CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1   Introduction

Having set the context for this thesis in the previous chapter, the current chapter is aimed at identifying areas in the literature that highlight prominent research on collegiality and organizational and professional commitment, particularly relating to school teachers. The main goal of this chapter is to establish a foundation for understanding the concept of teacher collegiality by exploring past research. This research explores whether collegiality among public secondary school teachers in Pakistan could be a viable approach to helping teachers improve their commitment levels and whether collegiality affects school achievement based on students' academic results. The literature has been selected to suggest that collegiality among teaching staff contribute to high levels of organizational and professional commitment and improvements in student academic achievement.

This review of literature is drawn from the school restructuring era of the late 20th century which suggested that the social organization of schools as workplaces was an important factor that helped delineate effective from ineffective schools (Little, 1982; Rosenholtz, 1989). The following discussion presents summaries of major research studies in the areas of teacher collegiality,

organizational commitment, and professional commitment. This review focuses on identifying major themes and contributions concerning the three main dimensions of this study: (a) teacher collegiality, (b) teacher organizational commitment, and (c) teacher professional commitment.

2.2   Teacher Collegiality

One of the first researchers who discussed the phenomenon of teacher individualism and isolation in any systematic way was Dan Lortie (1975). In his famous book, *School Teacher*, Lortie (1975) described the condition of isolation among school teachers in great detail. He associated individualism with qualities of uncertainty and anxiety, which led teachers to rely mostly on their past experiences while developing their styles and teaching strategies. The majority of the teachers Lortie (1975) interviewed during his research did not happen to be isolated from one another by the architecture of the building; they intentionally preferred isolation. Teachers rarely discussed each other's work, never observed each other teaching and did not collectively analyze the value of their work.

Lortie's (1975) study specifically focusing on novice teachers, discussed the cellular organization of schools, pointing out that this structure of schooling significantly limited the types and amounts of teacher exchanges. Lortie (1975) contended that this early separatism forced the beginning teachers to deal with problems alone, making all decisions in isolation. Thus, new teachers learn early

to value independence, and this behavior is reinforced throughout their teaching career.

Furthermore, Lortie (1975) asserted that high teacher turnover and short teacher tenure contributed to teacher isolation. Although the need for mass schooling increased the number of individual classrooms in every school, it was the increased size of the school organization that speeded up the rate of teacher turnover. Lortie (1975) believed that the connection between independence of effort and high teacher turnover directly affected collegiality, which he described as teachers working together for a common purpose. He claimed that subject specialization and expertise also contributed to teacher isolation in schools. Indeed, schools as workplaces encouraged task independence as the easiest way to meet instructional goals (McLaughlin, Talbert, & Bascia, 1990). Task interdependence, in contrast, is complex, requiring each member of the organization to accept a specific role within a web of interpersonal relationships. Without strong group cohesion, isolation persists as the norm (Langfred, 1998).

Lortie (1975) described presentism, individualism, and conservatism as forms of isolation impeding the development of collegial cultures. Presentism refers to an orientation to the present rather than the future. Teachers tend to focus their energies on issues that will make an immediate difference rather than foresee the upcoming outcomes. Lortie (1975) claimed that this present-oriented focus influenced the types of rewards valued by teachers. Intrinsic rewards vary by

individual, but teacher satisfaction for task-related outcomes (when good things happen in the classroom) reinforced the notion of presentism. Likewise, individualism is congruent with an intrinsic reward system. As teachers establish their own goals and rewards, and with ambiguous criteria for achievement, individualism arises. The traditional school culture of isolation does not encourage teachers to choose indicators of effectiveness that rely on collegiality. In addition, Lortie (1975) claimed, teachers are able to align their own goals and indicators of effectiveness with their individual interests and abilities. Conservatism also supports teacher isolation and is most common among teachers entering the profession. Teachers traditionally act in a conservative manner, generally preserving the status quo. Without dissatisfaction with the culture of isolationism, conservatism prevails, and the traditional culture remains dominant.

2.2.1 Models and Forms of Teacher Collegiality

Little (1990) specified behavioral indicators of collegiality that she termed *joint work* (as shown in Figure 2.2). In conjunction with her indicators of *joint work*, Little (1990) created a model explaining an organization's journey from independence to interdependence. Her model (see Figure 2.1) included the four forms of collegiality, representing their strength and ability to impact the "fundamental condition of privacy". Little's (1990) model shows a continuum ranging from those activities that are compatible with teacher independence and autonomy to those that require interdependent action and the notion of collective

autonomy. In her explanation of the model, she classified *story telling and scanning for ideas*, *aid and assistance*, and *sharing* as less powerful tools in building collegial cultures.
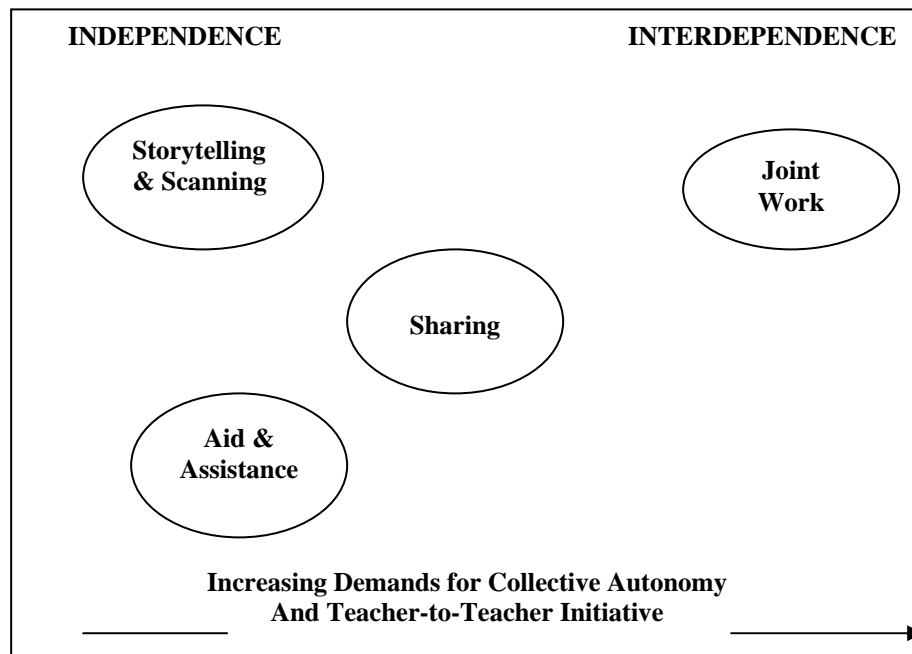

Figure 2.1. Little's descriptive model – a provisional continuum of joint relations. (Adapted from Little, 1990)

Story telling and scanning for ideas was described as an exchange of incomplete stories, complaining, and griping by school staff members. The focus was not on problem solving, nor was it a deep exchange between staff members. Although Little (1990) suggests its contribution to teacher development is limited, she refers to anthropological studies that point to storytelling as a means of building a group or providing a form of instruction. Little (1990) categorized *aid and assistance* as the help given to staff members by staff members, but only

- Talk about their practice

- Share craft knowledge

- Invite and observe each other teach

- Design and prepare own materials

- Design curriculum units

- Research ideas for curriculum units

- Write curriculum

- Prepare lesson plans

- Credit new ideas, programs and practices

- Persuade others to try an idea/approach

- Make collective agreements to test an idea

- Analyze practices and effects

- Teach each other during formal in-service

- Teach each other informally

- Talk "publicly" about what one is learning or wants to learn

- Convert book chapters to reflect new approaches

- Design in-services

- Evaluate performance of principals

Figure 2.2.   Little's indicators of collegiality and joint work (from Little, 1990).

when asked. *Aid and assistance* did not allow for evaluation or interference with

one another's work; therefore, depth of exchange rarely resulted. *Sharing*

indicated discussions about themselves in which staff members engaged, as well as the sharing of resources, ideas, knowledge, and suggestions. *Sharing* may have led to a change in pedagogy; however, no real work was actually accomplished together.

At the interdependence end of the continuum is *joint work*, which Little (1990) describes as "shared responsibility for the work of teaching" and "a collective conception of autonomy". She recognized *joint work* as a strong collaborative effort. *Joint work* provides an opportunity for staff members to develop deeper ties to one another and to build more trusting and productive staff relationships. Little (1990) believed that *joint work* had the greatest potential to build a school-wide culture of collegiality.

In *Improving Schools from Within* Barth (1990) describes collegiality in more precise terms, discussing four dimensions of collegiality based on Little's (1982) study. Barth (1990) proposes collegiality as a tool through which faculty members grow by learning with and from one another. According to him, collegiality is more than educators being congenial and talking about novels or politics; rather, collegiality is what happens when educators work together collaboratively, as colleagues.

Barth's (1990) model of collegiality shows the presence of four specific behaviors as follows:

- Adults in the school *talk about practice*. These conversations about teaching and learning are frequent, continuous, concrete, and precise.

- Adults in schools *observe each other* engaged in the practice of teaching and administration. These observations become the practice to reflect on and talk about.

- Adults engage together in *work on curriculum* by planning, designing, researching, and evaluating curriculum.

- Adults in schools *teach each other* what they know about teaching, learning, and leading. Craft knowledge is revealed, articulated, and shared.

2.2.2 Benefits of Teacher Collegiality

The importance of teacher collegiality in any school is not a new recognition (see e.g., Hargreaves, 1994; Jarzabkowski, 2002; Little, 1990; Nias, 1998, Nias et al., 1989). Numerous benefits from teacher collegiality have been reported as evidence of the need for building a more effective collegial culture in schools. The most significant benefit of collegiality among school staff is an improvement in student behavior, attitude, and achievement (Inger, 1993; Little, 1987, 1990). Research on the extent of teachers' collaborative school improvement practices as related to student achievement suggests that schools with higher levels of teacher collegiality had higher achievement scores (see e.g., Goddard et al., 2007; Hord, 1997; Louis & Marks, 1998; McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993; Newmann & Wehlage,

1995; Rosenholtz, 1989).

Little (1987) suggests that instead of grasping for the single dramatic event or the special achievements of a few children as the main source of pride, teachers are more able to detect and celebrate a pattern of accomplishments within and across classrooms if they are able to establish collegial relations. Barth (2006) argues that the nature of relationships among the adults within a school has a greater influence on the character and quality of that school and on student accomplishment than anything else.

Inger (1993) suggests that collegiality leads to increased teacher satisfaction and adaptability. It breaks the isolation of the classroom and brings career rewards and daily satisfactions for teachers. It not only stimulates enthusiasm among teachers but also avoids end-of-year burnout. Teachers take considerable satisfaction from professional relationships that withstand differences in their viewpoints and occasional conflicts.

Hargreaves (1995) listed eleven benefits of collaboration among school staff: moral support; increased efficiency; improved effectiveness; reduced overload; synchronized time perspectives between teachers and administrators (i.e., shared and realistic expectations about timeframes for change and implementation); situated certainty of collective professional wisdom; political assertiveness; increased capacity for reflection; organizational responsiveness; opportunities to

learn; and continuous learning. He argued that collaboration takes "teacher development beyond personal, idiosyncratic reflection, or dependence on outside experts, to a point where teachers can learn from each other, sharing and developing their expertise together" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 183).

Johnson (2003) also claimed that collegiality promotes teacher learning from each other, which leads to an unending process of continuous improvement, while Schmoker (2006) supported this view by stating that collegial learning communities are the best means to continuously improve instruction and student performance. Under the norms of privatism much good teaching goes on unacknowledged while teachers who work in collegial settings become more open to new ideas, teaching methods, and resources. Collegiality also promotes reflection as peers serve as sources of feedback and teachers are given opportunities to reflect on their own practices.

Little (1987) argues that public airing of teaching issues besides encouraging moral support can also lead to increased respect and influence in the case of successful instances of teaching. Teachers are better prepared to support one another's strengths and accommodate weaknesses. Little (1990) further claims that collegiality provides more systemic assistance to beginning teachers. It avoids the sink-or-swim, trial-and-error mode that novice teachers usually face during the initial stages of their career. Collegiality brings experienced and beginning teachers closer together to reinforce the competence and confidence of

the beginners (Little, 1990; Nias, 1998). In this way, teachers are organized to ease the strain of staff turnover, both by providing systematic professional assistance to beginners and by explicitly socializing all newcomers, including veteran teachers, to staff values, traditions, and resources. Woods and Weasmer (2002) support the view saying that collegiality enhances satisfaction among teachers, thus reducing attrition.

One practical benefit of promoting closer collegial networks among teachers highlighted by Little (1990) is the orchestration of the daily work of teaching across classrooms. Teachers who work collegially are better prepared to support one another (Little, 1990). They are better equipped for classroom work and have more opportunities to learn from each other and establish long lasting and trusting professional relationships.

Teachers become more adaptable and self-reliant in times of change, and cope better with new demands that would normally exhaust the energy and resources of teachers working on their own (Little, 1990). Fullan (1991) also maintains that the power for change lies in teacher collaboration. He suggests that, for educational change to happen, teachers need to understand themselves and be understood by others. He claims that his work and many other studies have revealed that educational change is most successful when collegial practices are in place.

Adding to the list, Cousins and colleagues (1992) claimed both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards to teachers from working in highly collegial and collaborative culture. They studied three schools with collaborative culture and found that joint work saved teachers' time and effort, enhanced their access to instructional resources, and facilitated consensus building and decisions to adopt or abandon innovations. It led to the development of mechanisms through which teachers could monitor and refine their practices. Intrinsic rewards were widespread. Teachers benefited greatly from the collective generation of ideas and suggestions, enhanced communication, willingness to seek and give help, improved practice and enhanced repertoires of techniques, and in some cases, educational philosophy and consistency and unity in achieving organizational goals. Organizational conditions including principal coordination and support and collaborative norms in schools supported these teacher-teacher interaction.

Graves (2001) researched into strategies that encourage teachers to maintain their energy levels and keep their teaching innovative. He found collegiality to be the most important energy giver and claimed that "when teachers had strong emotional connections with colleagues their teaching energy was high" (Graves, 2001, p. 12).

Teacher collegiality has also been linked in a positive way to teachers' sense of self-efficacy by many researchers (see e.g., Goddard & Skrla, 2006; Pfaff, 2000; Shachar & Shmuelevitz, 1997; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995). Norms of

individualism and noninterference have been shown to weaken teachers'
confidence about the efficacy of their own practice (Ashton & Webb, 1986;
Rosenholtz, 1991) which eventually limits the possibility of improving student
learning (Evans-Stout, 1998; Kruse, Louis, & Bryk, 1995) and lowers the
expectations teachers have of their students and the curricula they deliver
(Johnson, 1990).

2.2.3   Barriers to Teacher Collegiality

The research literature on teacher professional collegiality has consistently
cited a number of prevailing barriers to meaningful interactions (see e.g., Dipardo,
1997; Knop et al., 1997; Kruse & Louis, 1997; Leonard, 1998). Inhibitors to such
professional collegial interactions have been noted often in the literature, among
them the most repeatedly highlighted are: time constraints, fragmented visions,
competitiveness, conflict avoidance, and lack of administrative support (Dipardo,
1997; Johnson, 1990; Knop et al., 1997; Kruse & Louis, 1997; Leonard, 1998).

Johnson (1990) in her research cited the structure and organization of schools
themselves as inhibiting factors to teacher interdependence and collaboration.
Bureaucratic restraints, such as scheduling issues, often inhibit the development
of collegiality among staff. Some administrative practices also discourage
cooperation among teachers, especially those that emphasize competition
(Johnson, 1990).

School size also acts as hindrance to collegiality. Teachers in smaller schools are more likely to collaborate with one another (Nathan, 2002) and participate in teamwork (Galletti, 1999). Lee and Smith (1996) argued that, although collaboration is possible in larger schools, collective learning occurs more easily and naturally in smaller schools.

Similarly, teachers' varied personalities and beliefs also pose a unique challenge to building effective collegiality. Teachers have their own ideas regarding effective teaching and learning; however, collaboration requires all faculty members to come to a consensus regarding their beliefs and goals (Kruse, 1996). For getting consensus, they need to trust each other. Until trust is built among them and a consensus has been met on the school's vision, isolation and separate agendas will continue to prevent teachers from learning from one another (Schmoker, 1999), and becoming lifelong learners (Leonard & Leonard, 1999). Teachers must also have a belief in the relationship between individual success and collegial success, and must share common interests (Kruse, 1996).

Diez and Blackwell (2002) and Bezzina (2006) state that as teachers are trained to work independently in their classrooms, they are unwilling to relinquish some of their autonomy for successful collaboration. Tschannen-Moran (2001) also suggested that teachers must sacrifice some of the autonomy they value so highly in order to reap the potential benefits of greater collaboration.

The most prominent barrier to shared work activity among educators is the ubiquitous issue of time (Friend & Cook, 2000). Successful collaborative planning, consultation, and evaluation require a major time commitment. The study conducted by Leonard and Leonard (2003) pointed out that teachers did not think it appropriate that they should be expected to utilize after-school time for collaborative activities. In their research, the major barriers to collegial activities mentioned by teachers included paucity of time, apparent attitude and lack of commitment by teachers, lack of compensation, resistance to change, competition, and lack of interest in doing things differently. The participants of their study talked of teachers who wished to avoid additional work as well as those who prefer "to work alone" and stay in their "comfort zone". References were also made to "resistance to change", "competition" among teachers for high test scores, and a genuine "lack of interest" in doing things differently and creatively. Other noted barriers to collegial opportunities included tight scheduling (especially in smaller schools), teacher personality conflicts, and lack of administrative support (Leonard & Leonard, 2003).

Leonard and Leonard's (2003) study recommended the following for improved administrative support for collaboration: scheduling that would better facilitate teacher interaction during the day, arranging for team teaching, providing substitute teachers to free up teachers to work together, organizing classroom allocations more effectively, providing directives and incentives for

after school work, and setting stronger expectations that teachers actually collaborate in meaningful ways. For building an effective collegial culture, principal support is critical; however, collaboration cannot be mandated, only supported.

Guskey (2003) argued that school reform requires staff development built around groups of teachers working together to share ideas and strategies and reflecting on their practice. The development of teaching teams in which teachers get time to collaborate, forms the core structure in schools that achieve successful systemic reform (Darling-Hammond, 1997). Supovitz (2002) also identified the need for adequate training to prevent teacher isolation and improvements in teachers' learning instructional practices from each other.

Lewis (2004) in his study of teacher collaboration, noted teachers complaints of lack of formal planning time, lack of technological resources, and lack of involvement by the principal which mostly interfered with the continuation of their collaboration.

Howe (2007) in his study of an academy of a large urban high school, highlighted physical layout of schools, external demands, lack of professional development, and weak administrative footprint as the major challenges to collaboration among school teachers. Howe (2007) also regarded smaller school size as more effective in building collegiality among school staff.

2.2.4 Criticism on Teacher Collegiality

Hargreaves (1994) taking a quite different approach, criticizes on some of the aspects of collegiality. He used the term 'contrived collegiality' which refers to those occasions on which teachers are asked deliberately by administrators or policy makers to collaborate on specific projects or other structured tasks. Hargreaves (1994) warned of the danger of contrived collegiality, stating: "This occurs when spontaneous, dangerous, and difficult-to-control forms of teacher collaboration are discouraged or usurped by the administrators who capture it, contain it and contrive it through compulsory cooperation, required collaborative planning, stage-managed mission statements, labyrinthine procedures of school development planning and processes of collaboration to implement non-negotiable programs and curricula whose viability and practicality are not open to discussion" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 80).

Hargreaves (1994) uses the distinction between internally generated and externally imposed collaboration to distinguish between collaborative cultures and contrived collegiality. A collegial or collaborative culture is seen as a bottom up initiative arising from teachers' desire or need to work together to accomplish tasks, whereas contrived collegiality is seen as a top down strategy to achieve a particular goal or affect. The characteristics of the two paradigms seem diametrically opposed (as shown in Table 2.1). However, both collaborative

cultures and contrived collegiality can exist in the same organization.

Table 2.1

Collaborative Cultures and Contrived Collegiality (From Hargreaves, 1994)

Collaborative Cultures	Contrived Collegiality
Spontaneous	Administratively regulated
Voluntary	Compulsory
Development oriented	Implementation orientated
Pervasive across time and	Fixed in time and space
space	Predictable
Unpredictable	

While contrived collegiality may encourage teachers to work together, Hargreaves (1994) suggests that it often marks a division of labor. The conception and planning of curriculum and assessment reside with administrators while teachers are held responsible for program implementation. The amount of discretion teachers have is reduced with their role being diminished to that of technicians. Hargreaves (1994) states that mandated or contrived collegiality "diverts teachers' efforts and energies into simulated compliance with administrative demands that are inflexible and inappropriate for the settings in which they work" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 208). To Hargreaves and Dawe (1989, p. 19) "contrived collegiality is also meant to assist the successful implementation of

new approaches and techniques from the outside into a more responsive and supportive school culture."

Smyth (1991) in his article, *International Perspectives on Teacher Collegiality* adopted a different stance to teacher collegiality in contrast to other researchers (e.g., Little, 1982; Zahorik, 1987) and raises significant questions of why we are experiencing a sudden rush to having teachers operate collegially and whether collegiality has the efficiency to resolve the complex educational issues in the way being suggested or if it is just another way of sedimenting control into the labor process of teaching. Smyth (1991) highlighted the intent of external forces that would institutionalize collegiality and use it to serve their own ends, and not those of teachers and students. He claims that teachers being given more autonomy at the school level are expected to work under more tightened and constrained evaluating parameters.

According to his perceptions, the concept of adopting the team approach in schools to produce the kinds of educated labor required for economic recovery is not dissimilar from earlier moves that restructured control over teachers' work through the redefinition of "professionalism". The strategy is one that gives the outward appearances of participative and collaborative ways of working, but which on closer inspection amount to a policy option that is co-optive of teachers and that gives them little more than control over the implementation aspects of teaching in a context of rigidly formulated centrally prescribed educational

guidelines.

Johnson (2003) claims that as schools become more collaborative, they can also become micro-political in terms of power and influence-based interactions. There is a danger of group thinking or uncritical conformity to the group, which represses individual dissent and encourages group acceptance of new ideas without critical thought. In this way, collaboration can underplay the role of diversity, dissent, and disagreement (Achinstein, 2002). Collaborative work sometimes also intensify teachers' actual routine work instead of alleviating workloads, as they need to meet more frequently with colleagues, taking time away from their normal duties. Participation and teamwork often leads to power struggle among colleagues. Grossman et al. (2001) state that reducing isolation among school teachers can result in increased workplace conflicts that had been unapparent as long as teachers worked independently.

2.2.5 Teacher Collegiality and School Improvement

Collegiality is one of the most important factors in determining the quality of a school. Barth (1990) assumes that the task of developing collegiality may be integral to the task of improving schools. Little (1982) found that more effective schools could be differentiated from less effective schools by the degree of teacher collegiality, or collaboration they practiced. Cook and Friend (1991) have also noted that collaboration appears to be the unifying theme that characterized

many of the new developments in the successful schools of the 1990s. Even the recent literature on school improvement also shows that the most promising strategy for sustained, substantive school improvement is developing the ability among school personnel to function as professional collegial communities (Barth, 1990, 2001; DuFour, 2004; Fullan, 2003; Goldenberg, 2004; Joyce, 2004; Little et al., 2003; Schmoker, 2004).

One of the most extensive studies of teacher collegiality is Little's (1982) year-long study of six urban (three elementary and three secondary) schools. Little (1982) selected four relatively successful and two relatively unsuccessful schools for her study. More successful schools, particularly those receptive to staff development, were differentiated from less successful (and less receptive) schools by patterned norms of interaction among staff members. Semi-structured interviews with 105 teachers and 14 administrators, supplemented by observation provided data for this focused ethnographic study. Little (1982) found that in successful schools more than in unsuccessful ones, teachers valued and participated in norms of collegiality and continuous improvement (experimentation); they pursued a greater range of professional interactions with fellow teachers or administrators.

Little (1982) found that four collegial practices, or what she calls "critical practices of adaptability" are characteristics of schools that have relatively high achievement and extensive staff development: (a) talk about instruction, (b)

structured observation, (c) shared designing and planning of teaching materials, and (d) coaching each other in various ways. They did so with greater frequency, with a greater number and diversity of persons and locations, and with a more concrete and precise shared language. Little's (1982) work provides valuable understanding of collegiality among teachers and between teachers and principals as schools are engaged in professional development programs.

Goodlad (1984) analyzed the working conditions of school teachers and noted that teachers functioned independently. Their autonomy seemed to be exercised in a context more of isolation than of rich professional dialogue. In his classic book, *A Place Called School,* Goodlad (1984) described that inside the sampled schools, he noticed that teacher-to-teacher interactions for mutual assistance or collaborative school improvement were weak or non-existent. Teachers indicated that they had never observed one of their colleagues teaching.

Goodlad (1984) also pointed out that more than 75% of the teachers were greatly influenced in what they taught either by their own background, interest, and experiences or by students' interest and experience. Teachers also indicated that they did not work together on school-wide problems. He further argued that there was little information in the data collected to "suggest active, ongoing exchanges of ideas and practices across the school, between groups of teachers, or between individuals in the same school" (Goodlad, 1984, p. 187).

Rosenholtz's (1989) workplace study of 78 schools in 8 districts in Tennessee supports many of Goodlad's observations. Her study affirmed the importance of the social context as she concluded that professional learning communities support adoption because educators in these social environments naturally look for improvement strategies. She identified two types of school - 'moving' schools and 'stuck' schools (shown in Table 2.2). The former were 'learning enriched' and the latter 'learning impoverished'. Sixty-five of the 78 schools were considered as 'stuck' or 'learning impoverished' schools for both teachers and students.

Table 2.2

Characteristics of Learning Impoverished and Learning Enriched Schools

'Learning impoverished'	'Learning enriched'
• teacher isolation/privatism	• collaboration and sharing
• lack of positive feedback	• continuous teacher talk about practice
• uncertainty	
• avoidance of risk-taking	• a common focus
• a sense of powerlessness	• a sense of efficacy
	• a belief in life long learning
	• looking out as well as in

Source. Rosenholtz (1989)

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Rosenholtz (1989) described stuck schools as those where teachers were not being involved with school-wide goals, teacher isolation occurred and limited time was allocated for teachers to learn from one another. In such schools, teachers were neither sure about the curriculum nor about its proper delivery and were also considered to be less committed to their jobs or the school.

Teachers in the Rosenholtz (1989) study had little attachment to their profession and to their students; they were more concerned about themselves. When it came to performing their job responsibilities, they followed their instincts. Rosenholtz (1989) discussed how teachers talked of frustration, failure, and tedium and managed to transfer those attributes to their students about whom they complained.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) claim that it is now accepted that promoting collegiality among school staff is an important way of improving schools by implementing change. Creation of new meanings, new behavior, new skills, and new beliefs depend on whether teachers are working as isolated individuals or are exchanging ideas and positive feelings about their work. The quality of peer relationships among teachers is strongly related to implementation of new techniques or materials. Collegiality, open communication, support, learning on the job, trusting one another, and job satisfaction are all closely interrelated (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991).

Richard DuFour (2002) a superintendent of a high-performing district near Chicago, credited collaborative teams with his district's improvement. In less advantaged public schools in Chicago, schools with strong professional learning communities improved four times faster than schools without these communities (Lewis, 2002).

In another non-experimental, descriptive study of 281 urban high school teachers in Michigan, McDowell (2004) used the 'School as a Workplace' instrument to compare two high-performing schools with two low-performing schools. She found that teachers in the high-performing schools reported more occurrences of collaboration than teachers in low-performing schools. As a result, McDowell (2004) concluded that school culture needs to change to be less isolating and more collaborative.

The most recent case study conducted by Chance and Segura (2009) in a rural high school that had purposively developed a plan for school improvement and had shown significant improvement and sustained achievement over a period of three years, examined the factors associated with the improved and sustained student achievement. The study also identified various factors that inhibited the change process, including principal leadership behaviors, organizational structure and particular characteristics of the school within its rural context. Observations, documents, and in-depth interviews conducted with 16 staff members including the school principal, the superintendent, 10 teachers, two parents, and two

students who had participated in the school improvement process revealed that both organizational practices and instructional leadership behaviors contributed to developing successful collaborative efforts that lead to improved student achievement.

The major theme emerging from data analysis was the collaborative process that occurred at the case study school. Three essential elements identified for successful collaboration were: (a) scheduled time for teacher collaboration, (b) structured and focused collaboration time devoted to improving instruction, and (c) leadership behaviors that focused on student-centered planning and accountability. Relationship and contextual factors associated with small rural schools were identified as advantageous in developing a collaborative process for school improvement.

2.2.6 Teacher Collegiality and Improved Teacher Instruction

Zahorik (1987) in his study on teacher collegiality describes collegiality in relation to classroom teaching. He interviewed 52 teachers in six elementary (three upper-middle-class suburban, and three lower-middle-class urban) schools to examine their perceptions of the amount and type of information they exchanged and with whom and where that exchange occurred. The schools were selected to represent variety in school organization arrangement and in SES. In addition, the relation of the school variables of SES, organization, and teacher

experience to collegiality was also examined. Eight to 10 teachers from each school participated in this multiple case study. Semi-structured interviews and field-notes were the major sources of data collection.

The findings of Zahorik's (1987) study showed that the teachers of the selected elementary schools regularly share information about classroom teaching, spending a total of about 40 minutes per day at various places in the school conversing with colleagues mostly at the same grade level. However, they do not share a variety of types of information about teaching. The typical collegial encounter involves teachers of the same grade level, meeting briefly at a variety of places in the school to discuss materials, discipline, activities, or individualization. The types of help that are more directly related to teaching such as methods, objectives, lecturing, questioning, reinforcement, evaluation, and organization were less frequently discussed. Teachers regarded these types as less important, personal and private, idiosyncratic, intuitive, and time consuming to discuss.

Differences in teacher collegiality were found between schools that have team arrangements and schools with traditional arrangements and also between higher SES schools and lower SES schools. Schools with traditional arrangements give comparatively more material help and receive more discipline help while schools with teams give comparatively more individual help and get more material help. A major implication of Zahorik's (1987) study was the need to help

teachers become less private about their classroom behaviors as a way to increase collegiality, improve instruction, and make teaching more rewarding. He emphasized that teachers should not fear to expose their classroom practices. They must see the knowledge of their classroom behavior by others as well as by themselves as essential to improvement. Zahorik (1987) suggested that changing teachers' views about teaching is a difficult and lengthy process, but it seems to be an unavoidable first step to developing collegiality, improving instruction, and making teaching a satisfying experience.

In another research, Keedy (1991) examined a teacher collegial group (TCG) which was designed and implemented as a participatory structure in an elementary school in the United States. Keedy (1991) focused on identifying interactions occurring among six members of the TCG and exploring whether these teachers improved their instruction using this strategy. He used pre- and post-questionnaires, interviews, field notes, and meeting assessments as major sources of data collection. Findings of his study regarding teacher instructional improvement were quite mixed. However, results clearly showed that all six teachers participated in the study incorporated some kind of new learning strategies into their respective classrooms after participating in teacher collegial group for a certain period of time.

Howe (2007) argued that little research has focused on finding the intrinsic benefits of dependent school-within-school initiatives especially in regard to the

issue of teacher collaboration, an activity identified as important to serious school reform. His qualitative study explored teachers' perceptions in an academy of a large urban high school about collaborative process and its effects on teacher instruction. Data were collected from interviewing five (two male and three female) teachers and two school administrators. Observations of common planning time as well as participant generated photographs and drawings were also used in collecting data. Howe (2007) suggested that despite the lack of autonomy of a dependent school-within-school, benefits were observed in small class sizes, which allowed for individualized learning, a sense of community, and positive student perceptions. The challenges faced by the academy were negative identity formation and self-imposed isolation by the faculty members. Common planning time helped in building effective collaboration. The major benefits of collaboration found in Howe's (2007) study were targeted discussions, integrated curriculum, improved instruction, strong relationships, and constructive disagreements among staff members.

In one of the most recent studies conducted by Martin (2008), issues that underlie collaboration among urban high school teachers who work at low-achieving schools in the United States were examined. In this qualitative case study of three teachers, Martin (2008) examined collaboration among them, the preparation and support they receive, to what extent collaboration affects their instruction, and the factors that encourage and hinder collaboration.

The findings of Martin's (2008) study showed that the form, effect, and success of collaboration depended on numerous variables. One relationship was seen to be elaborated and successful, one limited in scope and effect, and one was virtually non-existent. There was no evidence of pertinent preparation or institutional support in either case. The more successful the collaboration, the more it was focused on instruction and involved joint planning which substantially affected teaching practices. Logistical factors in the success of collaboration included compatible schedules and convenient meeting places. Structural factors included overlaps in academic content. Various personal factors determined whether teachers want to work together. Martin (2008) suggested that teacher collaboration could modify instruction; therefore, teachers need to recognize the value of working together and to focus on what they have in common.

2.2.7 Teacher Collegiality and Teacher Professional Growth and Development

Collegiality is seen as a key aspect of teacher professional development and a vehicle to increase teacher knowledge. The qualities and characteristics that fall under the labels of teacher individualism, isolation, and privatism are widely perceived as threats or barriers to teacher professional growth and development. Schools in the recent years are believed to be the best places for teachers to learn and grow professionally and schools are beginning to restructure in ways that

provide more opportunities for teachers to learn together (Darling-Hammond &

McLaughlin, 1995).

McLaughlin and Talbert's (1993) study, which involved 900 teachers in 16

high schools, indicated that highly collegial environments are the settings in

which teachers report high levels of efficacy, innovativeness, problem solving,

and commitment to learning new strategies that will help all children learn. They

found great variability in collegial strength in schools within the same district as

well as in departments within the same schools, indicating that both schools and

individual departments are important contexts for developing strong collegial

environments in which all teachers can engage in continual learning.

In another study of professional collegial communities and high school

teaching, McLaughlin and Talbert (2001) identified the effects of departmental

and school culture on teacher practice and teacher professional development. This

study incorporated interviews, observation, and survey methods in data collection

process. The findings of this study suggested that strong communities of practice

could both positively and negatively influence students' learning experiences. In a

learning community, "teachers together address the challenges of their student

body, and explore ways of improving practice to advance learning" (McLaughlin

& Talbert, 2001, p. 63). However, in traditional (individualized) settings, teacher

learning did not generate "knowledge of practice" but, rather, drew upon

"knowledge for practice" that had its source outside of the teaching community

(McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001, p. 63). The study primarily focusing on departments as communities found that the communities in which teachers work collaboratively and interactions among them were high, had a significant impact not only on how and what students learn, but also on how successful students can reinforce or challenge teachers' perceptions of and approaches to their practice (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001).

Manouchehri (2001) examined the impact of the use of peer teaming and peer supervision as a professional development strategy on the practices of two 7th grade mathematics teachers in a mid-western public school district of Austin, US. The primary purpose of her study was to examine the potential of professional discourse on teacher change and to investigate the context and the content of two teachers' interactions in order to develop an understanding of the distinctive contributions that teacher peers make in the process of improving their teaching practice. Data collection techniques included participant observation and informal and semi-structured interviews with the teachers over a period of seven months.

Findings of the study showed that even though teachers were given the opportunities to interact, neither one of them considered it to be necessary for providing professional suggestions that could impact the peer's practice. Teaching was perceived to be an individual practice whose direction and content was determined by personal preferences of each teacher, and depended upon his own personal judgment. The results showed that teacher collegial interactions were

affective based. They provided encouragement and emotional support to one another but the discussions concerning peer's pedagogy were avoided. Even when there was an opportunity to offer constructive criticism, both teachers were hesitant that they might jeopardize their relationship. The collegial proximity for both the teachers did not contribute to refinement of peer practice. Manouchehri (2001) suggested that while peer teaming and peer supervision techniques hold some promise for motivating change in teachers' practices, questions related to the substance of change are of concern.

A major study conducted by Retallick and Butt (2004) focused on demonstrating the impact of teacher-peer relationships for teacher growth and professional development. The study reports an in-depth exploration of the essential structures and processes of teachers' experiences of workplace relationships with school-based peers. Themes discerned from the interpretation of autobiographical data taken from the professional life stories of 29 teachers in elementary and secondary schools, with regard to both positive and negative relationships, were used to identify which peer initiatives and actions the teachers perceived as leading to professional well-being and learning. These teachers represented 29 different school cultures and working realities in rural and urban contexts in Alberta, Canada.

This qualitative study revealed three basic themes about teachers' experiences of relationships with their peers including climate, collegial communication, and

facilitation of workplace learning and career development. The most predominant

meta-theme identified was *collegiality* versus *professional isolation* between

teachers and peers. The findings of the study indicated that with regard to

teachers' relationships with peers, 49% of teachers' comments were negative and

51% were positive. In positive collegial relations, peers, through positive

encouragement, support, sharing, recognition, trust, respect, and mutual caring for

each other, created a positive inter-collegial climate in the workplace.

Communication among peers was fluid, continuous, informal, and embedded

in rich workplace interaction and learning. Teachers felt comfortable seeking

professional help from their peers, through coaching, mentoring, being role

models for observation, effective work teams, action research, critical dialogue,

and collegial problem solving which characterized teachers as being prepared to

initiate their own professional learning -- not in an isolated way, but with the

collaboration and active help of their peers, in mutually beneficial and reciprocal

ways. This resulted in a good level of job satisfaction, commitment, and positive

attitudes towards students, teaching, learning, and one's peers.

Retallick and Butt (2004) claim that separation, fragmentation, balkanization,

and isolation or a lack of relationship among peers seriously impact upon

professional well-being and professional learning of teachers. This isolation and

fragmentation led to a lack of cooperation and to conflict, competitiveness,

dysfunction, and perpetuation of professional interactions that hinder, rather than

help, workplace learning and teacher development.

Owen (2005) also linked teacher collegiality with teacher learning and professional growth. Her study focuses on how the selected schools are beginning to restructure and re-culture so that they provide more opportunities for professional development within the workplace through collegial relationships. Owen (2005) explored the issues in school-based professional development by interviewing 15 staff members in three case study schools in South Australia to obtain in-depth detail about the implementation of quality teacher learning strategies. Staff members were drawn in equal numbers including the principal and/or PD manager from one large metropolitan secondary school, one medium-sized primary school, and one small newly-established (Reception to Year 10) school. Purposive sampling technique was used to select research sites. The schools were selected for their strong commitment to staff professional development through exploring a range of techniques to improve opportunities for staff to learn together.

Owen's (2005) study reports the significant change in school principals' attitude towards implementing whole-school change and maximizing teacher learning through restructuring time and meeting structures to create additional opportunities for collegial work within the school day. Different means such as release time for team meetings and shortening the school day to provide extra time for knowledge sharing among colleagues were used. The study found that

the culture of the "learning community" developed most readily at the level of individual faculties and teams within a school. The close work within these units facilitates shared decision making, problem solving, and active learning. The positive nature of the teacher learning and support opportunities provided by collegial teams was strongly evident.

2.2.8 Role of Leadership in Developing Teacher Collegiality

Lawlor (1998) studied the effects of supportive principal leadership on teacher collegiality in secondary schools in San Diego, US. She stated that in the professional model of schools, the principal's influence over school outcomes appears to be limited because teachers perform the technical task of schooling. The role of the principal in the professional model is to develop a supportive collegial environment and an atmosphere of openness and professionalism that leads to trust and cooperation among colleagues.

Supportive leadership has been shown to be related to perceived school effectiveness. A supportive school climate has been shown to contribute to teachers' sense of efficacy which related positively to student achievement. Collegiality is also an important factor. The purpose of Lawlor's (1998) study was to develop and test a model which demonstrated the causal relationships among supportive leadership, trust, teacher collegiality, and teachers' sense of efficacy. She used structural equation model design to prove that supportive leadership

demonstrated by the principal leads to trust in the principal and increased teacher

collegiality which in turn heightens the level of trust among colleagues and

ultimately enhanced teachers' sense of efficacy. Data were collected from 364

teachers from 17 secondary schools using a survey questionnaire which contained

multiple measures of each of the five variables: supportive principal leadership,

trust in the principal, collegiality, trust in colleagues, and teachers' sense of

efficacy.

All but one of the hypothesized relationships was found to be significant.

Supportive principal behavior was positively related to collegiality and faculty

trust in the principal. Collegiality was positively related to trust in colleagues.

Trust in colleagues was positively related to teachers' sense of efficacy. However,

trust in the principal and trust in colleagues showed an inverse relationship to the

one hypothesized. Trust in the principal does not directly promote trust in

colleagues.

Rice (2003) examined the impact of common planning time on teacher

collegiality and how a new principal shapes the structure of a school to develop

collegiality among staff members. Rice (2003) also used a case study approach to

investigate a first year elementary school principal's attempts to shape the

structure of a school to build effective collegiality. He collected the data using

interviews, questionnaire, observations, and reflective journals.

Findings of his study suggested that the common planning time positively affected the school culture and reduced teacher isolation. Findings also stipulated that collegiality among teams moved on a continuum from the low levels of collegiality (i.e., help, assistance, story telling, and sharing) to the highest level of collegiality (i.e., joint work). This study suggested that the focus of sustained teacher learning is the key to the creation of the highest level of collegiality. Additionally, it was suggested that the principal preparation programs should be modified and that the school systems should value common planning time in the language of the collective bargaining agreement.

Numeroff (2005) investigated the effects of collegial relationships on teachers' work life and the role of department chair within professional collegial communities in three exemplary, collegial, yet demographically diverse high school math departments in the state of Florida using multi-site case study approach. She collected data from interviewing sixty-one math teachers including department chairs. Observations were recorded during teacher planning hours, department meetings, and teacher lunch times. Documents such as course syllabi, department mission statements, school mission statements, and school improvement plans were also used in collecting data.

Findings of Numeroff's (2005) research showed that collegial relationships do impact teachers' work lives, reducing uncertainty and stress among them. Moreover, her research claimed that collegial departments are tightly structured

democratic systems where distributed leadership increases instructional effectiveness and creates a familial environment which affect student learning. Department chair as instructional and managerial leader plays a vital role as a change agent within the professional collegial community.

Brunderman (2006) states that collegiality, encouraged by the school leader, is considered as one of the factors present in highly effective schools. However, there is not a widely accepted understanding of what collegiality is or how it is fostered. Therefore, Brunderman (2006) examined teachers' perceptions about collegiality and leadership practices that supported its development in three highly collegial elementary schools in South Arizona. She further explored the conditions that enhance teacher collegiality as well as the leadership behaviors that foster and support collegiality.

Findings of her study strengthened the link between well-established transformational leadership practices and teacher collegiality and suggested that transformational leadership practices contribute to school effectiveness and continuing teacher growth and development. Brunderman (2006) claimed that a deep understanding of collegiality and the leadership practices that support and sustain it is necessary in an era of continuous school improvement.

2.2.9 Teacher Collegiality and Student Academic Achievement

Teacher collegiality has been thought to have a positive influence on student learning (Hargreaves, 1997; Lee & Smith, 1996). This perhaps is the most fundamental reason for pursuing collegiality among school staff members.

In the United States Department of Education publication (Finn, 1987), effective schools analysts found that schools with high achievement demonstrated characteristics that include high collegiality among teaching staff. Students benefit academically when their teachers regularly share ideas, cooperate in activities, and assist each other in growing intellectually. Effective schools have an atmosphere of staff collegiality and they use moral support as a means of improving student achievement. Providing further support, Rosenholtz (1989) noted that the less alienated teachers felt, the greater the students achieved in fourth-grade reading and mathematics.

Stevenson and Stigler (1992) in *The Learning Gap* stated that one of the reasons for the good results in Asian schools is the collegial work norm in which teachers in a grade continually work together to plan and revise lessons.

Lee, Smith, and Croninger (1995), in a report on one of the extensive restructuring studies conducted by the Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools, shared findings on 11,000 students enrolled in 820 secondary schools

across the United States. In the schools characterized by collegial communities, the staff had worked together to bring change in their classroom pedagogy. They were committed to the mission of the school and worked together to strengthen that mission. Staff members saw themselves as responsible for the total development of the students and shared a collective responsibility for student success. As a result, they engaged students in high intellectual learning tasks, and students achieved greater academic gains in math, science, history, and reading than students in traditionally organized schools. In addition, the achievement gaps between students from different backgrounds were smaller in these schools, students learned more, and learning was distributed more equitably.

When looking at gains in achievement for early secondary school students in a large school study, Lee and Smith (1996) found schools that exhibited cooperation among teachers were more effective and equitable. They also concluded that the teachers' collective responsibility for student learning improved effectiveness of learning.

Bryk, Camburn, and Louis (1997) surveyed teachers in 248 elementary schools in Chicago during the spring of 1994. Nine items in their survey dealt with teacher conversations with one another about instruction and student learning, and five items measured the extent of sharing information on curriculum and observing one another's teaching practice. They found strong association between highly collegial community and higher achieving schools.

In a study of higher and lower success schools in Maryland, Schafer et al. (1997) found a marked difference in collaborative practices among teachers. In successful schools, teachers examined data and identified goals in a school wide collaboration and a "team mentality" of working together to improve student abilities was commonly observed. Schafer and his colleagues (1997) concluded that teaming occurred frequently in teaching, and was encouraged in other schools working on common instructional goals. They claimed that collaboration occurred with respect to the way in which the mission that guided instruction was carried out, as well as the processes used to craft it initially. In contrast, less successful schools were characterized by a number of teacher cliques which made it difficult for them to collaborate as they worked against each other and at cross purposes.

Farah and her colleagues (1996, 1997) provide an interesting discussion about the concept of collegiality in the Pakistani context. They described a collaborative and collegial culture as a culture that encourages cooperation, inquiry, and experimentation. Their study focusing on rural public primary schools of all four major provinces in Pakistan indicates that teachers in collegial schools have personal as well as professional relationship with each other. Teachers were observed to be convivial. They conversed with one another, preferred to have lunch in groups, came to school together, and even visited each other's homes. They helped each other in school-related work and solved both administrative and instructional problems jointly. They felt comfortable in seeking help on

instructional as well as classroom management issues. Farah et al. (1996, 1997) claimed that strong collegiality among teachers was one of the recurring elements found in all the high-performing schools of their study. The researchers, therefore, suggested that school administration should encourage their staff to become learning communities so that the participants could bring valuable knowledge to the school setting and exercise joint problem-solving and teamwork techniques.

An informal research published by Andrews and Lewis (2000) describes the actual experiences of a professional community with teachers recreating themselves with a new image and also recreating their places of work. The changes they recorded within the school organization, students' learning, and within the broader community, were positive and emphasized the benefits of developing a school into a professional learning community. They indicated how teachers' sharing a school wide pedagogy was beneficial to all in the community; they believed that collegiality had sustained the process. Although their results were not entirely quantifiable, interviews and questionnaires showed that teachers had positive experiences and most of them felt that their students were benefiting, as seen by students' improvements in classroom practice and in school pedagogy.

Garmston and Wellman (2003) also found that in successful schools, teachers were 'undeniably interdependent'. Their research showed that in high schools where teachers took collective responsibility for student achievement, students showed greater gains in core subjects. These outcomes were more significant for

the minority students and students from low socioeconomic backgrounds.

In an attempt to identify the practices that help in improving student learning, Barrett (2006) conducted a study that specifically focused on teacher collaboration as one of those best practices. She interviewed teachers, administrators, and district personnel at nine elementary schools in Tennessee regarding their perceptions about the time spent in structured collaborative activities and its importance to the students' success in their respective schools. The selection of the sites was made on the basis of students' scores over a period of three years on the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP). Barrett (2006) selected seven high-performing and two average performing elementary schools. The average performing schools served as control. She included schools with high numbers of economically disadvantaged students or English language learners.

Findings of her study showed that all the high-performing schools had some kind of mandated time for horizontal collaboration in place, although the frequency of these collaborative activities varied from daily common planning time to required meetings once every two weeks. The control schools did not have any formal structures in place for teacher collaboration. Teachers in high-performing schools cited the time set aside for collaboration as a significant contributing factor to student success.

Goddard, Goddard, and Tschannen-Moran (2007) state that schools are frequently called upon to improve by developing high levels of teacher collaboration but, at the same time, the research investigating the extent to which teachers' collaborative school improvement practices are related to student academic achievement is limited. Therefore, Goddard et al. (2007) empirically tested the relationship between a theoretically driven measure of teacher collaboration for school improvement and student achievement in a large urban school district in the Midwest of the United States. They surveyed 452 teachers in 47 public elementary schools to determine the extent to which they worked collectively to influence decisions related to school improvement, curriculum and instruction, and professional development. To determine the relationship between teacher collaboration and student achievement, the researchers used reading and math achievement scores for 2,536 fourth- graders, controlling for school context and student characteristics such as prior achievement. Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) was employed to account for the nested nature of the data set collected for this study.

The results of HLM analyses clearly indicated that fourth-grade students have higher achievement in mathematics and reading when they attended schools characterized by higher levels of teacher collaboration for school improvement. Most specifically, in schools where teachers worked together to plan school improvement, select instructional methods, evaluate curriculum, and plan teacher professional development, students tended to achieve at higher levels than did

their counterparts who attended schools where less teacher collaboration occurred. Goddard et al. (2007) suggested that further research is needed on teacher collaborative practices that can indeed lead to school improvement. However, their study provided preliminary support for efforts to improve student achievement by promoting teacher collaboration around curriculum, instruction, and professional development.

In short, a small, but growing body of evidence suggests a positive relationship between teacher collegiality and student achievement (e.g., Bolam et al., 2005; Goddard et al., 2007; Leana & Pil, 2006; Phillips, 2003). It is believed that higher collegial relations among teaching staff lead to higher quality instruction and, in turn, increased student academic achievement (Schmoker, 1999). Wald and Castleberry (2000) assume that nurturing a collaborative and collegial culture in a school would benefit student learning more than using structural change to improve student learning. Kezar (2006) also asserts that collaboration among teachers improves student learning.

2.2.10   Teacher Collegiality and Teacher Commitment

People in general, whether in social or work situations, are influenced by their relationships with others. More specifically, relationships impact their behaviors and attitudes toward work and quality of their performance.

Singh and Billingsley (1998) used a national survey database to examine the effects of professional support on teachers' commitment to the teaching profession. Teachers' professional commitment was directly influenced by principal leadership/support as well as peer support. According to their study, the largest direct effect on teachers' professional commitment was from peer support. These findings indicated the importance of principals' leadership in enhancing teachers' commitment and the effect principals could have on teachers' collegial relationships. Furthermore, significance of teacher interpersonal relations were also highlighted which could influence the professional commitment levels among teaching staff.

Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss (1990) state that those teachers are more committed to their schools and to the success of their students who work in an atmosphere characterized by sincere, positive, and supportive relationships with colleagues and school administrators.

A study of 100 teachers in the New York metropolitan area conducted by Martinez-Pons (1990) found that a set of 'intrinsic rewards' that included collegial interaction among teachers promoted teacher commitment better than 'extrinsic rewards' that included financial incentives.

Louis and Smith's (1991, 1992) studies of restructuring schools found that collaboration contributed to teacher commitment. However, the findings of their studies were more pronounced in the qualitative than in the quantitative data.

Similarly, Walsh and Shay (1993) reported that collaborating teachers perceived themselves as more committed to their goals and to their students.

Rutter and Jacobson (1986) found an extremely weak association between commitment and a single item measuring substantive teacher collaboration but a stronger association with the more general 'sense of community'. Using the same data set, however, Reyes (1992a) found a strong association between a collegial climate and teacher commitment.

In another study, Reyes (1992b) using the High School and Beyond database derived from a nationally drawn stratified probability sample of 1,032 high schools in the United States, examined the organizational conditions, processes, and individual features that promote or impede teacher organizational commitment. A measure of teacher organizational commitment was developed using teachers' perceptions and behaviors gathered from the Administrators and Teachers Survey (ATS) collected in 1984. The analysis suggested that organizational support, collaborative climate, orderly school environment, encouragement for innovation, shared decision making, and frequency of supervision directly affect teacher organizational commitment. Among the organizational conditions, collaborative effort is the most powerful condition that must be present at school to enhance teacher commitment to their organization. The study provides a strong argument for increasing collaborative efforts among teachers and teachers and administrators within the school. Reyes (1992b)

suggested that organizational conditions and processes can be restructured to increase the probability that teachers remain engaged and productive at the workplace.

Firestone and Pennell (1993) conducted a study on teacher commitment and developed a framework for assessing how differential incentive policies affect teacher commitment. Their research identified seven key workplace conditions that contribute to teacher commitment: job design characteristics, feedback, autonomy, participation, collaboration, learning opportunities, and resources. This framework was used to assess the effects of such differential incentive policies as merit pay and career ladders. The selection mechanisms in these two programs were found to reduce autonomy and collaboration, but the job enrichment aspects of career ladders were found to increase participation, collaboration, and resources. Firestone and Pennell (1993) recommend combining policies that increase participation, collaboration, and feedback rather than continuing to experiment with differential incentives in order to increase teacher commitment.

Talbert and McLaughlin (1994) studied teacher professionalism and found that collegiality among teachers stimulate their professionalism and commitment to teaching. McLaughlin and Talbert (2001) conducted another study which investigated the role of professional learning communities in 16 high schools in California and Michigan. They found that collegial support and interaction influence how teachers feel about their jobs and their students. These authors

found that collegiality also influenced the motivation and career commitment of teachers and the extent to which they are willing to modify classroom practice.

Hausman and Goldring (2001) surveyed elementary school teachers in magnet and non-magnet schools regarding their level of commitment. They determined the indicators of professionalism related to commitment and whether choosing to teach in a school created more commitment than being assigned. Their study highlighted that forming a community of learners in a school significantly enhanced teacher professional commitment. In all situations, teachers who felt a sense of collegiality and were given opportunities to learn together were the most committed.

Mutchler (2005) also claims that teachers' relationships with their colleagues and school administrators seem to be the most influential factor in teachers' willingness to remain committed to a specific school organization. Schools that have good collaborative culture and strong atmosphere of collegiality retain their staff better and have lower attrition rates as compared to other schools (Abdullah, 2009). Research conducted by the Rand Organization on attrition rates of beginning teachers concluded that, "schools that provided mentoring and induction programs, particularly those related to collegial support, had lower rates of turnover among beginning teachers" (Guarino et al., 2004, p. 6).

Table 2.3

Factors Affecting Teacher Collegiality

Factors Affecting Teacher Collegiality	Research Studies
Administrative Practices & Behavior	Brunderman (2006); Chance & Segura (2009); Howe (2007); Johnson (1990); Lawlor (1998); Leonard & Leonard (2003); Numeroff (2005); Rice (2003)
Organizational Structure	Chance & Segura (2009); Howe (2007); Johnson (1990); Lortie (1975)
School Size	Galletti (1999); Howe (2007); Lee & Smith (1996); Leonard & Leonard (2003); Nathan (2002)
Common Planning Time	Barrett (2006); Howe (2007); Rice (2003)
Incentives & Compensation	Leonard & Leonard (2003); Firestone & Pennell (1993)
Professional Development	Howe (2007)
Teachers' Personal Beliefs & Attitude	Kruse (1996); Leonard & Leonard (2003)
Teachers' Sense of Efficacy	Ashton et al. (1982); Dembo & Gibson (1985); Little (1982); Rosenholtz (1989); Smylie (1988)
Teacher Commitment	Leonard & Leonard (2003)

Table 2.4

Outcomes of Teacher Collegiality

Outcomes of Teacher Collegiality	Research Studies
School Performance	Barth (1990, 2001, 2006); Chance & Segura (2009); Cook & Friend (1991); DuFour (2002); Fullan (2003); Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991); Goldenberg (2004); Joyce (2004); Little (1982); Little et al. (2003); McDowell (2004); Oja & Pine (1984); Rosenholtz (1989); Schmoker (2004); Smylie (1988)
Teacher Growth & Development	Cousins et al. (1992); Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991); Hargreaves (1995); Johnson (2003); Little (1982, 1990); Manouchehri (2001); McLaughlin & Talbert (1993, 2001); Owen (2005); Retallick & Butt (2004); Rosenholtz (1989)
Improved Teacher Instruction	Howe (2007); Keedy (1991); Little (1982); Martin (2008); McLaughlin & Talbert (2001); Rosenholtz (1989); Schmoker (2006); Zahorik (1987)
Teacher Adaptability	Cousins et al. (1992); Fullan (1991); Inger (1993); Little (1990)

Outcomes of Teacher Collegiality	Research Studies
Job Satisfaction	Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991); Inger (1993); McLaughlin & Talbert (2001); Retallick & Butt (2004); Woods & Weasmer (2002)
Teacher Morale	McLaughlin & Talbert (2001)
Staff Turnover	Billingsley (2002); Futernick (2007); Gonzalas (1995); Guarino et al. (2004); Abdullah (2009); Little (1990); Lortie (1975); Nias (1998); Woods & Weasmer (2002)
Teacher Burnout	Inger (1993); Abdullah (2009); Nias (1999)
Faculty Trust	Johnson (1990); Lawlor (1998); Little (1990); Retallick & Butt (2004); Schmoker (1999)
Organizational Commitment	Hoy et al. (1990); Huang & Waxman (2009); Reyes (1990, 1992); Troncoso-Skidmore (2007)
Professional Commitment	Barth (1990); Firestone & Pennell (1993); Futernick (2007); Hausman & Goldring (2001); Huang & Waxman (2009); McLaughlin & Talbert (2001); Retallick & Butt (2004); Rosenholtz (1989); Singh & Billingsley (1989); Troncoso-Skidmore (2007); Walsh & Shay (1993)

Outcomes of Teacher Collegiality	Research Studies
Teacher Professionalism	Talbert & McLaughlin (1994)
Teachers' Sense of Efficacy	Goddard & Skrla (2006); Hargreaves (1995); Lawlor, (1998); McLaughlin & Talbert (1993); Pfaff (2000); Shachar & Shmuelevitz (1997); Tarter et al. (1995)
Student Achievement	Barrett (2006); Chance & Segura (2009); Goddard et al. (2007); Hord (1997); Inger (1993); Louis & Marks (1998); McLaughlin & Talbert (1993); Newmann & Wehlage (1995); Stevenson & Stigler (1992)

California State University conducted a study throughout California's public schools to learn what influences teachers' decisions to leave or stay in the teaching profession. The study indicated that the majority of outgoing teachers cited a strong sense of individuality, absence of teamwork, and absence of team spirit in their schools. In contrast, returning teachers spoke of the value of positive peer relationships (Futernick, 2007); indicating collegiality is the most important factor in preventing teacher attrition.

A study conducted by Huang and Waxman (2009) examining student teachers' perceptions of secondary school environments in Taiwan suggests that

positive perceptions about school environments were positively associated with their satisfaction. Several school environmental aspects including collegial relationships among personnel influenced the total years they planned to teach and their intention to teach at the placement schools.

In short, the review of literature on teacher collegiality highlights various important factors that affect collegiality among teachers as well as the outcomes of effective collegiality. Table 2.3 illustrates all such factors that influence teachers' collegial relations and Table 2.4 presents the outcomes of collegiality along with the names of the researchers whose studies support these findings.

2.3   Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has attracted considerable attention in theory and research. It is widely described in the management and behavioral sciences literature as a crucial factor in the relationship between individuals and their organizations. Many researchers have described organizational commitment as the factor that promotes the attachment of an individual to the organization (e.g., Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999; Mowday, 1998; Raju & Srivastava, 1994). Employees are regarded as committed to their organization if they willingly continue their association with the organization and devote considerable effort to attain organizational goals (Mowday, 1998; Raju & Srivastava, 1994).

Organizational commitment is believed to be vital for productivity, quality, and good performance of an organization. Although it is not widely studied in schools, researchers in other organizations have identified the importance of this concept as an indication of effectiveness (Steers, 1975) and linked it to productivity, dedication, efficiency, and length of tenure (Angle & Perry, 1981; Blau & Boal, 1989; Chelte & Tausky, 1987; Hoy, Tartar, & Kottkamp, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982). Commitment is a subject of great interest for many organizations as committed employees are more likely to stay with the organization (Reichers, 1985).

In educational research, organizational commitment has been identified as a key facet of a school's capacity for reform and renewal (Geijsel et al., 2003). Factors such as tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover are identified as manifestations of commitment (Burton et al., 2002; Geurts, 1999). The following sections will aim to elucidate the concept of organizational commitment, how it is defined by different researchers, its models and its antecedents and outcomes/consequences found in different research studies.

2.3.1 Defining Organizational Commitment

Most researchers agree that a consensus over the definition of organizational commitment has not yet been reached (Benkhoff, 1997; Mowday, 1998; Suliman & Isles, 2000; Zangaro, 2001) and therefore, the literature is replete with a variety of definitions of organizational commitment. Yoon and Thye (2002) suggest that

this may be because it is a broad-ranging concept that cuts across many organizational and sociological domains. However, the variety of definitions for organizational commitment with all its different measures share a common notion that organizational commitment is a bond of the individual to his/her organization (Camilleri, 2006). The accepted definitions of organizational commitment include an identity with the organization, shared goals and values between the individual and the organization, continuing membership in the organization, and attachment to social relationships in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982).

Hall, Schneider, and Nygren (1970) defined organizational commitment as the process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated and congruent. Sheldon (1971) defined organizational commitment as an attitude or an orientation towards the organization, which links or attracts the identity of the person to the organization. Salancik (1977) on the other hand, conceived organizational commitment as a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and it is these actions that sustain his activities and involvement.

Mowday et al. (1979) defined organizational commitment as the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. They further argued that commitment is characterized by three psychological factors: belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals and values,

willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and desire to maintain membership in the organization. Similarly, Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) defined organizational commitment as identification with an organization and acceptance of its goals and values as one's own. Wiener (1982) defined organizational commitment as "the totality of normative pressure to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421). Bateman and Strasser (1984) state the operational definition of organizational commitment as "multidimensional in nature, involving an employee's loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership" (Bateman & Strasser, 1984, p. 95).

According to O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), organizational commitment is "the psychological attachment felt by the person for an organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization" (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493).

Meyer and Allen (1991) whose work on organizational commitment got the most recognition noted that the various definitions of organizational commitment share "the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67).

2.3.2 Conceptual Approaches to Organizational Commitment

Research on organizational commitment has made a distinction between two main approaches: attitudinal and behavioral commitment (Reichers, 1985).

Attitudinal commitment is viewed as an attitude of attachment to the organization, which leads to particular job-related behaviors. The committed employee, for example, is less often absent and is less likely to leave the organization voluntarily as compared to the less committed employee. This approach stems from the works of Porter et al. (1974) and Mowday et al. (1982).

Behavioral commitment on the other hand, focuses on the implications of certain types of behaviors on subsequent attitudes. According to this perspective, employees who freely choose to behave in a certain way, and who find their decision difficult to change, become committed to the chosen behavior and develop attitudes consistent with their choice. Behavioral commitment has its origins in Becker (1960), Kiesler (1971), and Salancik (1977). Mowday et al. (1982) explained the difference between these two approaches stating: "Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. […] Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal

with this problem" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 26).

These two approaches have emerged from different theoretical orientations and have generated separate research traditions; understanding the commitment process is facilitated by viewing these two approaches as inherently inter-related (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). It is reasonable to assume that commitment attitudes lead to committing behaviors and committing behaviors lead to commitment attitudes. However, it is important to recognize that the development of commitment may involve the subtle interplay of attitudes and behaviors.

2.3.3 Dimensionality of Organizational Commitment

Research literature indicates the existence of multiple and distinct dimensions of organizational commitment and demonstrates that these dimensions have different relationships with other variables.

Porter et al. (1974) conceptualized organizational commitment as a singular construct comprised of multiple attitudes on the part of an organization's employees, such as loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, congruence of individual goals and values with those of the organization, and desire to maintain membership with the organization. Although the Porter et al. (1974) uni-dimensional questionnaire was used to measure organizational commitment for many years; subsequent research has

identified and tested two separate dimensions of organizational commitment:

Affective commitment and Continuance commitment. Affective commitment is

based on an individual's emotional attachment to an organization formed because

that individual identifies with the goals of the organization and is willing to assist

the organization in achieving these goals.

Meyer and Allen (1984) have developed an eight-item scale (known as the

Affective Commitment Scale) to measure affective commitment in lieu of, or in

conjunction with, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

Continuance commitment, on the other hand, suggests that individuals desire to

maintain their relationships with the organization because of the costs of leaving it

and not because of an emotional attachment. Continuance commitment is based

on Becker's (1960) theory of 'side-bets': as individuals remain in the employing

organization for longer periods of time, they accumulate greater benefits by

remaining with the organization (or incur greater costs of departing from the

organization) that discourage them from seeking alternative employment.

Following earlier efforts by Ritzer and Trice (1969) and Hrebiniak and Alutto

(1972), Meyer and Allen (1984) developed an eight-item Continuance

Commitment Scale (CCS). They found this scale to be uncorrelated with the

Affective Commitment Scale and differentially related to other important

variables (e.g., age and tenure).

Other studies have investigated the possible existence of distinct sub-dimensions of affective and continuance commitment. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), Caldwell et al. (1990), and Vandenberg et al. (1994) were unable to provide strong evidence for two potential sub-dimensions of affective commitment (based on identification with the organization's values and internalization of the organization's perspectives). In contrast, McGee and Ford's (1987) factor analysis of the items from Meyer and Allen's (1984) Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) identified two distinct sub-dimensions of continuance commitment (high-sacrifice commitment and low-alternatives commitment) that have been corroborated by subsequent studies (Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 1990). High-sacrifice commitment suggests that individuals develop an attachment to the organization because of the benefits forgone upon departure; low-alternatives commitment represents the attachment formed because of the lack of viable job alternatives.

Meyer and Allen (1991) conducted another study that determined organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct comprising three components: affective, continuance, and normative. Organizational commitment is multidimensional; however, it is important to note that Meyer and Allen (1991) and Mowday et al. (1979, 1982) unlike Kanter (1974) do not consider these dimensions to be 'types' of commitment by which employees could be categorized. Instead they regard them as components of commitment where the employees at any one time, may reflect varying degrees to all dimensions.

2.3.4 Models of Organizational Commitment

Different multidimensional frameworks and models of organizational commitment have been developed by different researchers. However, the two most prominent models of organizational commitment that have arguably generated the most research are briefly described as follows:

2.3.4.1 O'Reilly and Chatman Model of Organizational Commitment

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) attempted to clarify the construct of organizational commitment by developing a multidimensional model. They assume that commitment is an attitude towards the organization, and that this attitude is developed through several mechanisms. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined commitment as the psychological attachment felt by the individual for an organization, which reflects the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts the characteristics or perspectives of the organization. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) distinguished three elements of commitment which they classified as compliance, identification, and internalization. They suggested that these three elements of commitment may represent separate dimensions of organizational commitment.

According to this model, compliance occurs when attitudes and corresponding behaviors are adopted in order to gain specific extrinsic rewards.

Identification based on a desire for affiliation occurs when an individual accepts

influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship. Internalization occurs

when influence is accepted because the attitudes and behaviors one is being

encouraged to adopt are congruent with existing values.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) provided support for the three dimensional

structure of their organizational commitment model but many other researchers

have highlighted the difficulty in distinguishing between identification and

internalization while measuring organizational commitment (see e.g., Caldwell et

al., 1990; Vandenberg et al., 1994). These two constructs tended to correlate

highly with one another and also showed patterns of correlations with measures of

other variables (Becker et al., 1996). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that

compliance (also known as instrumental) commitment is some kind of antithesis

of commitment and its inclusion in the construct would just invite more confusion

to the field. It has been proposed that internalization and identification, rather than

being commitment conceptualizations, are mechanisms by which affective

commitment may develop (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

As a result of the above criticism and continued research, O'Reilly and

Chatman (1986) restructured their framework to acknowledge two dimensions,

compliance and normative, a combination of internalization and identification.

2.3.4.2 Meyer and Allen's Model of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) developed a slightly different model of organizational commitment. This model was conceptualized by the Becker (1960) model (cost attachment) and the Porter et al. (1974) model (affective attachment). According to this conceptualization, there are three psychological states to commitment.

Affective Organizational Commitment: It is defined as the employee's positive emotional attachment to the organization. It results from receiving useful feedback, equity, participation, peer cohesion, feeling important to the firm, organizational dependability, management receptiveness to input, goal and role clarity, and job challenge. An employee who is affectively committed strongly identifies with the goals of the organization and desires to remain a part of the organization. This employee commits to the organization because he or she 'wants to'. In developing this concept, Meyer and Allen (1991) drew largely on Mowday, Porter, and Steers' (1982) concept of commitment, which in turn drew on earlier work by Kanter (1968).

Continuance Organizational Commitment: Individual commit to the organization because they perceive the high costs of losing organizational membership, including economic costs (such as pension) and social costs (friendship ties with co-workers) that would be incurred. The continuance

commitment is conceptualized by the alternatives available, the anchoring a person feels in a community, whether pensions/benefits are transferable, sunk costs that could be lost, the necessity of relocation, the specificity of educational attainment, skill transferability, dependence on the organization, and the development of job specific skills that may or may not transfer. According to this dimension, the employee remains a member of the organization because he or she 'has to'.

Normative Organizational Commitment: The individual commits to and remains with an organization because of feelings of obligation. These feelings may derive from many sources. For example, the organization may have invested resources in training an employee who then feels morally obliged to put forth effort on the job and stay with the organization to repay the debt. This normative commitment is a much more difficult conceptualization. It is measured through assessing normative states of loyalty, moral obligation, ethical matching between subject and organization, values, longevity, and sensibility. It may also reflect an internalized norms, developed before the person joins the organization through family or other socialization processes, that one should be loyal to one's organization. The employee stays with the organization because he or she 'ought to'.

Reliability measurements of Meyer and Allen's (1991) organizational commitment model have been found good in the 8 item scale testing affective,

continuance, and normative commitment. In fact, the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), and Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) have been extensively tested (Meyer & Allen, 2001) and the construct validity of commitment measures is well documented (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

2.3.5   Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Much of the research on organizational commitment has focused on finding its antecedents. Various models have been developed to describe the antecedents and consequences/outcomes of organizational commitment. Steers (1977) provided the first comprehensive model which was later expanded by Mowday et al. (1982). Since then, its components have remained consistent and have been studied by several different researchers. The study of Mowday et al. (1982) proposed that antecedents of organizational commitment are typically reduced into four main categories: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work characteristics. Meyer and Allen (1991) also used these categories in their discussion of antecedents to organizational commitment, but they combined job-related characteristics (objectives) and work experience (subjective). However, most of the researchers have focused on personal characteristics and work-related characteristics (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Hellman, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1988; Wiener, 1982).

Personal characteristics such as age, tenure, gender, and educational

qualification have been linked to organizational commitment (Angle & Perry,

1981; Liou & Nyhan, 1994; Mottaz, 1988; Shore et al., 1995; Smith et al., 1996).

Employee age has consistently been shown to have positive correlations with

organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Angle & Perry, 1981;

Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Angle and Perry (1981) conducted an organizational commitment study

involving 24 organizations in the western United States. An extensively large

sample was studied to find the relationship between age and employee

organizational commitment. Results of their study indicated a positive correlation

of employee age with commitment. Shin and Reyes (1991) studied organizational

commitment of school administrators from 162 public and private schools and

found a positive correlation between organizational commitment and age;

however, this correlation was not significant at the .01 or the .05 level.

Similarly, more tenured employees are regarded as more committed to their

organization as they have embraced the values of the organization and have

demonstrated that they can uphold its traditions. Harrison and Hubbard's (1998)

study revealed that as age and tenure with the organization increased, employees

indicated more commitment, seemingly because of the positive outcomes and

greater investments that accrue over time. Kushman (1992) in his study of urban

elementary and middle school teachers also found a positive correlation between

the number of years in teaching and organizational commitment. Jorde-Bloom (1988) and Cheng (1990) in their studies of school teachers, found years of experience to be positively correlated to organizational commitment while Reyes (1992) found years of experience to be negatively correlated to teachers' commitment to their schools.

Meyer and Allen (1997), however, indicated that analyses of organizational tenure generally showed a mild curvilinear relationship whereby middle-tenure employees possessed less measured commitment than new or senior level (by age) employees. Liou and Nyhan (1994) found a negative correlation between tenure and affective commitment. However, they did not find significant correlations between employee tenure and continuance commitment. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) found that teachers' gender, years of experience, and dissatisfaction with the organization were associated with commitment.

Unlike age and tenure, many studies have found a negative correlation between educational qualification and organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981, 1983; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). These findings have been further confirmed by Harrison and Hubbard (1998) who also found no significant positive relationship between commitment and educational attainment. It means that the more education individuals have attained, the less committed they would be to the organization and more committed to their profession.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in their meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment found that gender plays an important role in predicting organizational commitment. They found American women to be more committed to their organization than men; however, the differences were not large. Reyes (1990, 1992) had similar results in his study of school teachers. Harrison and Hubbard (1998) in their research on Mexican employees' organizational commitment also found a significant relationship between gender and organizational commitment. Harrison and Hubbard (1998) found women to be less committed to the organization than their male counterparts, suggesting that Mexican females' traditional role outside the workplace takes precedence over their roles as organizational members. A study conducted by Alvi and Ahmed (1987) found female employees in Pakistan to be more organizationally committed than male workers, while Tayyab's (2006) research suggested that Pakistani females showed significantly higher normative organizational commitment than their male counterparts.

On the other hand, Mottaz (1988) found no difference between men and women in their levels of organizational commitment. Similarly, Kacmar et al. (1999) found no relationship of gender to any type of commitment, further supported by Kaldenberg et al. (1995) who also could not find any significant differences in the work attitudes and commitment of male and female professionals. Hawkins (1998) in his research on male and female school principals found no significant differences among their mean levels of commitment. Ngo and Tsang (1998) further supported the viewpoint that the

effects of gender on commitment to organization are very subtle.

The structural characteristics that act as antecedents to employee organizational commitment include autonomy, participation, and routinization. Autonomy is the degree to which an employee exercises discretion over the performance of job tasks (Spector, 1986). As autonomy increases, employee sense of control in the workplace increases and so does commitment to the workplace (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Mueller & Lawler, 1996). Many studies support a positive relationship between autonomy and commitment (Cohen, 1992; Dunham et al., 1994; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mottaz, 1987). Participation in decision making also positively impact organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dunham et al., 1994; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985, 1990; Wallace, 1995). However, unlike autonomy and participation, routinization decreases employee's organizational commitment (Curry et al., 1986; Dunham et al., 1994; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990) as it reduces task variety.

The literature pertaining to the antecedents of organizational commitment that deals with the employee's work characteristics shows job satisfaction to be the most strongly connected with organizational commitment (Hackett et al., 1994; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Researchers, however, have different opinions about job satisfaction being a precursor of organizational commitment or if organizational commitment is a precursor of job satisfaction.

For example, Bateman and Strasser (1984) found commitment to be a precursor of satisfaction, while Williams and Hazer (1986) found satisfaction to be a precursor of commitment. However, Curry et al. (1986) found no causal relationship in either direction. Warsi, Fatima, and Sahibzada (2009) in a recent study focused on finding the relationship between organizational commitment and its determinants among private sector employees of Pakistan. The study revealed that organizational commitment is strongly influenced by two job-related variables that is job satisfaction and work motivation.

Perceived organizational support is also an often recognized antecedent of organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; French & Rosenstein, 1984). Eisenberger et al. (1986) concluded that perceived organizational support was seen in the extent to which the organization valued an employee's contribution. Support can be experienced through praise and approval as well as promotion, pay increases, job enrichment, and influence over policy. Eisenberger and his colleagues (1986) suggest that perceived organizational support increases an employee's affective attachment to the organization. Many other empirical studies have also indicated positive influences of coworker support on commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Curry et al., 1986; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mottaz, 1987; Wallace, 1995) as well as supervisor support on organizational commitment (Brooks & Seers, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Yoon et al., 1994).

Researchers have also viewed socialization as an antecedent of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Caldwell et al., 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Wiener, 1982). Caldwell et al. (1990) investigated how organizations promote commitment among employees. Using a large sample of multiform employees, they found significant positive relationship between strong organizational recruitment and socialization practices and individual commitment. They concluded that when firms have well developed recruitment and orientation procedures and well defined value systems, employees manifest higher levels of normative commitment to their organizations.

Mowday et al. (1982) argue that in order to understand the development of commitment, there must be a delineation of three stages: the pre-entry stage, early employment period work experiences, and the middle/late career stages. During the pre-employment stage, individuals enter organizations with different levels of commitment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Wiener, 1982). Consistent findings have also noted that early work experiences can have a significant impact on organizational commitment (Caldwell et al., 1990). Caldwell and his colleagues (1990) found that individuals' commitment to an organization can be shaped by the recruitment process as well as the steps the organization takes to teach them about the organization's values and how work is done. Meyer and Allen (1988) studied recent university graduates who had accepted full-time permanent jobs with different companies. The findings of their study suggested that employees' experiences immediately following entry into an

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organization play a significant role in shaping their commitment to that organization.

Ketchand and Strawser's (2001) study of the dimensionality of organizational commitment found that organizational commitment appears to be particularly influenced by situational factors such as leaders' behavior, role ambiguity, role conflict, and the extent of leader communication. Previous research has also found that situational antecedents that reflect employees' comfort and competence in their roles are highly related to affective commitment. These factors include positive job characteristics and work experience, job quality, and the degree of participative leadership (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dunham et al., 1994). A study conducted by Tatlah, Ali, and Saeed (2011) on educational professionals in Pakistan illustrates that school administration and principal leadership plays a vital role in affecting organizational commitment among educators.

Tarter, Hoy, and Bliss (1989) found a significant relationship between principal leadership and organizational commitment in a study including 72 high schools represented by nearly 1100 teachers. Results of their study showed that strong principals enhanced teachers' organizational commitment. It was found that 33% of the variance in teachers' organizational commitment was explained by the combination of leadership variables.

Table 2.5

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment	Research Studies
Employee Age	Allen & Meyer (1993); Angle & Perry (1981); Harrison & Hubbard (1998); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Shin & Reyes (1991)
Gender	Alvi & Ahmed (1987); Harrison & Hubbard (1998); Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Ngo & Tsang (1998); Tayyab (2006)
Tenure	Harrison & Hubbard (1998); Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972); Kushman (1992); Liou & Nyhan (1994); Meyer & Allen (1997)
Educational Qualification	Harrison & Hubbard (1998); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Mowday et al. (1982)
Perceived Organizational Support	Eisenberger et al. (1986); French & Rosenstein (1984); Steers (1977)
Autonomy	Cohen (1992); Dunham et al. (1994); Lincoln & Kalleberg (1985, 1990); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Mottaz (1987); Mueller & Lawler (1996)

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment	Research Studies
Participation in Decision Making	Allen & Meyer (1990); Dunham et al. (1994); Lincoln & Kalleberg (1990); Wallace (1995)
Job Alternatives	Rusbult & Farrell (1983)
Routinization	Curry et al. (1986); Dunham et al. (1994); Glisson & Durick (1988); Lincoln & Kalleberg (1990)
Job Satisfaction	Hackett et al. (1994); Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Warsi, Fatima, & Sahibzada (2009); Williams & Hazer (1986)
Peer Support	Allen & Meyer (1990); Lincoln & Kalleberg (1990); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Mottaz (1987); Wallace (1995)
Supervisor Support	Brooks & Seers (1991); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Yoon et al. (1994)
Socialization	Allen & Meyer (1990); Caldwell et al. (1990); Mowday et al. (1982); Wiener (1982)
Work Experience	Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly (1990); Meyer & Allen (1988)
Role Ambiguity & Role Conflict	Ketchand & Strawser (2001)

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment	Research Studies
Organizational Health & Work Environment	Hoy et al. (1990); Steers (1977); Tarter et al. (1990)
Leaders' Role & Behavior	Allen & Meyer (1990); Dunham et al. (1994); Ketchand & Strawser (2001); Tarter et al. (1989); Tatlah, Ali, & Saeed (2011)

Researchers have also found that organizational health and work climate influence teachers' commitment to their schools (see e.g., Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990; Tarter, Hoy, & Kottkamp, 1990). In these studies, researchers using regression techniques found that organizational commitment explained approximately 34% of the variance in school health (Tarter, Hoy, & Kottkamp, 1990) while school climate explained 26% of the variance in organizational commitment (Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990).

In short, the overall analysis of the research studies on organizational commitment highlights some major antecedents or determinants of organizational commitment which are demonstrated in Table 2.5.

2.3.6 Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

Other than finding the antecedents of organizational commitment, researchers have also focused on studying its outcomes and consequences. Generally, it is considered as a useful measure of organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1975) and in particular, organizational commitment is regarded as a potential predictor of organizational outcomes such as performance, turnover/retention, tenure, and organizational goals (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Work performance includes variables such as absenteeism, tardiness, in-role job performance, and citizenship behavior.

Meyer and Allen (1991) claimed that the most studied behavioral correlate of organizational commitment is turnover (see e.g., Arnold & Davey, 1999; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Sias & Cahill, 1998; Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). The significant relationship between organizational commitment and turnover was established quite earlier in the commitment research. Many studies found strong predictive correlations between commitment and turnover (see e.g., Angle & Perry, 1981; Aryce et al., 1991; Farkas & Tetrick, 1989; Mowday et al., 1979). Koch and Steers (1978) and Steers (1977) have reported organizational commitment to be a better predictor of employee turnover as compared to job satisfaction. The longitudinal study of Porter et al. (1974, 1976) showed a negative correlation between commitment and turnover. Mowday et al. (1982) hypothesized that the most predictable outcome of employee commitment to the

organization would be lower turnover rates.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) further support this prediction in their meta-analysis involving 26 studies and 8,197 subjects. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported a mean weighted correlation of -.283 between turnover and affective organizational commitment. They found that affective commitment was more negatively related to turnover intentions than was continuance commitment; however, differences among these dimensions of organizational commitment and turnover behavior were not observed. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) identified the importance of understanding the outcomes of organizational commitment and asserted that organizations lose productivity and risk employee loss when organizational commitment is not taken seriously. They further argued that organizational commitment plays a vital role in reducing tardiness and turnover and facilitates employee retention. They claimed that it contributes to the citizenship behavior of employees.

Using Allen and Meyer's (1990) framework of organizational commitment, Stallworth (2004) found that employees with higher levels of affective commitment and normative commitment to the organization are less likely to leave the organization. However, his study suggested that an employee's intention to leave is not significantly influenced by continuance commitment. Angle and Perry (1991) undertook a study to determine how organizational commitment impacts employees' turnover intention. The findings of their study revealed a

negative relationship between turnover and organizational commitment. They claimed that employees who intended to leave the job were not committed to their organization. Balfour and Wechsler (1996) also reported a negative relationship between turnover intention and all the three components of organizational commitment.

However, Ketchand and Strawser (1998) found affective commitment to be significantly negatively associated with turnover intentions, while continuance commitment was unrelated to turnover intentions. In contrast, Kalbers and Fogarty (1995) observed a significant, negative relationship between continuance commitment and turnover intentions using linear structural relationships, but did not find any relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions. These inconsistencies in results might be due to the differences in the organizational structures and work environments of the studied organizations.

Concerning attendance, there is a positive, but modest, correlation between employee attendance and affective organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Randall, 1990). Steers (1997) found that employee commitment was highly related to workers' attendance. Gellatly (1995) in his study found that continuance commitment was related with how often an employee got absent from his work. Somers (1995) found the employees with lower levels of commitment showed higher levels of absenteeism. Blau and Boal (1987) studied a group of insurance workers and found quite similar results.

With respect to the outcome, 'tardiness', researchers have consistently found an inverse relationship between organizational commitment and employee tardiness (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mowday et al., 1982). Angle and Perry (1981) found commitment to be strongly and inversely related to employee tardiness. Mowday et al. (1982) explained this by stating that "highly committed employees are likely to engage in behaviors consistent with their attitudes toward the organization. Coming to work on time would certainly represent one such behavior" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 38).

Citizenship behavior, or extra-role behavior, has also been studied in regard to employee organizational commitment. Significant relationship between affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior has been observed in many different studies (see e.g., Chang & Chelladurai, 2003; Kelly et al., 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1993; Pearce, 1993). Organ and Ryan (1995) have also reported significant average correlation between affective commitment and two forms of organizational citizenship behavior: (a) altruistic acts toward specific members of the organization and (b) more generalized compliance with implicit rules and norms of the organization.

However, the overall research findings involving all three dimensions of organizational commitment are inconclusive about the relationship between citizenship behavior and organizational commitment. For example, Meyer et al.

(1993) found a positive correlation between commitment and extra-role behavior, while Van Dyne and Ang (1998) found no significant association between these two constructs. Shore and Wayne (1993) have found a negative relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. Moorman et al. (1993) reported weak but significant positive correlation between continuance commitment and some of the measures of citizenship behavior.

Meyer et al. (1993) examined links between several self-reported measures of organizational citizenship behavior and affective and normative commitment. Consistent with earlier predictions, both affective and normative commitment were positively related to organizational citizenship behavior. However, the relation between normative commitment and organizational citizenship behavior was found weaker as compared to affective commitment.

Wiener and Vardi (1980) looked at the effect of organizational commitment on commitment to the job and career commitment. Their participants included 56 insurance agents and 85 staff professionals. These researchers reported that organizational commitment positively impacts job and career commitment.

With regard to employee performance, the earlier studies found consistent but not statistically significant correlations between organizational commitment and job performance (see e.g., Mowday et al., 1982). Mowday et al. (1982) suggested the reason for the lack of significance in these studies might be due to the

Table 2.6

Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

Outcomes of Organizational Commitment	Research Studies
Organizational Effectiveness	Steers (1975)
Work Performance	Baugh & Roberts (1994); Chughtai & Zafar (2006); Meyer & Allen (1997); Mowday et al. (1982); Steers (1977)
Absenteeism	Blau & Boal (1987); Gellatly (1995); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Randall (1990); Somers (1995); Steers (1997)
Tardiness	Angle & Perry (1981); Mowday et al. (1982)
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Chang & Chelladurai (2003); Kelly et al. (2003); Meyer & Allen (1997); Meyer et al. (1993); Moorman et al. (1993); Organ & Ryan (1995); Pearce (1993); Shore & Wayne (1993)
Turnover	Allen & Meyer (1990); Arnold & Davey (1999); Balfour & Wechsler (1996); Chughtai & Zafar (2006); Kalbers & Fogarty (1995); Ketchand & Strawser (1998); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); O'Reilly et al. (1991); Spreitzer & Mishra (2002); Stallworth (2004)

Outcomes of Organizational Commitment	Research Studies
Professional & Career Commitment	Wiener & Vardi (1980)
Extra Role Performance	Meyer, et al. (1993); Organ & Ryan (1995); Shore & Wayne (1993)
Supervisory Trust	Liou (1995)
Job Involvement	Liou (1995)

multifaceted nature of job performance. A variety of influences constitute job performance. Meyer et al. (1993) and Baugh and Roberts (1994) both found that committed employees had high expectations of their performance, and therefore, performed better. However, Meyer and Allen (1997) described the reasons for the lack of relationship between performance and commitment. Some of the factors included the seriousness with which supervisors value the appraisal process, the value of job performance by an organization, and the extent of employee control over outcomes.

Chughtai and Zafar (2006) found organizational commitment to be negatively correlated to turnover intentions and positively related to job performance among Pakistani university teachers. Research has also found that those employees who are committed to their profession also have higher levels of commitment to their

organization. Baugh and Roberts (1994) found that those employees who were committed to both their organization and profession had high levels of job performance. Table 2.6 presents the outcomes of organizational commitment identified in the organizational literature.

2.3.7 Organizational Commitment and Student Academic Achievement

Research examining the relationship between school commitment and student achievement has found contrary results. However, the overall analysis of the literature suggests that teachers committed to their schools engaged in behavior that led them to achieve school goals and enhance students' achievement.

Kushman (1992) in his study of 63 schools examined two types of teacher commitment (organizational commitment and commitment to student learning) and their relationship to student achievement in urban elementary and middle schools. A total of 750 teachers were surveyed for this purpose. Achievement was measured by a composite of three consecutive years. Kushman (1992) analyzed data using correlation regressions and ANOVA.

The results showed that student academic achievement was positively related to teacher organizational commitment but not with teacher commitment to student learning. The results from ANOVA showed that teacher commitment was highest in schools classified as academically effective in reading and mathematics

achievement. Teachers who expressed higher expectations for their students completing high school and college also expressed significantly higher organizational commitment. However, the relationships were not found to be significant when examined in relation to teacher commitment to student learning. The overall findings of Kushman's (1992) study supported the differences in teachers' commitment values.

Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) suggested that higher organizational commitment is related to higher student academic achievement. The findings of Hoy and Woolfolk's (1993) study were contrary to the findings of Kushman's (1992) study in relation to the circumstances enhancing teacher organizational commitment and achievement results. That is, in some schools, teachers were willing to remain and become change agents for higher academic achievement, whereas in others, teachers were committed to schools that already do well academically.

Reyes and Fuller (1995) examined the relationship of what they described as communal schools and achievement in mathematics among middle and high school students. They defined communal schools as those schools which foster shared values and collaboration among employees and indicate high teacher commitment. Fifty middle and 51 high schools located in different geographic areas in the United States were surveyed. Student sample included 2050 eighth grade and 1600 tenth grade students.

Two equations were generated examining the regression of math achievement on student and teacher variables and the regression of math achievement on communal variables (shared norms, values, and beliefs) at both the middle and high school levels. Teacher commitment to school was based on Likert-type items measuring shared goals, the pleasure in working each day and effort in teaching. In each regression equation, the school was the level of analysis. Findings of the study revealed that teacher commitment to school was related to students' mathematics achievement. Both middle and high schools data showed similar commitment levels, student focus, and collaboration.

Chughtai and Zafar (2006) conducted a study focusing on finding the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment among Pakistani university teachers. The results of their study showed that teacher commitment to school is positively associated with teachers' work performance as well as student achievement.

2.4 Professional Commitment

For a long time, literature about commitment was to a large extent dominated by organizational commitment studies (Allen & Meyer, 1993; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Reichers, 1985), and as a result, a great deal of researchers' understanding of professional commitment was based on these organizational commitment studies. However, the past two decades have witnessed an increased

production of literature about professional/ occupational commitment, which refs to the strength of motivation to work and to the attachment an individual has to a profession/occupation (e.g. Blau, 1985, 2003; Lee et al., 2000; Mencil, 2005; Meyer et al., 1993). In this way, professional commitment as compared to organizational commitment is relatively a new and expanding research line among researchers (Wallace, 1993).

Professional commitment has gained more importance due to the recent workplace dynamics such as organizational restructuring, increased employee job insecurity perceptions, and contingency workforce growth (Cappelli et al., 1997; Hall & Moss, 1998; Nollen & Axel, 1996) and it is suggested that employee commitment may be shifting from the organization to one's profession (Handy, 1994; Johnson, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Lee et al. (2000) claim that for many people and most specifically for educated people, professions represent a meaningful focus in their lives.

Professional commitment has a potential link to retention in terms of professional as well as organizational membership. Professional commitment contributes to our understanding of how people develop, make sense of, and integrate their multiple work-related commitments, including those that go beyond organizational boundaries (Lee et al., 2000; Meyer et al., 2004; Reichers, 1985). Morrow (1983) emphasized the importance of professional commitment stating, "… it is one of the few commitment concepts that attempts to capture the

notion of devotion to a craft, occupation, or profession apart from any specific work environment, over an extended period of time" (Morrow, 1983, p. 490).

Blau (1985) argued that in order to keep professional commitment a separate entity from other concepts (e.g., work involvement, job involvement, or organizational commitment); its focus should be more specific than 'work in general' and have broader referents than 'job' and 'organization'.

2.4.1 Defining Professional Commitment

The definition and assumptions about professional commitment are drawn largely from the work of Weick and McDaniel (1989), who claim that professionals have certain characteristics that differentiate them from workers in other occupations. According to these researchers, professionals are the individuals who "through special training and socialization have gained a unique set of understandings… Their attitudes about themselves and their work is different, and they have a different commitment to their calling" (Weick & McDaniel, 1989, p. 333). Teachers' commitment to the teaching profession can be understood primarily from a psychological perspective as an affective connection to certain ideals and intentions associated with the use of teaching knowledge (Reyes, 1990; Somech & Bolger, 2002; Weick & McDaniel, 1989).

Leithwood, Menzies, and Jantzi (1994) also claim that commitment involves

a psychological state that identifies the objects an individual closely associates with or desires to be involved with. Therefore, commitment to the profession is regarded as the degree to which one has a positive, affective attachment to one's work (Coladarci, 1992; Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988). Lee, Carswell, and Allen (2000) found in their meta-analysis of professional commitment that most of the prior research has conceptualized professional commitment as the psychological link between individuals and their profession that is based on an affective reaction to that profession (Lee et al., 2000). Thus, someone with higher professional commitment strongly identifies with and has positive feelings about their profession (Blau, 1985).

In the literature, to some degree, occupational commitment, career commitment, and professional commitment have been used interchangeably to refer to one's commitment to the profession/occupation. However, there are slight, but meaningful, differences between these terms. As Lee et al. (2000) and Meyer et al. (1993) suggested, the term career is sometimes confusing, because career has been used by some researchers to refer to the series of jobs, vocational choices, and other work-related activities from entry into the workforce to retirement, and by some other researchers to refer to the particular job, occupation, or profession. However, occupational commitment is preferred in some research studies because it does not have the ambiguity as career commitment, while it can be applied to both professional and non-professional employees.

Profession in relation to occupation or career is defined somewhat differently. It refers to a set of characteristics that can vary from one occupation to another, that is, high involvement, feeling of identity, autonomy and high adherence to objectives, and professional values.

Vandenberg and Scarpello (1994) defined professional commitment as "a person's belief in and acceptance of the values of his or her chosen occupation or line of work, and a willingness to maintain membership in that occupation" (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994, p. 535). Morrow (1983) defined occupational commitment as ones' "devotion to a craft, occupation, or profession apart from any specific work environment, over an extended period of time" (Morrow, 1983, p. 490). This devotion is more specific than commitment to work in general (a work ethic) and broader than job or organizational commitment (Blau, 1985; Cohen, 2003).

Professional commitment refers to the strength of motivation to work in a chosen career role (Hall, 1971) and to the attachment an individual has to his/her profession (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Professional commitment is characterized by "client orientation, loyalty, professional autonomy, conformity to professional standards, and ethics" (Somech & Bogler, 2002, p. 558). Similar to organizational commitment, professional commitment definitions also suggests that it includes the feelings of involvement, loyalty, and bonding to the profession.

Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) have presented empirical evidence for a

three-dimensional view of occupational commitment based on their three-

dimensional structure for organizational commitment. According to Meyer, Allen,

and Smith (1993), affective occupational commitment is a person's emotional

attachment to their occupation; normative occupational commitment is a person's

sense of obligation to remain in their occupation; while continuance occupational

commitment involves the individual's assessment of the costs associated with

leaving one's occupation.

In one of the recent studies, Troncoso-Skidmore (2007) defined

professionally committed teachers as those teachers who are (a) dedicated to

developing themselves professionally, by seeking advanced degrees and

standards-based professional growth opportunities; (b) critically reflective in their

practice, by seeking meaningful feedback and discourse, and engagement in

action research; and (c) advancing the teaching profession through the creation of

professional learning communities and teachers' contributions to leadership

positions.

2.4.2 Conceptual Approaches to Professional Commitment

Conceptually, professional commitment has two main approaches. The first is

based on the concept of professionalism, namely, the extent to which individual

members identify with their profession and endorse its values. Becker and Carper (1956) advanced this approach by collecting interview data from students in different disciplines. They isolated four elements for identification with an occupation: (a) occupational title and associated ideology, (b) commitment to task, (c) commitment to particular organizational/ institutional position, and (d) significance for one's position in the larger society. Becker's (1960) side-bet theory which was largely applied to the concept of organizational commitment was also presented as the theoretical basis for the professional commitment concept. This is because Becker (1960) conceptualized his side-bet theory to both organizational and professional commitment (Wallace, 1997).

Many researchers (e.g., Alutto et al., 1973; Aranya & Jacobson, 1975; Aranya et al., 1981) have tested professional commitment using Becker's (1960) side-bet theory and have assessed the validity of this theory for both organizational and professional commitment. These studies have applied the measurement of organizational commitment to professional/occupational commitment by substituting 'occupation' for 'organization'.

Another approach to professional commitment arises from the notion of career. According to this approach, career commitment is defined as the magnitude of an actor's motivation to work in a career he/she chose (Hall, 1968). One of the most important contributions to the understanding of the concept of career commitment is the work of Greenhaus and his colleagues (Greenhaus,

1971, 1973; Greenhaus & Simon, 1977; Greenhaus & Sklarew, 1981). Greenhaus (1971) developed a 28-item scale for what he termed "career salience". Career salience referred to three broad areas: general attitudes towards work; degree of vocationally relevant planning and thought; and the relative importance of work.

However, Greenhaus (1971, 1973) mostly focused on occupation and job search, not the work setting. His approach was criticized because its definition and conceptualization overlaps with other commitment foci, particularly job involvement and work involvement (Blau, 1985; Morrow, 1983; Wiener & Vardi, 1980). Greenhaus' (1971) approach and instrument are not regarded as foremost in research on commitment forms and the problem of overlapping prevents the researchers from using his scale for measuring multiple commitments.

The following two approaches seem to be the most dominant and relevant for the integrative principle. The first approach was advanced by Blau (1985) who developed an alternative approach tending to overcome problems observed in Greenhaus' (1971) scale. Blau (1985) posited that research on concepts related to career commitment such as professional commitment, occupational commitment, and career orientation suggested both a conceptual definition of career commitment and a way to operationalize its definition. He defined career commitment as one's attitude to one's profession or vocation. His scale showed encouraging results in the psychometric properties, specifically in the scale's discriminant validity. Later, Blau, Paul, and St. John (1993) developed a revised

scale intended to fit better with other scales of commitment forms. In this scale,

Blau (1993) defined occupational commitment as "one's attitude, including affect,

belief, and behavioral intention, toward his/her occupation" (Blau et al., 1993, p.

311).

The second approach that fits the integrative principle in occupational

commitment was advanced by Meyer et al. (1993). They applied the three

dimensions of affective, continuance, and normative commitment from

organizational commitment to occupational commitment by simply substituting

the term "organization" for "occupation". Meyer et al. (1993) concluded from

their data that preliminary evidence existed for the generalizability of Meyer and

Allen's (1991) three component model of commitment because occupational

commitment showed good psychometric properties and the three components

were found to be differentially related to the antecedent and outcome variables.

2.4.3 Dimensionality of Professional Commitment

Many researchers treat professional commitment as a uni-dimensional

construct easily measured by adapting well-established measures of

organizational commitment, such as the Organizational Commitment

Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday et al., 1979). Extant definitions of professional

commitment also imply the uni-dimensionality of the construct (Blau, 1988, 1989;

Morrow, 1993; Morrow & Wirth, 1989; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994; Wallace,

1993, 1995). The widely accepted definitions of professional commitment limited the construct to the affective dimension.

However, Meyer et al. (1993) believed that, just as organizational commitment was best explained by three distinct component measures, professional commitment should also be explained by three distinct component measures. They presented empirical evidence for a three dimensional view of professional commitment drawn from a parallel structure they used for organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and contended that a multi-dimensional understanding of professional commitment could have important implications for understanding the psychological bond between professionals and their particular profession.

2.4.3.1 Meyer et al. Three-Dimensional Model of Occupational Commitment

Adapting their work on organizational commitment, Meyer et al. (1993) defined three distinct component model of occupational commitment as follows:

Affective Occupational Commitment: It refers to the identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the occupation/profession. Thus, employees with strong affective occupational commitment remain members of their occupation because 'they want to do so'. Employees with high levels of

affective commitment to their profession/occupation keep up with developments in their profession, subscribe to educational journals, attend professional conferences and meetings, and participate in their professional association.

Continuance Occupational Commitment: It involves the individual's assessment of the cost associated with leaving his/her occupation or profession. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain with their profession because they realize that they have much to lose by not doing so. Such employees might be less inclined to involve themselves in professional activities other than those required to retain membership of their profession (Meyer et al., 1993).

Normative Occupational Commitment: It is a person's sense of obligation to remain in his/her occupation or profession. Employees with strong normative occupational commitment remain members of their profession because they feel they ought to do so. Normative commitment may develop because of effective professional socialization or the sacrifices involved in becoming a member of a particular profession (Meyer et al., 1993).

All the above mentioned components of professional commitment have implications for an employee's staying with (or leaving) their profession. Commitment is more meaningfully assessed using three separate measures. Meyer et al. (1993) developed measures to assess each component of professional commitment and examined the factor structure of these measures; using

confirmatory factor analyses, they found these three dimensions of professional

commitment to be distinguishable. Their results also indicated that there were

differential relationships between each of the three components of professional

commitment and other variables (see Meyer et al., 1993). Irving, Coleman, and

Cooper's (1997) confirmatory factor analysis evidenced the consistency of Meyer

et al.'s (1993) measures across various occupations and the value of adopting the

three-component conceptualization of professional commitment.

2.4.3.2   Blau Four-Dimensional Model of Occupational Commitment

Blau (2003) hypothesized that commitment to a profession or occupation can

be explained by four components rather than three components. Blau (2003)

extended the work of Meyer et al. (1993) and Carson et al. (1995). He argued that

the continuance commitment of the Meyer et al. (1993) occupational commitment

model did not properly define occupational commitment, because it did not fully

account for the reasons why an individual may persist in a course of action in

relation to their occupation. He argued that this was because it did not distinguish

between continuation in the occupation because of the costs involved in leaving

and continuation because of limited alternatives being available. Therefore, Blau

(2003) added a further two components to the definition and measurement of

occupational commitment. According to Blau (2003), the components of

occupational commitment include those of affective and normative commitment

as described and measured by Meyer et al. (1993), as well as the measures of

accumulated occupational costs and limited occupational alternatives which were derived from the concept of occupational entrenchment as described and measured by Carson et al. (1995).

Carson et al. (1995) identified three dimensions of occupational entrenchment and described them as "emotional costs", "career investment costs" and "limitedness of career alternatives". Carson and his colleagues (1995) argued that the concept of entrenchment in a career reflects less of a sense of a psychological attachment to an occupation and more of a sense that individuals may remain in an occupation because of the investments that they have made in their occupation, or because they feel that the occupational alternatives available to them are limited (Carson et al. 1995). The occupational investments may be in terms of time and effort, as well as the emotional investment that they have made in the occupation.

Blau (2003) argued, however, that his comparative confirmatory factor analysis provided support for the two-factor structure of occupational entrenchment rather than the three-factor structure. He, therefore, contended that replacing the continuance commitment measure of the Meyer et al. (1993) occupational commitment measure with the occupational entrenchment measure from Carson et al. (1995) produced a measure comprised of four components. Blau (2003) argued that this model would provide an expanded understanding of occupational commitment because it accounts for commitment that may be due to

the sense that there are limited opportunities to obtain work in another occupation in addition to commitment that is due to the costs associated with leaving an occupation.

A multidimensional approach to the study of professional commitment provides a more comprehensive understanding of a person's bond to his or her profession. In addition, the antecedents and consequences of commitment may vary according to the type of commitment.

2.4.4 Conflict between Professional and Organizational Commitment

Even though the conceptual and operational definitions of organizational and professional commitment have developed in a similar way, researchers have offered different arguments about the relationship between them.

Some researchers assumed that organizational and professional commitment conflict with each other (Gouldner, 1957) as the employing organization and profession often have incompatible values and demands (Brierley, 1998; Sorensen & Sorensen, 1974). Somech and Bogler (2002) assert that commitments to certain professional values can run counter to the norms or organizational rules of a particular school. Specifically, it was argued that sometimes individuals face a dilemma in choosing between complying with the goals and values of the organization or those of the profession. For this reason some researchers have

examined commitment to teaching separately (e.g., Bredeson et al., 1983).

One of the foremost typologies used to characterize the relationship between organizational and professional commitment was advanced by Gouldner (1957, 1958). It is known as the 'local versus cosmopolitan' typology. Gouldner (1957, 1958) identified three variables that determine a person's position on the continuum: commitment to professional skills and values, organizational loyalty, and reference group orientation. *Locals* refer to the individuals who are primarily identified with and committed to the organization in which they work. These individuals have a strong loyalty to their employing organization and a weak identification with their profession. They use internal organizational groups as their reference, so they are more committed to their employing organization. By contrast, *cosmopolitans* are the individuals who are committed to maintaining the skills and values of the profession to which they belong, and have a strong identification with their professional qualifications. They tend to use external groups as their reference, so they are more committed to their profession or occupational specialization rather than their employing organization.

Cohen (2003) argued that Gouldner's original scheme is a two-dimensional model. One dimension refers to occupational/professional commitment, representing the cosmopolitan orientation, and the other refers to organizational commitment, representing the local orientation. The earlier literature based on this approach assumed an inherent conflict between organizational and professional

commitment and a negative association between these two variables.

An alternative argument suggests that conflict occurs within a professional group or within an organization only to the degree that specific aspects of bureaucratization or professionalization vary enough to be at odds with other specific aspects. If the equilibrium may exist between the levels of professionalization and bureaucratization in order to maintain social control, the inherent conflict between the professional group and the employing organization appears to be unwarranted. Several research studies (Wallace, 1993; Lee et al., 2000) examining the relationship between organizational and occupational commitment revealed quite similar findings.

On the other hand, this contention has been challenged both theoretically and empirically. Aranya and colleagues (Aranya & Ferris, 1983; Aranya & Jacobson, 1975) proposed that professional and organizational commitment may be compatible and even help the development of each other over time. Lachman and Aranya (1986) tested the two competing models on the compatibility of organizational commitment and professional commitment, and the findings suggested that the contention that these two types of commitment are congruent with each other is a more viable formulation. Bartol's (1979) research also supported the challenges to the notion that there is an inherent conflict between professionals and their employing organizations.

Some other research studies have also provided a strong support for a positive relationship between these two types of commitment, including several meta-analytical studies (Lee et al., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Wallace, 1993). Similarly, Weick and McDaniel (1989) assert that there are no inherent conflicts between a professional's commitment to the profession and to his or her particular organization; they suggest, "the congruence of professional and organizational goals provides the best indicator of the degree to which the organization and the professional are compatible" (Weick & McDaniel, 1989, p. 339). Weick and McDaniel (1989) further suggest that a professional organization will, by definition, have compatible goals with that of its employees -- unless it is, instead, "simply an organization with professionals working in it" (Weick & McDaniel, 1989, p. 339).

2.4.5 Antecedents of Professional Commitment

Several important classifications of variables have emerged from the literature that act as important predictors or antecedents of professional commitment. These antecedents include demographic variables such as age, tenure, and education level; psychological variables such as identification, employees' sense of self-efficacy, and job satisfaction; organizational conditions; occupational subculture; and leadership behaviors.

Demographic variables such as age, educational level, and tenure are found to

be associated with employee professional commitment. According to Blau (1985), career commitment is positively although weakly correlated with employee age and strongly correlated with organizational tenure. Similarly, educational attainment has been found to be positively correlated to general career commitment (Colarelli & Bishop, 1990).

Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) sampled 78 elementary schools to determine if the level of teacher commitment was different among novice teachers (1-5 years), mid-career teachers (6-10 years), and veteran teachers (10+ years). They found a modest change across the teaching career with a fall after five years and partially returning in the veteran stage. Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) noted that there were differences in the impact of certain organizational qualities on novice teachers compared to the veteran teachers. Novice teachers were impacted greater by "managing the students' normative system and buffering the professional work from various nonprofessional interruptions" (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990, p. 252). Experienced teachers, on the other hand, were influenced more by conditions directly associated with the core tasks such as discretion and autonomy felt in the school context.

In a number of studies reviewed by Firestone and Pennell (1993), organizational conditions such as autonomy regarding classroom decisions, participation in school-wide decision making, opportunities to collaborate with other teachers, opportunities to learn, and adequate resources were consistently

shown to be strongly associated with teacher professional commitment, especially because they reduced uncertainty, promoted autonomy, and provided opportunities for teachers to learn how to be effective and more successful. Teacher influence over technical decisions (curriculum and instruction) and involvement in managerial decisions contribute to professional commitment. Riehl and Sipple (1996) support the view stating that teachers empowered with more classroom autonomy are more likely to persevere when working towards school goals.

A three-year longitudinal study conducted in 28 elementary schools in Jerusalem implementing school-based management (SBM) has suggested that the degree to which teachers collaborate and engage in the decision making process might affect their commitment and student achievement. Teachers in the sampled schools expressed increased levels of commitment to student academic success due to increased control over the decision making process and without the numerous external distractions that often leave teachers feeling powerless (Nir, 2002). Teachers who are "powerless to shape the substance of their classroom plans or the policies of their school not only profess no ownership of them, but tend to become alienated from the essence of their work" (Rosenholtz, 1989, p. 162).

Studies have also shown that teachers with a greater sense of efficacy are more enthusiastic about teaching (Guskey, 1984) and therefore report a higher

level of commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992; Evans & Tribble, 1986), and are more likely to remain in teaching (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982). Similarly, there is evidence that teachers who left teaching were less efficacious than teachers who remained in teaching (Burley et al., 1991; Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982). In this way teachers' self-efficacy beliefs could also play a vital role in predicting their professional commitment.

Previous studies have shown that professional commitment can be influenced by professional identification (Blau, 1985; Reichers, 1985), professional withdrawal intentions (Snape & Redman, 2003), job satisfaction, and motivation (Lee et al., 2000). Workers' satisfaction is related to commitment with the profession (Goulet & Singh, 2002). Meta-analytic findings also showed a substantial relationship between job satisfaction and professional commitment (Lee et al., 2000).

Some studies have also suggested that principals' behaviors represent an important determinant of teacher commitment to teaching, insofar as they can help establish supportive organizational climates (Anderman et al., 1991; Maehr et al., 1990; Pitner & Charters, 1988). Administrative support for teachers can enhance teacher commitment to teaching (Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988). According to Dworkin (1987), administrative support for teachers contributes to their performance and willingness to stay in the field for a longer time period. A primary area of support is student discipline. Teachers expect the principal to be

sympathetic when teachers have problems with uncontrollable students (Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988) and also expect them to reduce paperwork, support them in parental disputes, and minimize outside interruptions to their classrooms (Rosenholtz, 1985).

Singh and Billingsley (1998) also found that principal leadership had a direct effect on teacher professional commitment. The impact of principal leadership was noted as being small, but significant nonetheless, across gender, educational level, and years of experience. In a study using values theory, Sun (2004) concluded that a principal influences teachers' levels of commitment based on the teacher's perception of the degree of match between the principals' value orientations and his or her own.

Findings of a recent study by Stanton et al. (2006) showed that the features of occupational subculture are also important antecedents of professional commitment. Isolation and alienation among teaching staff creates decline in teacher commitment to teaching. It is suggested that teachers, like other workers, are more committed when norms and working conditions promote interpersonal attachments. Moreover, because teachers learn from each other, their teaching skills develop further with frequent interaction with each other (Rosenholtz, 1985). Higher levels of commitment result from having a sense of community, affiliation, and personal caring among the adults within the school (Louis, 1998).

Coladarci (1992) in his study of teachers' commitment to teaching found that the most frequently reported reason for leaving the profession was low salary and poor working conditions. When teachers were surveyed whether they would choose the profession again, the reasons given by the teachers not wanting to return to the profession included, "excessive non-teaching responsibilities, large classes, lack of job autonomy and discretion, sense of isolation from colleagues and supervisors, insufficient administrative support, and powerlessness regarding important decision-making processes" (Coladarci, 1992, p. 327).

In a survey of 1147 general and special educators, Billingsley and Cross (1992) determined the predictors of teacher professional commitment. Their cross-validated regression results suggested that work-related variables such as support, role conflict, role ambiguity, and stress are the best predictors of educators' commitment. They concluded that increasing administrators' and principals' support, feedback, encouragement, acknowledgement, use of participatory decision making, and collaborative problem solving could enhance commitment among teaching staff.

Table 2.7 summarizes the research studies found in the literature that have highlighted major antecedents of professional commitment.

Table 2.7

Antecedents of Professional Commitment

Antecedents of Professional Commitment	Research Studies
Employee Age	Blau (1985)
Tenure	Blau (1985); Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990)
Educational Qualification	Colarelli & Bishop (1990)
Autonomy	Coladarci (1992); Firestone & Pennell (1993); Riehl & Sipple (1996); Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990)
Participation in Decision Making	Billingsley & Cross (1992); Coladarci (1992); Firestone & Pennell (1993); Nir (2002)
Collaborative Problem Solving	Billingsley & Cross (1992)
Staff Collaboration & Collegiality	Coladarci (1992); Firestone & Pennell (1993); Louis (1998); Nir (2002)
Professional Growth & Development	Firestone & Pennell (1993)
Job Satisfaction	Goulet & Singh (2002); Lee et al. (2000)
Sense of Efficacy	Burley et al. (1991); Coladarci (1992); Evans & Tribble (1986); Glickman & Tamashiro (1982)
Professional Identification	Blau (1985); Reichers (1985)

Antecedents of Professional Commitment	Research Studies
Role Conflict & Role Ambiguity	Billingsley & Cross (1992)
Leaders' Role & Behavior	Singh & Billingsley (1998); Sun (2004)
Supportive Organizational Climate	Anderman et al. (1991); Maehr et al. (1990); Pitner & Charters (1988)
Administrative Support	Billingsley & Cross (1992); Coladarci (1992); Dworkin (1987); Firestone & Rosenblum (1988)
Salary & Compensation	Coladarci (1992)
Occupational Culture & Working Conditions	Coladarci (1992); Stanton et al. (2006)

2.4.6 Outcomes of Professional Commitment

Organizational research suggests that the degree to which individuals are committed to their profession has an impact on a variety of important outcome variables, such as turnover intention or job retention (Bartol, 1979; Blau, 1989; Blau & Lunz, 1998; Chapman, 1983; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; McCracken & Etuk, 1986), job involvement, job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2000), organizational commitment (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994), and job performance (Lee et al., 2000; Wallace, 1995), above and beyond the effects of their attitudes towards the

particular employing organization (Lee et al., 2000; Meyer et al., 1993). Teacher

professional commitment is thought to be a significant factor in efforts to improve

school outcomes.

Teachers' commitment to teaching plays an important role in determining

how long one remains in the profession (Chapman, 1983; Chapman & Lowther,

1982; McCracken & Etuk, 1986). Professional commitment affects the rate of job

turnover and retention. Blau and Lunz (1998) claim that organizational research

supports the relationship between professional commitment and intention to quit

the profession. Job retention is a behavioral manifestation of commitment, which

may also be a factor in overall school effectiveness because it frees administrators

from having to attend to teacher turnover and allows them to focus more on

instructional issues (Rosenholtz, 1985).

Bartol (1979) in his research found that professional commitment was a

negative predictor of turnover expectancy. Blau (1989) detected a significant

negative relationship between career commitment and actual turnover among

bank tellers. Meyer et al. (1993) found that commitment to the nursing profession

was associated with lower intention to leave the organization; this was further

supported by Bedeian et al. (1991) who also found similar results among their

nursing samples. Most of the research findings suggest that employees who are

committed to their profession are less likely to leave their profession as well as

employing organization (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994).

In addition, employees who are strongly committed to their profession might be more likely to set higher performance standards and be more willing to work hard to achieve desired goals (Wallace, 1995; Lee et al., 2000). Wallace's (1995) research showed that lawyers who have a higher commitment to the legal profession were more motivated to work hard. Lee et al. (2000) also believed that professional commitment has a potential link with work efforts and work performance, and their proposition received support by meta-analytic results.

Furthermore, the positive effect of professional commitment on work efforts was also revealed in Carson's (1998) study, in which professional commitment was found to be positively related to three different dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), including sportsmanship, altruism, and civic virtue. Thus, it seems that employees with higher professional commitment are likely to exert more effort at their job, which leads to higher performance and positive organizational citizenship behaviors.

Similarly, research on teacher commitment also indicates that teachers with higher levels of commitment work harder, demonstrate stronger affiliation to their schools, and demonstrate more desire to accomplish the goals of teaching as compared to the teachers who have lower levels of commitment. More importantly, students of highly committed teachers are more likely to learn material and develop a positive attitude towards school than those of teachers with low commitment (Reyes, 1990).

Table 2.8

Outcomes of Professional Commitment

Outcomes of Professional Commitment	Research Studies
Job Performance & Productivity	Firestone & Pennell (1993); Lee et al. (2000); Rosenholtz (1989)
Work Efforts	Carson (1998); Lee et al. (2000)
Skill Development & Professional Growth	Aryee & Tan (1992); Firestone & Pennell (1993); Reyes (1990); Rosenholtz (1989)
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Carson (1998)
Job Retention	Bartol (1979); Bedeian et al. (1991); Blau (1989); Blau & Lunz (1998); Chapman (1983); Chapman & Lowther (1982); McCracken & Etuk (1986); Meyer et al. (1993)
Organizational Commitment	Vandenberg & Scarpello (1994)
Job Satisfaction & Involvement	Lee et al. (2000)

Teacher professional commitment has been found to be critical to good instruction (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Rosenholtz (1989) also supports the view that teachers' commitment to teaching enhances their instruction which in turn

positively affects students' achievement. Aryee and Tan (1992) suggested that professional commitment enhances skill development. Teacher commitment attitudes play a vital role in terms of how they affect the attitudes and efforts of students as the relationships between teacher attitudes and behaviors and those of students may be reciprocal (Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988). Table 2.8 presents the research studies highlighting the major outcomes of professional commitment.

2.4.7 Professional Commitment and Student Academic Achievement

Teacher professional commitment is considered as a significant factor in efforts to improve student academic achievement. Theorists have reasoned that greater teacher interest and efforts are associated with higher quality teaching and thus, can lead to greater student learning. However, very few studies could be found in the literature focusing on finding the relationship between teacher professional commitment and student achievement. Most of these studies are also limited by the use of conventional measures of achievement rather than measures that reflect the current interest in higher order thinking (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). However, the better studies suggest that a relationship does exist between these two variables.

Rosenholtz (1989) examined an interrelationship among teacher commitment, teachers' planning for instruction and students' math and reading achievement

while controlling for SES. She found an association between student achievement and teacher commitment.

Firestone and Pennell (1993) noted that although high teacher commitment may not increase academic success, low teacher commitment did contribute to a reduction in student achievement. Teachers with lower levels of commitment develop fewer plans to improve the academic quality of their instruction. They are less sympathetic towards their students, have more anxiety, and have less tolerance for frustration in the classroom.

Riehl and Sipple (1996) also support the view by stating that schools with committed teachers show a positive effect on student achievement. Pressley, Rankin, and Yokoi (1996) reported similar findings about the impact of teacher professional commitment on student reading achievement. In a sample of 128 primary teachers and supervisors, teachers who reported commitment to teaching specific literacy strategies were able to increase student reading achievement. Committed teachers reported many instructional activities designed to engage students in reading and writing. Likewise, high levels of teacher commitment to implementing a reading program in a high school in Georgia contributed to its success. Both reading achievement and students' attitudes toward reading were enhanced (Weller & Weller, 1999).

Qualitative research supports these quantitative findings but suggests that this association is reciprocal. Teacher commitment contributes to student achievement but at the same time, is also influenced by it (Firestone & Rosenblum, 1988; LeCompte & Dworkin, 1991). The argument that student achievement also influences teacher commitment is supported by studies showing that teachers who work with more affluent students are generally more committed than others (Kushman, 1992). Moreover, teachers are quite dependent on students for intrinsic feedback, such as knowing that their students have learned what was taught to them (Johnson, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1989).

2.5 Summary

The review of the literature has identified major themes and contributions concerning teacher collegiality and teacher commitment. The major benefits of collegiality highlighted in the past research include an improvement in student attitude and achievement, an enhancement in teacher professional growth and learning, and increment in teacher commitment levels. The literature further identified the role of the leadership in establishing and maintaining collegial atmosphere in schools. The literature review suggests that collegiality among school staff is a viable approach to help increase commitment levels among them and influence organizational outcomes in terms of student achievement.

The concept of organizational commitment and professional commitment is determined and the major dimensions of organizational and professional commitment are explored in the past research. The review of literature further elucidates the important antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment and professional commitment.