ns	.56 ns	1.00 ns	

It can be seen from the table that no significant difference between means of the three groups was found, in either subscale or overall organisational commitment scores.

It follows then, that the hypothesis, H.2., that the longer the service in the organisation the higher the organisational commitment, is rejected.

Hypothesis 4 stated:

> The higher the organisational commitment, the higher the commitment to colleague reference groups.

The analysis made use of a comparison of percentages of respondents within the three levels of organisational commitment allocating major commitment to each reference group. The result of the analysis are contained in Table 14.

TABLE 14.

PERCENTAGES OF RESPONDENTS ALLOCATING MAJOR COMMITMENT

TO EACH REFERENCE GROUP

	REFERENCE GROUPS													
	Council		Administration		Staff		Department		Course Colleagues		Colleague		Students	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
HIGH Organisational Commitment	3	18.75	1	6.25	1	6.25	4	25.00	4	25.00	1	6.25	2	12.50
MEDIUM O.C.	4	11.11	3	8.33	3	8.33	9	25.00	12	33.33	2	5.56	3	8.34
LOW O.C.	1	6.25	2	12.50	0	0	3	18.75	4	25.00	0	0	6	37.50
All Respondents	8	11.76	6	8.82	4	5.88	16	23.38	20	29.41	3	4.41	11	16.18

From the table it can be seen, that from the low organisational commitment group to the high organisational group, there was an increase in the percentage of respondents allocating major commitment to the College Council (12.50% increase), Department (6.25% increase), and to a Colleague (6.25%). There was an increase of 8% from the low to the medium organisational commitment groups in major commitment to Course Colleagues, though from the medium to high organisational commitment groups there was an equal decrease. There was a decrease from the low to high organisational commitment groups of the percentage of respondents allocating major commitment to Administration, Staff, and to Students. Of all respondents, 52.79% placed either Course Colleagues or Department first in commitment priority.

While no statistical tests were used to calculate the significance of percentages of respondents allocating priority to reference groups, the data have a tendency towards sustaining the hypothesis, H.4, that the higher the organisational commitment, the higher the commitment to colleague reference groups.

Hypothesis 5 stated:

> The higher the professional orientation the higher the professional behaviour.

The analysis made use of correlation coefficient and test of significance in which the base data were individual scores for professional orientation and professional behaviour. The

correlation coefficient derived r=.1613 was not significant.

It follows then that the hypothesis, H.5, that the higher the professional orientation the higher the professional behaviour, is rejected.

Hypothesis 6 stated:

The higher the professional orientation the higher the self rating on professionalism.

The analysis used correlation coefficient and test of significance, the base data being individual scores for professional orientation and self rating on professionalism. The correlation coefficient derived, r=.1904, was not significant. The hypothesis, H.6, that the higher the professional orientation the higher the self rating on professionalism is rejected.

Hypothesis 7 stated:

The higher the professional behaviour the higher the self rating on professionalism.

The analysis used correlation coefficient and test of significance, the base data being individual scores for professional behaviour and self rating on professionalism. The correlation derived, r=.4671, was significant at the .001 level. It follows then, that within the statistical limits of this research the hypothesis, H.7, that the higher the professional behaviour the higher the self rating on professionalism, is sustained.

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION

The major intention of this investigation has been to examine the classical theoretical position that bureaucracy and professionalism occupy opposite poles on a single continuum of organisational attributes. Expositions and empirical studies based on this position appear to have established that a relative predominance of one attribute indicates, ipso facto, the relative absence of the other. Or alternatively, that where one attribute predominates, the other can exist only under stressful conditions. The relationship most frequently examined has been the existence of professionalism in a predominantly bureaucratic setting. Under bureaucratic predominance, the stressful conditions are conventionally enumerated in terms of the professional's conflict with the organisation and its procedures, loss of professional orientation for a more bureaucratic commitment, or a displacement of professionalism into activities outside the organisation.

Observation suggests however, that many large organisations which are functionally dependent upon long-term services and commitment from employed professionals, attempt to avoid prolonged stressful conditions that would diminish, impair, obstruct or extinguish the professional qualities they require. Further, professional persons appear frequently to reconcile organisational and professional demands without damage to their professional

orientation. Indeed, it seems not unreasonable to anticipate that the modern professional, often dependent upon the organisation for the opportunity to pursue his professional activity, might well include in his occupational orientation a conditional loyalty to the organisation. This notion of "dual commitment" appears to be precluded from conventional explanations of organisational behaviour by virtue of the conceptualisation of bureaucracy and professionalism as logical opposites

The present investigation set out to explore the viability of dual commitment as the basis of an accommodation model explanation. The position taken was that an individual's professional orientation is both identifiable and measureable, and will influence the performance of his organisational roles. It was also taken that when the performance of these organisational roles comes into conflict with his professional orientation, any accommodation made to the organisation can be identified as organisational commitment, and quantified. A significant negative relationship between professional orientation and organisational commitment would tend to confirm that the two qualities are functionally related, and that individuals can be distributed along a professional - bureaucratic continuum according to their characteristic mode of organisational behaviour. Alternatively however, if a significant positive relationship between professional orientation and organisational commitment were to be established, then there would appear to be grounds for supporting the viability of an accommodation model explanation of the behaviour of professionals

in organisations.

While the major intention of this study was to investigate the relationship between professional orientation and organisational commitment, the secondary intention was to examine as well (i) the nature of the organisational commitment displayed (ii) some correlates of organisational commitment, and (iii) the relationships between the professional orientation of individuals, their professional behaviour and their self rating on professionalism. Merton has suggested that the closer an individual is to the centre of decision making the more likely he is to identify with both the decision and the decision-making process. A further variable, service in the organisation, may also bring identification through familiarisation with the purposes of the organisation and its process of decision-making, and through access to both formal and informal communication and power networks in the organisation. Hence it was expected that individuals of high status, and individuals with long service in the organisation, would demonstrate a high degree of commitment to the organisation. Further, it was expected that organisational commitment from professionals would be most likely to consist of accommodation to the demands of colleague reference groups rather than to administrative, student, or individual colleague reference groups. It was also expected that individuals with high professional orientation would evince a similar level of professional behaviour, and would also assess their self rating on professionalism consistent with their orientation and behaviour.

The study succeeded to the extent that the major hypothesis was not disconfirmed. It was apparent in this study that individuals with high professional orientation were to be found at all three levels of organisational commitment, and that professional orientation did not vary significantly from high to low organisational commitment. The study also indicated that professionals would most readily modify their behaviour for the organisation when modification was requested by colleague reference groups. Modification would be made less than half as frequently to the combined requests of clients and individual colleagues, with a similar modification rate for combined administrative reference groups. It was further established that individuals who displayed high professional behaviour were able to assess realistically their level of professionalism in relation to others. The study was not successful in establishing a significant relationship between commitment commitment to the organisation and either status or length of service in the organisation, nor between professional orientation and either professional behaviour or self rating on professionalism. Failure to produce significant relationships in such areas may in part be attributable to difficulties in operationalising complex concepts, though the small sample available for research created a situation in which statistical non significance was almost inevitable. However, the researcher who fails to establish significance for his findings and seeks methodological explanations, must also consider the possibility that the findings are veridical, and there simply

is no pattern of relationships.

While the results of this study offer no conclusive evidence that professional orientation and organisational commitment are functionally independent, neither do they support the reverse position. They may perhaps be taken to indicate that students of organisational behaviour should more carefully examine the widely held belief that a decline of professionalism is a necessary concomitant of organisational allegiance. When the professional is dependent upon the organisation for the practice of his professional skills the relationship between professionalism and bureaucracy is apparently complex. In the present study the absence of a "rise and fall" relationship between professional orientation and organisational commitment, in view of the comparatively high level of professional orientation attributed to the complete sample, suggests that professionals have accommodated to the organisation without serious effects upon their professional orientation. This tends to lend support to Thornton's (1971) observation that under certain circumstances professionals can readily maintain simultaneous commitment to profession and organisation. From the data, this appears to be especially so if the organisation creates conditions in which the professional makes his commitment through reference groups of professional colleagues. It is perhaps significant that the reference groups invested with the greatest legitimacy for a surrender of professional autonomy are those closest to the work

setting of individual professionals. This may well be a further case of Merton's "proximity to decision-making" thesis in operation, this time at a lower level in the formal structure of the organisation, but where decisions made are likely to be closer to the heart of professionals than those of the more remote administrative reference groups. It may also be the case that the particular nature of schools as organisations, and the professional aspects of teachers' work, create special opportunities for the organisation to pursue its goals by the use of colleague reference groups. This may not be the case with more orthodox bureaucratic organisations. These factors may account in part for failure to establish a relationship between status in the organisation and commitment to the organisation, and between length of service in the organisation and organisational commitment. Conflict theory explanations frequently regard both status and length of service to be conducive to increased conformity to organisational demands, and hence to reduced professionalism. Ability to make adjustments to the organisation through colleague reference groups may well prevent loss of professionalism, or even enhance it, irrespective of status or length of service. However, a major part of the explanation may lie in the statistical problems, already indicated, of seeking patterns of relationships with small samples.

In discussing the nature of professionalism earlier in this study, the assumption was made that as attitudes influence behaviour

professional attitudes should relate to professional behaviour. In view of this assumption it is interesting to note that no relationships were established between professional orientation and professional behaviour, or between professional orientation and self rating on professionalism, whereas a significant relationship was established between professional behaviour and self rating on professionalism. Perhaps Hughes (1960) explanation that "professionalism is a state of mind, not a reality" helps to describe this discrepancy between what professionals believe ought to be the case (orientation) and what is the case(behaviour). On the other hand, professionals presumably find little difficulty in rating themselves against behavioural measures, and can compare their own and others' behaviour more realistically.

Recommendations

It is apparent from the results of this study that explanations of the behaviour of professionals in large organisations require re-examination. The extent of both bureaucracy and professionalism in modern life demands dynamic explanations that can account for rapidly changing conditions. This is particularly the case with theories of professionalism. Explanations of professionalism largely appear to have accepted the situation of the "organisation professional" as being one of inevitable personal stress, and conflict with the organisation. The bulk of research has tended to support this notion of the organisation as the graveyard of the high ideals of

professionalism. This appears to have created the situation in which the term "bureaucracy" has taken on pejorative overtones, whereas "professional" has developed subtle overtones of approbation. Despite this suggestion of value interpretation, the consistency with which a conflict conclusion is reached in the literature constitutes a powerful case for cautious interpretation of contrary findings or argument. However, in view of the support that this investigation appears to lend to a few recent studies suggesting that professionals can accommodate to organisational demands without compromising their professionalism, it is recommended that the relationship between bureaucracy and professionalism be exposed to further analysis, both conceptual and empirical. In keeping with the proliferation of principles of bureaucracy in public and private life, and the development of a modern breed of "organisation-professionals", new or expanded theories are required to explain the nature of a professionalism which includes the ability to reconcile commitment to both organisation and professional ideals. The implication can hardly be avoided that this may mark the development of new dimensions of professionalism, and perhaps bureaucracy, or at least modification of existing dimensions. Further conceptual analysis and research are required to establish the adequacy of conflict and accommodation theories of the organisational behaviour of professionals.

Similarly, the conclusions reached in this study suggest that further study is required in order to understand the organisational conditions in which both organisation and professional can achieve

maximum commitment and minimum conflict or mutual damage. The extent to which colleague reference groups can take on the function of more remote organisational functionaries in regulating professionals' life in the organisation is a question for further research, as is the extent to which the techniques appropriate to the special nature of educational organisations have general application for other complex organisations.

This questionnaire is designed to discern attitudes that college staff have about some some aspects of work in a teachers college.

For this study there is no necessity to identify any single respondent, and no attempt will be made to do so. No names are asked for.

ıen you have completed the questionnaire you are asked to

i. Write your name on a slip of paper and drop it in the box held by the receptionist for this purpose. This box will be cleared at the end of each week.

ii. Place the completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and return it to one of the unmarked boxes on the bottom row of the staff boxes in the Campus School staffroom. These boxes will be cleared daily.

Please read carefully before proceeding to the questionnaire:

PART A

On the following pages are described a series of situations which might occur to a member of the teaching staff in the course of a college year.

The situations may not apply directly to you, but you are asked to imagine yourself in such a position and to indicate what you might do.

There are no right or wrong answers nor will any 'evaluation' of any answer be attempted.

NOTES

1. Each situation described supposes that you regard any course of action you undertake in teaching or organising your normal courses, as being consistent with your professional goals.

2. In each situation described however, it is hypothesized that as a consequence of your actions, someone else's goals are compromised e.g. a colleague's goals, your department's, the college council's etc.

3. In each situation described, you are asked to indicate whether you would find the fact that you are compromising the professional goals of these others, a legitimate reason for you to modify your original course of action.

4. It may be that sometimes you would not modify your behaviour for anyone. If so, you are asked to write into the available space reasons that you would accept as legitimate.

Below is an example situation

> You teach part of a compulsory course which is taken by half the students as a degree unit. You set all students a workload that you consider appropriate to the standard you would want students to achieve.

a. It transpires that the Academic Committee of the Council views your requirements as not being in the best interests of the college. You learn of this from the Academic Committee, through the proper channels. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted on you by the Council. To what extent would you be likely to modify your requirements ?

Completely	Considerably	Quite a Lot	A Little	Not at all
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

b. In a second case, you learn through proper channels from a representative of the academic administration, that although they are not personally inconvenienced, there is agreement among the administration that your actions are compromising college interests. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted on you. To what extent would you be likely to modify ?

Completely	Considerably	Quite a Lot	A Little	Not at All
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

c. In a third case you learn through proper channels that the College Staff as a whole, although not personally inconvenienced, agree that the college's interests are compromised by your actions. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted. Would you be likely to modify.

Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

d. In a fourth case, you learn through proper channels, that your department members although not personally inconvenienced, agree that the department's interests are compromised by your actions. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted on you. Would you be likely to modify

Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at All
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

e. In a fifth case, you learn through proper channels, that your course colleagues although not personally inconvenienced, agree that your actions are not in the best interests of the course. After exhaustive discussion the matter remains unchanged. No compulsion is exerted on you. Would you be likely to modify

Completely	Considerably	Quite a Lot	A little	Not at all
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

f. In a sixth case, a colleague lets you know that your actions are inconveniencing him in the pursuit of his professional goals. After exhaustive discussion you cannot reconcile your differing points of view, and of course he cannot compel you to change. Would you be likely to modify

Completely	Considerably	Quite a Lot	A little	Not at All
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

g. In a final case, an appointed representative of the students approaches you and lets you know that your actions are interferring with the pursuit of their professional goals. After exhaustive discussions you cannot reconcile your view points, and of course they cannot compel you to change. Would you modify.

Completely	Considerably	Quite a Lot	A little	Not at All
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If you did not modify your behaviour at all, can you briefly indicate the conditions under which you think you would -

.....

.....

For the remaining items, the format has been changed ... to save time. The ituation is described first, then follows the question "Would you be likely to modify our actions in accordance with the wishes of (i) The Council, (ii) The cademic Administration, (iii) The College Staff, (iv) Your Department (v) Course olleagues, (vi) A Colleague , (vii) The students.

After each appears a set of brackets that indicate likely degree of modification.

In each case it is taken for granted that you learn of the disagreement in a roper manner, that exhaustive discussion does not change the matter, and that no ne is exercising a right to compel you to change.

.

Inside the college you are very outspoken in criticizing certain academic policies of the college

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
HE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
HE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
HE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
OUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
OURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
HE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

f no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

As part of your course, students are gathering information on a controversial issue in the community.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
IE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
IE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
IE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
)UR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
)URSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
IE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

? no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

In order to update your qualifications you are heavily engaged in research and study which will eventually benefit your teaching.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
IE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
IE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
IE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
)UR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
)URSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
IE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

? no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

4. Because of your interest and expertise you become prominent in one of the extra-curricular activities of the college. As representative of the college activity, you become involved at a wider level also. This entails your absence from college from time to time.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

5. Throughout the year a small group of students by their attitudes and actions has seriously affected the work of the majority of your students. You have told these students that you will not take them into your class next year.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of -

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A Little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

5. You have developed a system of record keeping for your course that you find workable, and relevant to your particular subject. Your system differs from the system recommended for all course records.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

You have decided that students must purchase a number of texts for the course you will teach next year. The total cost of these texts turns out to be high relative to other courses.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a Lot	A little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

8. As an essential part of the course that you teach, you plan to take students on several field trips. The only transport available to you will entail students in absences from some classes in other courses.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of -

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

9. In teaching your course you use content and methods that you personally feel will provide the best motivation for students.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

10. During the running of an integrated course, you are attached to another department as a resource person You arrange for a series of good speakers, but as the course develops you recognise they will offend the department you are servicing.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

11. In evaluating student performance in your course, you use a distinctive type of assessment programme. You prefer this type of assessment programme because it is most consistent with your goals. The type of assessment programme differs from that habitually used in other courses.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGUES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify

12. In discussion with the students in one of your courses you have decided to make attendance at your course optional because you are confident they will work better this way.

Would you be likely to modify your actions in accordance with the wishes of

	Completely	Considerably	Quite a lot	A little	Not at all
THE COUNCIL	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE ADMINISTRATION	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE COLLEGE STAFF	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
YOUR DEPARTMENT	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
COURSE COLLEAGES	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A COLLEAGUE	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
THE STUDENTS	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

If no modification at all, indicate conditions in which you would modify -

PART B

Below is a series of statements about attitudes and actions. You are asked to indicate the extent to which you agree, disagree, or are undecided about these statements.

Please respond to all questions

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Un - Decided	Dis- Agree	Strongly Disagree
A lecturer should be permitted to act counter to college policy if he is sure that the best interests of the students will be served in doing so.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
The task of training prospective teachers is important enough that you would probably stay in the job even if there were fewer extrinsic rewards (such as lower salary, shorter holidays etc)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A lecturer should not do anything that he believes may jeopardise the interests of his students, regardless of college policy on the matter.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
In the course of his work, a lecturer should place a higher priority on the meeting of his students' needs than on the meeting of his own.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
A lecturer should try to live up to what he believes are standards appropriate to the profession, even if these standards do not appear to be respected by the community at large.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
One primary criterion of a good college should be the degree of respect its lecturers command from informed university teachers engaged in similar teaching tasks.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Lecturers should be active members of at least one professional association, and attend most meetings of the association.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Lecturers should read the standard professional journals in their field.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Un-Decided	Dis-Agree	Strongly Disagree
Lecturers should not be appointed unless they are graduates (or equivalent) in the field of their appointment.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. A Lecturer's skill should be based primarily on a thorough acquaintance with his special subject matter.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. It is more important that your teaching qualities are respected by your colleagues than by your employing authority.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. A lecturer should show special skills and knowledge which could not be acquired without extensive professional training and experience.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. A lecturer should be able to make his own decisions about problems that come up in the classroom.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. Small matters should not have to be referred to someone higher up for final answers.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. The ultimate authority over major educational decisions in the college should be exercised by those concerned with teaching.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. A lecturer should be able to make his own decisions without pressure from the administration, or his employing authority.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

NT C

For the purposes of the study it is essential for the level of respondents' positions to be identified.

Below the official positions in the college are listed in groups with an identifying number. Please circle the number identifying the group into which your position falls:

1.	2.	3.
Principal	Principal Lecturer (Large Dept.)	Senior Lecturer (H.O.Dept)
Vice-Principal	Principal Lecturer (Small Dept.)	Senior Lecturer (Yr.Gp. Resp.
Dean	Principal Lecturer (Special Respns)	Senior Lecturer (Subj.Resp.)

4.	5.
Permanent Lecturer (Special Respons.)	Relieving Lecturer
Permanent Lecturer	Seconded Lecturer
	Part-time Lectuere

Would you also supply the following information : -

How many years have you held your present position	0 - 2	2 - 5	5+
How many years have you been at this college	0 - 5	5 - 10	10+
What is your age	20 - 32	32 - 45	46+

Please circle appropriate response.

a.	Highest qualification held	Diploma. Bachelors. Masters. Teachers Certificate
b.	Number of professional journals read regularly	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 If 8+ how many -
c.	Number of hoursiper week devoted to professional reading	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 If 8+ how many -
d.	Number of professional conferences, courses, etc attended in past 2 years.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 If 8+ how many -
	Number of articles published in professional journals, or papers presented to professional conferences, courses etc in past 2 years.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 If 8+ how many
	Number of professional organisations member of over past 2 years	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 If 8+ how many
	Activity in professional organisations over past 2 years.	Held office Committee member Attend regularly Attend sometimes Membership only Non-member

If you were asked to rate your degree of professionalism by comparison with other persons in the profession, how would you score yourself on this 8 point scale ? (8 is high)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

APPENDIX B

ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES - PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION SCALE

Item Number	Number of Respondents Scoring					Range	Median Score	Mean Score
	1	2	3	4	5			
8	1	14	10	14	6	1-5	3	3.22
2	0	9	5	24	7	2-5	4	3.64
3	1	12	11	16	5	1-5	3	3.26
4	0	2	4	22	17	2-5	4	3.98
5	1	0	3	19	22	1-5	4	4.35
6	1	10	5	25	4	1-5	4	3.47
7	0	5	6	22	12	2-5	4	3.91
8	0	1	0	22	22	2-5	4	4.44
9	2	15	6	14	8	1-5	3	3.24
10	0	5	5	26	9	2-5	4	3.87
11	0	5	8	22	10	2-5	4	3.82
12	0	2	4	24	15	2-5	4	4.15
13	0	2	2	25	16	2-5	4	4.22
14	0	0	0	22	23	4-5	5	4.57
15	1	7	4	20	13	1-5	4	3.82
16	0	5	10	17	13	2-5	4	3.85

ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES - ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

ITEM 1		Number of Respondents Scoring 1	2	3	4	5	Range	Md.	Mean
Council -	CC	9	17	11	4	3	1-5	2	2.45
Administration -	Ad	8	15	14	5	2	1-5	2	2.50
Staff -	Sta	6	13	14	9	2	1-5	3	2.73
Department -	Dp	2	11	9	17	5	1-5	4	3.27
Course -	Co	3	11	7	17	6	1-5	4	3.27
Colleague -	Col	9	19	8	7	1	1-5	2	2.37
Students -	Stu	7	11	17	8	1	1-5	3	2.66

ITEM 2		Number of Respondents Scoring 1	2	3	4	5	Range	Md.	Mean
	CC	12	12	10	5	6	1-5	2	2.53
	Ad	13	7	12	7	6	1-5	3	2.69
	Sta	10	12	13	8	2	1-5	3	2.78
	Dp	4	7	14	14	6	1-5	3	3.24
	Co	5	9	9	17	5	1-5	3	3.18
	Col	10	19	8	8	-	1-4	2	2.31
	Stu	2	14	13	13	3	1-5	3	2.80

ITEM 3									
	CC	13	12	8	10	2	1-5	2	2.46
	Ad	13	12	8	11	1	1-5	2	2.44
	Sta	18	11	9	6	1	1-5	2	2.13
	Dp	10	6	11	14	4	1-5	3	2.91
	Co	12	6	11	13	3	1-5	3	2.76
	Col	21	12	9	3	-	1-4	2	1.86
	Stu	17	10	10	8	-	1-4	2	2.20

ITEM 4									
	CC	2	11	10	19	3	1-5	3	3.22
	Ad	4	7	13	17	4	1-5	3	3.22
	Sta	2	16	9	17	1	1-5	3	2.97
	Dp	-	5	13	20	7	2-5	4	3.64
	Co	1	6	11	19	8	1-5	4	3.60
	Col	14	13	10	8	-	1-4	2	2.27
	Stu	11	9	14	10	1	1-5	3	2.57

ITEM 5	Number of Respondents Scoring 1	2	3	4	5	Range	Md.	Mean
CC	11	17	7	4	6	1-5	2	2.48
Ad	8	16	11	4	6	1-5	2	2.64
Sta	9	18	10	4	4	1-5	2	2.46
Dp	5	7	19	10	4	1-5	3	3.02
Co	8	11	14	8	4	1-5	3	2.76
Col	18	16	7	3	1	1-5	2	1.94
Stu	15	9	10	6	5	1-5	2	2.48

ITEM 6	Number of Respondents Scoring 1	2	3	4	5	Range	Md.	Mean
CC	9	9	8	12	7	1-5	3	2.98
Ad	4	6	9	16	10	1-5	4	3.49
Sta	10	7	11	12	5	1-5	3	2.88
Dp	5	3	8	12	17	1-5	4	3.72
Co	9	3	6	17	10	1-5	4	3.36
Col	17	12	5	7	4	1-5	2	2.31
Stu	17	12	5	9	2	1-5	2	2.27

ITEM 7								
CC	6	10	15	9	5	1-5	3	2.93
Ad	2	9	12	15	7	1-5	3	3.36
Sta	4	14	13	9	5	1-5	3	2.93
Dp	-	3	15	18	9	2-5	4	3.72
Co	1	5	13	17	9	1-5	4	3.62
Col	7	18	12	5	3	1-5	2	2.44
Stu	1	4	21	11	8	1-5	3	3.47

ITEM 8								
CC	8	11	11	7	8	1-5	3	2.91
Ad	4	6	16	11	8	1-5	3	3.28
Sta	-	5	13	14	13	2-5	4	3.78
Dp	-	5	12	17	11	2-5	4	3.75
Co	2	6	10	11	11	1-5	4	3.62
Col	3	13	19	4	6	1-5	3	2.93
Stu	1	3	19	14	8	1-5	3	3.56

ITEM 9	Number of Respondents Scoring							
	1	2	3	4	5	Range	Md.	Mean
CC	18	19	5	2	1	1-5	2	1.86
Ad	16	21	5	2	1	1-5	2	1.90
Sta	13	21	6	4	1	1-5	2	2.13
Dp	3	15	16	10	1	1-5	3	2.80
Co	4	14	12	14	1	1-5	3	2.64
Col	14	19	8	4	-	1-4	2	2.04
Stu	5	14	13	11	2	1-5	3	2.80

ITEM 10	Number of Respondents Scoring							
	1	2	3	4	5	Range	Md.	Mean
CC	11	7	7	13	7	1-5	3	2.96
Ad	10	8	4	15		1-5	3	2.96
Sta	5	9	7	15	9	1-5	4	3.30
Dp	3	8	10	13	11	1-5	4	3.47
Co	1	5	8	16	15	1-5	4	3.87
Col	4	15	11	9	6	1-5	3	2.96
Stu	4	12	10	12	7	1-5	3	3.14

ITEM 11								
CC	17	17	4	3	4	1-5	2	2.11
Ad	7	19	10	4	5	1-5	2	2.46
Sta	9	21	7	4	4	1-5	2	2.40
Dp	4	9	17	9	6	1-5	3	3.08
Co	4	10	14	13	4	1-5	3	3.06
Col	16	15	10	2	2	1-5	2	2.09
Stu	8	15	10	10	2	1-5	2	2.62

ITEM 12								
CC	8	12	7	11	7	1-5	3	2.93
Ad	7	11	7	11	9	1-5	3	3.08
Sta	13	8	13	5	6	1-5	3	2.62
Dp	3	8	15	10	9	1-5	3	3.30
Co	3	12	12	8	10	1-5	3	3.22
Col	14	19	7	2	3	1-5	2	2.13
Stu	3	10	9	13	10	1-5	4	3.38

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT - PRIORITIES ALLOTTED TO REFERENCE

GROUPS - INDIVIDUAL SCORES

Respondent	College Council	Administration	Staff	Department	Course Colleagues	Colleague	Students
1	2	5	4	3	1	7	6
2	5	3	6	1	2	7	3
3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
4	1	2	2	2	5	6	7
5	4	3	5	1	1	7	6
6	2	2	2	1	6	7	5
7	7	4	5	2	1	6	3
8	1	2	5	3	4	7	6
9	5	6	7	2	3	3	1
10	7	6	4	3	1	5	2
11	7	5	4	3	2	6	1
12	7	6	4	2	1	5	3
13	6	6	1	1	1	1	1
14	7	6	5	4	1	1	3
15	6	4	5	1	2	7	2
16	7	4	3	1	1	6	4
17	1	1	1	1	1	6	7
18	7	4	3	2	1	5	5
19	6	1	3	2	4	5	7
20	5	3	4	2	1	6	4
21	7	5	1	2	3	6	4

Respondents	College Council	Administration	Staff	Department	Course Colleagues	Colleague	Students
22	3	6	4	1	2	7	5
23	1	1	4	3	5	7	6
24	4	3	5	1	2	7	6
25	6	4	5	3	1	7	1
26	3	3	3	1	2	7	6
27	6	6	5	4	2	2	1
28	5	3	4	2	1	7	6
29	4	4	6	1	1	7	3
30	1	2	5	4	5	7	3
31	6	3	5	2	1	7	4
32	6	4	5	1	3	7	2
33	1	2	4	3	6	7	5
34	5	4	5	2	1	2	5
35	6	6	5	1	2	4	2
36	2	2	2	2	2	2	1
37	6	7	4	4	2	3	1
38	4	3	7	2	5	5	1
39	6	5	3	3	1	7	1
40	1	1	5	1	4	7	6
41	4	4	7	3	2	4	1
42	3	1	7	1	5	6	4

Respondents	Colleges Council	Administration	Staff	Department	Course Colleagues	Colleagues	Students
43	6	5	4	2	1	7	3
44	6	7	5	3	2	4	1
45	6	5	4	3	1	7	2

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES - INDIVIDUAL SCORES.

PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIOUR SCALE		SELF RATING ON PROFESSIONALISM SCALE.	
Score	n	Score	n
15	3	8	1
14	10	7	7
13	7	6	15
12	7	5	9
11	5	4	10
10	5	3	2
9	2	2	-
8	3	1	1
7	3		45
6	-		
5	-		
4	-		
3	-		
2	-		
1	-		
	45		

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