The University of
Nottingham

FACTORS AFFECTING TEACHER COMMITMENT IN THAI PRIVATE SCHOOLS

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By

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A thesis submitted to The University of Nottingham for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

OCTOBER 2005

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am ***grateful*** to **Reverend Brother Sakda Kitcharoen,** President of **Saint Gabriel Foundation, Thailand** for the permission granted and the sponsorship received throughout the course of my Ph.D. study; a very important stage of my professional development.

I would like to thank **Professor Christopher Day,** my Supervisor, for his invaluable guidance. I appreciate his continued support and encouragement which formed an essential part of my study.

I would like to convey my ***sincere thanks*** to **friends** and the **teachers** who participated in this study. Their professional experiences and lives had a great contribution to this thesis.

Finally, I would like to express ***my love and gratitude*** to my beloved **parents** for being my very first teachers. It is this educational foundation that continues to sustain me throughout my life. I would like to remember my beloved **grandmother** who passed away while I was studying abroad. May she rest in Eternal Peace.

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ABSTRACT

Teacher commitment is recognised to be an intrinsic quality of a good teacher. It reflects professional meanings, job satisfaction, morale, motivation and identity. Committed teachers will work devotedly for the school goals and values, as well as, engage dedicatedly in promoting the well-being and development of their students. Nevertheless, it is complex, multidimensional, dynamic and subject to change over time. In order to understand teacher commitment, it is important to examine the moderating factors associated with it, as well as the contextual factors affecting it. The aim of this study is to explore this concept among Thai private schoolteachers, the prominent factors perceived as affecting it, the ways they react to cope with changes and sustain their sense of commitment.

A questionnaire survey was designed and launched as a pilot study to provide a framework for a case study. Six hundred and sixty-nine questionnaires were distributed to the eleven Saint Gabriel Foundation schools. A case study was conducted in one of these schools. Twenty-two teachers, randomly selected by their age, sex and work experience, were approached and invited to participate in interviews. The results of the interview study and questionnaire survey were analysed, synthesised and discussed. The findings from both quantitative and qualitative studies were found to be mutually supportive.

The findings indicate that committed teachers are characterised as having a passion for teaching, upholding professional values and practices, refer to students as the core source of investments and satisfaction, and value professional development at the centre of their career. Teachers tend to identify organisational factors as the prominent influences which support or obstruct their professional work conditions, which in turn affect their sense of commitment. Committed to educational purposes, teaching is a value-led profession and professionalism is at its heart. Teacher identity plays a prominent role in providing meanings and justifications for teachers' practices. As a consequence, teacher identity is perceived as the moderating factor and the source of agential power for teacher commitment.

Dominated by the high power distance of Thai culture, school leadership and organisational culture appear to be the determining factors that influence teacher identity and modify teacher agency. Restricted by the traditional Thai culture, teacher agency is limited and unable to meet the changing demands and competitive nature of the current education reform. In order to cope effectively with changes, the research suggests that a democratic work environment and people-centred leadership seem to be strategies that bridge the gap between teachers and the administrative body and contribute to the mutual understanding and collaborative culture among the school community.

A model delineating the contextual factors affecting teacher commitment was developed. This model may be useful for policy makers, school administrators, researchers and teachers themselves as a means of understanding, motivating and improving teachers' professional attitudes and contribute to their work performance. In the era of globalisation when school reform is needed and teachers are required to change and adapt according to the demands of society, teacher commitment is even more essential for teachers, as committed teachers are more stable, consistent in their profession and are ready to exert effort when work conditions are not ideal.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Private education is regarded as an important part of Thai educational provision. It offers academic choices, educational opportunities and various forms of social services to society (Moonsilp and Puangnil, 1989). Although the National Educational Act 1999 (Chapter2, Section 10) decrees that the state has the prime responsibility for basic education provision (grade 1 to 12), private education is accepted by State as the important partnership and the alternative choice for parents.

Within a highly competitive market, parental choices are vital for the existence and growth of private schools. 'Quality school', in terms of student achievement, is regarded as one of the indicators for private schools' success. The starting point for this research is based upon research findings that teachers are the key factors for student well-being and growth and that they play an important role in student learning and school improvement (Riehl and Sipple, 1996; Good and Brophy, 1994; Smylie, 1990).

According to the literature on teaching, good teachers have clear goals for student outcomes and accept appropriate responsibilities to help students acquire those outcomes (Good and Brophy, 1999; Harris, 1998; Reyes, 1990). Nevertheless, teaching is complex and does not rely only on technical knowledge and skills for success, but also the ability to empathise and build appropriate relationships with students (McNess et al., 2003). This requires personal and professional investments over a teaching career. More particularly, within the current era of education reform, teacher commitment is the focus of interest because good instruction

depends on it, and it is one of the important variables contributing to students' achievement (Riehl and Sipple, 1996; Kushman, 1992; Rosenholtz, 1989).

Recent studies (Dannetta, 2002; Riehl and Sipple, 1996; Firestone and Pennell, 1993; Kushman, 1992; and Reyes, 1990) indicate that teacher commitment is affected by personal environment, workplace conditions, and work related factors. In addition, teachers' efficacy is found to be one of the significant factors which contribute to teacher commitment (Louis, 1998; Caladarci, 1992; Kushman, 1992; Rosenholtz, 1989; McLaughlin et al, 1986). Efficient teachers believe in their abilities to influence students' learning and achieve their professional goals, which inform the values of teachers' investment. Teachers' career phases are deemed to affect teacher commitment as well (Sikes, 1985; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; Huberman, 1993). However, how teachers commit to their responsibilities and goals, and what influences this commitment are issues which have not been addressed and need to be investigated.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

The aim of this research is to explore and understand the nature of teacher commitment with reference to Thai private schools in Thailand. The study focuses on conceptions of teacher commitment and the significant factors affecting teacher commitment as perceived by teachers. In order to understand its developmental nature, the career life schemata proposed by Huberman (1993) are employed as a research framework for this study. The research provides new insights which will contribute to maintain, reinforce and develop the sense of teacher commitment.

As teachers are regarded as active professionals in the process of teaching (Goodson and Hargreaves, 1996), it is important to understand how they react to cope with their problems and reinforce to sustain their sense of commitment. As a result, the antecedent factors related to the current problems and the conditions that influence these will be considered. Then, the research findings will be discussed and a model of Thai private school teacher commitment will be proposed.

1.2 Significance of the Study

Teacher commitment is a crucial quality of a professional teacher (Helsby et al 1997), as literature indicates that it is closely associated with teachers' job satisfaction, morale, work motivation and teacher identity, as well as a critical predictor of teachers' performance, absenteeism, retention, burnout and turnover. It is characterised as having an influence on students' learning motivation, achievement, attitudes towards learning and school engagement (Tsui and Cheng, 1999; Louis, 1998; Firestone, 1996). It is also recognised to be one of the necessary factors that contributes to the failure or success of school reform implementation (Day et al, 2005).

Evidences indicated that the changing policies of education reform in many countries, including Thailand, were causing deterioration in teachers' work conditions, increasing work stress, fatigue and burnout, which in turn produce demoralisation, abandonment of the profession, absenteeism, and affect teaching quality (Jesus, 2000; Tedesco, 1997). Empirical studies indicated that teacher commitment is problematic and subject to change over time in relation to personal, professional circumstances and work contexts (Vandenberghe and Huberman, 1999; Huberman, 1993; Sikes, 1985). However, although teacher commitment is

an important quality for teacher effectiveness and school improvement (Day, 2004), there is relatively little empirical research addressing teacher commitment. Moreover, many of the preceding literature appeared to be inconsistent and incoherent (Riehl and Sipple, 1996; Reyes, 1990).

1.3 Research Questions

In order to explore and understand the nature of teacher commitment in the career stages of Thai private school teachers, the previous literature on the factors affecting organisational commitment (Steers, 1977; Mowday et al, 1982; Steers and Porter, 1983), teacher commitment (Rosenholtz, 1989; Reyes, 1990; Firestone and Pennell, 1993; Riehl and Sipple, 1996; Dannetta, 2002) and teachers' career life cycles (Sikes, 1985; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; Huberman, 1993; Day, 2005) were reviewed, synthesised and used as the basic knowledge for this study. As a consequence, the following research questions were designed and served as the framework for the research study.

1. How do teachers' initial career attitude(s) relate to teacher commitment?
2. What are teachers' understandings of commitment?
3. How are the concepts of commitment meaningful to teachers?
4. What are the prominent factors affecting teacher commitment?
5. How do teachers react to and cope with the obstacles affecting teacher commitment?
6. How do teachers maintain the sense of their commitment?
7. How do teachers perceive teacher commitment in different career phases?
8. What are the implications of teacher commitment findings?

CHAPTER TWO
EDUCATION REFORM IN THAILAND

Education reform has been a significant phenomenon in the international change and development, nevertheless, the intensity of changes in each country varies in content, direction and pace according to the different social, political and economic contexts (Day, 2003). There have been four major attempts of reform in Thai education over the past two centuries. In this chapter, I am going to give a brief account of the evolution of Thai education reform as the educational background for this research. In each of these, I am going to discuss the motifs, the contextual factors and the consequences related to each period, with the emphasis on the current reform inspired by the National Education Act 1999.

It is argued that education, like all other social service enterprises, needs to be improved and reformed according to the changing needs of society. The Thai education system, like most other countries, is inevitably affected by social, economic, and political factors. These external forces come to the school in the form of education reform agendas through state policy or legislation that is enforced. This kind of top down changes has been the remarkable factors that affect education administrative systems and schooling lives and in turn undermined the school professional community. According to Fry (2002), there have been four main school reforms phases in Thai education.

Prior to the education reform era, Thai traditional education was constituted primarily in the Buddhist community temple where teaching was considered to be one of the prime duties for the Buddhist monks to educate people, especially boys. The main objective of the community education was arranged by the Buddhist monks as the means to teach literacy, ethics, culture, and secular subjects. More particularly, it was the important channel to pass on religious beliefs and prepare the young generations for ordination, which is an important part of Thai tradition. (It has been the tradition that every Thai male should be ordained and morally trained before he was accepted by society as a mature person.)

This was the time when education was regarded as informal and monks were authorised by the community to set up their curriculum and activities based on community needs, traditions, culture and more particularly moral and ethics. The learned monks were trusted to be the professional teachers who devoted fully for the well-being of their students. It was this kind of trust and devotion that generated the culture of veneration for Thai teachers, which continues to practice today.

2.1 The First Education Reform (1868-1910)

It was Western imperialism and the urge for modernisation that led Thailand to the first education reform. King Chulalongkorn (Rama V) envisaged the vision to transform Siam (the name for Thailand at that time) toward a modernised country. He believed that modernisation was the key for an independent and national identity. He employed education reform as one of the most important strategies for modernisation. He believed that education is the essential means to development. It was the foundation for personal formation and career training for labour forces. During his reign, he changed Thai education from an 'informal education system' into a 'formal education system' after Western education standards. The main education objectives at that time were preparing people to meet the changes for modernisation and training personnel for the modern administrative system in developing the country. Foreign languages were introduced as the means to establish Thailand as the centre for commerce in the South East Asia Region. It was the strong leadership of the king that brought Siam to the era of modernisation.

2.2 The Second Education Reform (1973-1980)

The conception of modernisation progressed and developed into a political change. One of the major political changes in Thailand was the change from the absolute monarchy to a constitutional monarchy (in June 1932). This implies that Thailand had begun to move into the democratic era. However, it was considered to be partially democracy as it was dominated by the military regimes. 'The October, 1973 Event' was the dramatic political movement that led Thailand to its remarkable political change. It was one of the biggest student uprisings that drove military power from dominating the country. This tremendous movement had led Thailand to a more genuine democracy. Both of these major movements, the constitutional monarchy and 'The October, 1973 Event', had become the key events

that led Thailand to a fuller democratic country and paved the way to the present 1997constitution.

Right after the uprising, there was a strong call for education reform. The students claimed that education served as the control strategy for the dictatorial government. It was strongly believed that education is the most important foundation for democracy and the sustainable development of the country. A number of leading scholars in Thailand was gathered to work for the second phase of the education reform. The second education reform identified the need for education administration and management reform. The piece meal and fragmented educational policy had resulted in administrative inefficiencies and redundancies. As freedom was one of the main concerns, they notified the need for a more open and relevant curriculum. Educational inequity and inequality was recognised as the cause for social injustice in Thai society. In addition, they also identified the needs for more policy research as they realised the threat of the educational policy on its practices and progression. However, the second education reform movement had been delayed by the unsteady political state.

2.3 The Third Education Reform (1990-1995)

The third education reform seemed to be modified by the need for internationalisation and threatened by the globalisation movement. The advanced progress of information technology had changed our world into a new era of communication networks. The world had become a global village and this global change had affected most of the national systems as well as people's ways of life. This had become the new challenge for Thai people to adapt, work and live in the world of rapid change. There were the urgent needs for international understanding, knowledge and skills. Thai people should be prepared to work efficiently and live gracefully in the international community. The premise was that for Thailand to be internationally competitive, it needed to internationalise its education systems to prepare its young generations for an increasingly intercultural global era.

The commission on education reform had put forward the following key agenda. To cope with rapid changes, it is essential that education should be flexible and move towards a learning society. The learning process should shift to learner-centred which enhance

creative and critical thinking. The curriculum should be opened to the diversity of educational options. It should aim to enhance skills and knowledge of the labour force so as to strengthen international competitiveness. There is a need for the reform of educational management, as fragmented structure and a highly degree of centralisation remained the main concern for inefficiency and redundancy. As the strategy to enhance education quality, there is a need for greater resource mobilising from all available sources rather than the state annual budget. Private sectors should have a prominent role in educational provision and development. Finally there is a need for education standards that assure the quality of education. It is important to realise the present educational positions so as to improve and develop education. However, the third education reform was slow to take shape due the political instability and weighed down by the Asian economic crisis.

2.4 The Fourth Education Reform (1997-Present)

The fourth education reform emerged as the urgent response to the 1997's Asian Economic Crisis and the continuation of the previous education reform. Being shocked by the economic crisis, the previous national development strategies including education were being questioned and required revision. It was widely agreed that the past development strategies over-emphasised on the economic development dimension and neglected the social, cultural and ethical components. Education was mainly regarded as the functional system to produce labour forces for the market demands. This resulted in materialism orientation, increasing social problems and weaker local cultural identities. The economic crisis was widely spreading and affecting Thai people in all sectors. This was the explicit experience resulting from insufficient knowledge and understanding about globalisation, which in turn invoked national awareness of the need for quality education that is relevant to the changes and called for education reform.

In order to work for sustainable development the new national development emphasised social and spiritual development, environmental and cultural preservation (Prawes Wasee, 1998). As a result, the new national development strategies were shifted for a balanced and co-operative endeavour. Human resource development is regarded as the most important resource for political, social and economic sustainable development (ONEC, 2001). The new constitution 1997 recognised that education is the prime area for national development and part of the sustainable strategy for economic recovery. It decreed that the National

Education Act 1999 will be established from which the legislative agenda for the present education reform is enforced. The new National Educational Act aims at 'the full development of Thai people in all aspects: physical and mental health; intellect; knowledge; morality; integrity; an desirable way of life so as to be able to live in harmony with other people' (section 6). Education will be provided based on the following educational principles: '1) life long education for all, 2) participation by all segments of society and 3) continuous development of the bodies of knowledge and the learning process' (section 8).

Education reform in Thailand has reflected three basic types of reforms; finance-driven reform, equity-driven reform and competitiveness-driven reform. The present National Education Act 1999 stands on the principle of ensuring access to basic education (year/grade one to year/grade twelve) for all. It demands that the state has the responsibility to provide free basic education for all on an equitable basis. In order to cope with the economic crisis condition, the World Bank has advised with regard to the reform of educational finance focusing on the return on investment in education and the efficient educational management. These strategies include, re-organisation of administrative structure, shifting public funding from higher to lower levels of education, giving more students greater educational opportunity, increasing school fees to bridge the gap between the actual cost and subsidies in higher education, reduced personnel salary, increasing class size and school based management. Additionally, there is an utilisation of tax incentive measures for the mobilisation of resources for education.

As a result of the rapid growth of Asian economies, it is important that Thailand should be a capable competitor in the international market. Thai policy makers increasingly recognised that the human factor is critical to success in competitiveness and prosperity and the key to a country's standard of living is crucially dependent on the productivity of its labour force. In this aspect, the reform agenda has indicated the need for learning reform, reform of teacher education and educational human resource development, and emphasis on education standards and quality assurance. The previous studies had indicated that most of the classroom practices are dominated by the traditional method of teaching (rote learning) and based on a narrow and irrelevant curriculum. As a means to cope with the world of rapid changes, the more flexible and relevant curriculum is introduced where local wisdom, creative and critical thinking are emphasised as the important strategy in the classroom. To achieve this aim, educational personnel -more particularly teachers and head teacher- are

trained and subject to professional licenses and a new rewards and welfare plan are developed to support this new act.

The need for democracy and the need for international economic competition underpin current Thai education reform. The main political agenda focus on human rights, freedom and equity. At the same time, people are looking for national prosperity, a better standard of living where the Thai economy is compatible to the international level. As education is accepted to be one of the important engines for national development, education reform is used as the prime strategy to modify school performances according to the changing needs of Thai society. However, successful education reform depends mainly on teachers as they are the key persons for students' achievement and school development (Riehl and Sipple, 1996; Good and Brophy, 1999, 1994; Smylie, 1990). In order to understand teacher professionalism and their commitment in the context of change, it is important to examine the way teachers make meanings in their works and the contextual factors affecting their professional meanings.

CHAPTER THREE
CULTURAL CONTEXT OF THAI EDUCATION

The effects of cultural contexts on work effectiveness are increasing concerns for researchers and practitioners. Although Thai educational system has been developed according to the international model, it is inevitably bound by the local and national contexts, and fused by Thai cultural conditions. Thus, it would not be possible to understand teacher commitment without taking account of the existing culture and identify the specific model of agency that relate to it. In this chapter, I shall examine the unique work culture of Thai teachers as influenced by the conventional culture of their society, how this phenomenon affects teacher commitment and its related factors. Although culture is regarded as one of the important factors affecting peoples work and lives, literature on Thai culture is limited. I, therefore, employ Hofstede's cross-cultural framework (1991) for this analysis.

3.1 Thai Cultural Characteristics

Hofstede (1991) studied cultural characteristics of people from different parts of the world and formed a cross-cultural framework, which consists of four attributions: large-small power distance, collectivism-individualism, feminine-masculine and high-low uncertainty avoidance cultures. Hofstede (1997) conducted a cross-cultural survey across fifty countries and three multinational regions and indicated Thai culture as having large power distance, collectivism, femininity and uncertainty avoidance.

- Power Distance Culture refers to the degree of status differences in a society in which power differences are commonly accepted. Thai society is characterised as having a large power distance culture, which derives from the hierarchical nature of Thai society. It assumes that people with higher rank and status are higher in their morality and ability. Within this culture, hierarchy and social status ranking are believed to be 'natural' and accepted as a part of the administrative functions. People in formal positions are expected to exercise their power and are considered by their subordinates as legitimate. There is an emphasis on placing high value in

being 'polite' to people with higher status and rank. People of lower status tend to avoid decision-making and refer it to the authorities and senior members. As a result, a compliant attitude is common and a 'just do it' mentality prevails at all organisational levels. Superiors have more power over their subordinates as well as greater responsibility and obligations to their subordinates.

- Collectivist Culture, as opposite to individualism, refers to the degree to which social norms and common aims are accepted as more important than individual interests or goals. Thai society is characterised as having a high collectivist culture. In this culture, social relationships are the prime concern in people's way of life and work. People are highly sensitive to social acceptance and sanctions to direct their behaviours and works. Social and group expectations are considered greater than individual performance. Conflict and disagreement with group or social interests are avoided. Common objectives and aims are believed to be the common responsibility of all. Members of an organisation are supposed to work together to achieve common goals. Informal leaders play a crucial role in this culture. Personal connection is more powerful than bureaucratic structure.
- Uncertainty Avoidance Culture refers to the degree to which change and ambiguity are perceived as undesirable and destructive. Thai society is characterised as high in uncertainty avoidance. In this culture, people seek to avoid risk-taking and maintain a stable and continued environment. Traditions and norms are accepted as 'natural' and valuable in its course of functions. People are socialised to social norms, traditions, rules and regulations. Conformity in behaviours and ideas is highly valued and expected by society. People feel discomfort with innovations and resist change. It takes longer time to establish change. Once change is made, it is difficult to change again. Outstanding people are considered to be those who quietly represent the traditional aspirations of the group more than individuals who stand out from the group or achieve high performance.
- Feminine-Masculine Culture. Feminine culture refers to the degree to which social harmony is maintained and group relationships are cared for. By contrast, masculine culture emphasises achievement and performance. Thai society is characterised as feminine. In this culture, people place high values on social relationships, maintaining social harmony and avoiding conflict. Feelings are cared for and considered to be of greater importance than logic. People seek to create a

> pleasurable atmosphere in their way of living and working. Social relations are considered to be higher in value compared with productivity both at individual and group levels. Open disagreement over goals or procedures is avoided and resistance to change remains passive, covert and 'underground'. In a highly bureaucratic organisation, people adopt a 'wait and see' mentality and expect to follow prescribed instructions. (Hallinger and Kantamara, 2000)

Thai culture is mainly based on two social structures: hierarchical and community or extended family relationships. Thus, people regard each other from the perspective of what status they are in society and the relationships as associated with this. Social status tends to relate to power and benefits. Hence, those in societal ranks, senior and authority, are expected to lead and make decisions on behalf of group or community interests and well-being. Based on this concept, authority in which subordinates are motivated to co-operate and follow is accepted and supported. As a consequence, those in authority have the privilege of being respected and trustworthy in society, especially by their community or work group. This contributes to a sense of high reference ("greng jai") towards those in higher status and seniority. This relationship is characterised as high power distance that emphasises power-over and control.

On the other hand, Thai collectivist culture is based on closed and structured relationships between members of the same group or community. This bond is developed from the concept of extended family of Thai agricultural community, in which people recognise and relate to each other as family members. They assume community or school as home and respect each other according to their seniority. Within this culture, members tend to value their relationships and refer to community or group as a source of their social roles and meanings. This culture is closely associated with feminine culture, in which feelings are cared for and personal and group well-being is emphasised. Thus, they seek to maintain harmony, sustain pleasurable atmosphere and avoid conflict. They concern for, share and support each other for growth and development. As a consequence, they rely on this relationship for status quo, identity and role. They regard common goals as more important than personal achievement and are motivated to work collaboratively with one another for common good.

However, culture should be recognised as something learned and dynamic (Schein, 1992). Both power distance and collectivism are the basic attributes, which influence each other in Thai culture. Within the large power distance culture, individuals tend to have vertical or power relationships with those in social or organisational structure. Socialised into a hierarchical society, individuals refer to and comply with authority for their decisions and practices. However, this kind of relationships tends to create gaps between superiors and subordinates and/or junior and seniors members, as communication is blocked and confrontation is regarded as impolite. As a consequence, this may lead to fragmented relationships, conflicts of interest and ideology.

In contrast, being led by collectivism culture, individuals tend to relate to each other in a horizontal dimension, in which mutual trust, respect and understanding lead to collaborative relationships. Within this supportive environment; communications flow, ideas are exchanged, and experiences are shared. Individuals are encouraged to be critical and creative and motivated to work collaboratively for improvement and development. Thus, individuals' agency are activated and extended through out the community. However, the strength of this culture depends on the supportive social or organisational structures where leaderships are the determining factors. This social or national culture inevitably influences the school community where teachers are the key actors.

3.2 Thai Culture: Affecting Teachers

Thai teachers, as in many countries, are accepted by society as ones who are dedicated to social and academic development through educating children. Embedded within a hierarchical society, they are highly venerated (phuchaneeya-bukklon) and have a special status. Stemming from the altruistic role of Buddhist monks (the first teachers), they are expected to be models of morality and knowledge in teaching children to be good citizens. Thus, they are recognised as wise moral agents, who contribute to national development. Within an extended family culture, they are trusted to be the second parents for students and are highly respected by them. This image is exposed in the annual 'teacher veneration day' and expressed in daily relationships, particularly between teachers and students. As a result, there are few problems in classroom management and they are trusted to exercise their discretionary judgements in the classroom. This career status and these professional conditions provide meanings for teachers and justify their commitment.

Collectivist culture is an important feature of teachers' lives and works. Teachers tend to identify with the school as their home or family and relate to each other as family members. Through extended family relationships, they tend to share their experiences and concern for the well-being of their colleagues. However, embedded within the group-oriented culture, they conform to group norms for their practice and success. Although individualism appears to be a dominant nature of teaching they are motivated to plan lesson and set up teaching-learning goals together. Additionally, through the feminine culture, they co-operate to set up syllabus and assessments, share their success and problems, and contribute to the developmental needs of each other. However, group norms in which informal leaders are the key may not be congruent with formal objectives and may lead to goals conflicts or roles confusions. That is, within the imposed school reform, administrative and professional leaders are in conflict and result in teachers' role ambiguity.

Nevertheless, Thai school is characterised as highly centralised and authoritative nature (Hallinger et al, 1999). Schools are mandated to respond and follow national policy closely. Power tends to centre on the school principal and a small group of senior staff, and bureaucratic systems prevail. School operations rely mainly on formal systems, written orders, rules and regulations. Teachers are expected to obey administrative policies and carry out their tasks in line with the prescriptive orders. Incentives and rewards systems are beneficial for those who respond to administrative procedures and goals. In such a situation, the power distance culture in school is large, and gaps between superiors and subordinates are common. Thus personal, group and interest conflicts are bound to happen. These tend to limit teachers' sense of agency and commitment. Additionally, this condition is worse within the imposed education reform agenda, in which the growth of managerialism is a key change strategy.

In fact, both power distance and collectivism cultures exist in Thai schools as two different forces which continue to influence each other. Dominated by the large power distance, professional autonomy is subjected to administrative directives and controls. Imposed by the change policies, school collectivist culture has become weak, in which teacher agency is limited and therefore its commitment. It is through the integration of these two poles of relationships that contribute to bridge the fragmented relationships and empower teacher identity. This new framework will contribute to form a supportive culture for teachers and

their identity. Such cultural identity strengthens their status quo and enables them to exercise their professional agencies confidently. This cultural framework, Manstead et al. (2004) argue, is the model of agency (implicit frameworks of ideas and practices about how to be that construct the actions of the self, others, and the relationships among those actions), from which personal and professional identities are activated and reinforced.

In summary, culture is a social characteristic, which illustrates as the unique pattern of people lives and works. Thai culture is unique in its hierarchical and collectivist nature, through which people form their relationships. Influenced by Thai social culture, life in schools may be described as having large power distance, collectivism, femininity and uncertainty avoidance. Through collectivism, teachers are motivated and subjected to group norms for job performance and professional development. Dominated by large power distance culture, teacher agency is limited and subject to bureaucracy for their practices. These two characteristics influence each other and form the specific social relationships, which may contribute to strong or weak form of teacher agency. Within the imposed education reform, the large power distance of Thai culture seems to exercise control over teachers' professionalism and their agency, and therefore their sense of commitment. However, this cultural framework may not be applicable for a professional institution like a school, in which teacher identity plays a key role in making meanings and justifying changes. In order to meet the changing demands, schools need the co-operation of all constituencies, and teachers are the most important of these.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the research methodology employed in this study will be discussed. The empirical studies of organisation commitment and teacher commitment are reviewed and used as the theoretical framework for the research. Based on the purpose of this study, the research methodology is identified and elaborated: including research approaches, design, procedures, ethics, samples, instruments and data treatments. Finally, the limitations of the research undertaken are identified and discussed.

4.1 Theoretical Framework

The literature on employee's commitment began in the field of human resource management in term of 'organisation commitment: OC'. It is defined as the overall bond between employees and their organisation. This bond was said to lead to a strong acceptance of organisational goals and values; readiness to make appropriate efforts for the common good; and being proud to identify and maintain the organisational membership (Mowday et al. 1982). Most of the OC empirical studies were dealing with OC antecedent factors, consequences and other work related factors. Although OC has been defined in different ways, all of these definitions share the common theme of the bonds or linkages between members and their organisation. The definitions differ in terms of how this linkage is considered to have developed.

A literature review by Mathieu and Zajac, (1990) has shown that OC has been continuously developed and applied in the fields of industry and business for decades. It has become very popular because of the great number of empirical studies related to it. OC is deemed to be the important antecedent, because it is the potential predictor for employees' absenteeism, performance, turnover, including other work related behaviours such as job satisfaction and job involvement. On the other hand, it has been linked to several personal variables, role states, and work environment aspects such as job characteristics, organisational structure, and

organisational environment (Reichers, 1985; Morrow, 1983; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977).

As a result of empirical studies, Steers (1977) argued that the antecedent factors which influenced OC can be grouped into three categories: personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work and life experiences. Later on, Mowday et al. (1982) added employee roles as another antecedent factor to the model. In the following year, Steers and Porter (1983) added that work environment, such as personal characteristics and circumstances, job characteristics or work roles, organisational designs, and work experiences could influence organisational commitment and job performance.

However, as schooling is regarded as moral enterprise (Hargreaves, 1995) and teachers are characterised as a unique occupation with particular educational purposes (Hoyle, 1995), 'teacher commitment: TC' is different from organisation commitment. Tyree (1996) indicated that commitment to teaching is a multi-dimensional feature that involves school, teaching and students. It is not enough to examine the link between teachers and schools, but it is necessary to include personal and professional aspects in it. Hargreaves (1994) argued that, to study TC, it is necessary to involve personal and professional aspects of teachers. In addition, recent empirical studies indicate that teachers' career lives can affect their commitment as well (Sikes, 1985: Fessler and Christensen, 1992; Huberman, 1993; Day et al, 2005). This study focuses on the contextual factors (personal, professional, and organisational aspects) affecting TC within the framework of teachers' career cycles suggested by Huberman (1993) as it is one of the outstanding themes and school reform was the context.

In relation to the factors affecting teacher career lives, Fessler and Christensen's teacher career cycle model (1992) suggested that a supportive, nurturing, reinforcing environment can assist a teacher in the pursuit of a rewarding, positive career progression. On the other hand, environmental interference and pressures can impact negatively on the commitment at any given time. The environmental factors are often interactive, making it difficult to sort out specific influences that affect the career cycle. Fessler and Christensen's model suggests that the factors that influence teachers' career lives may be categorised into two broad dimensions:

personal environment, such as, family, positive critical incidents, crisis, individual dispositions, minor occupation interests and life stages; and organisational environment, such as, school's policies, regulations, management styles, public trust, societal expectations, professional organisations, and unions.

The literature indicates that TC is complex, multidimensional (Tyree, 1996) and can be affected by teachers' career cycles (Huberman, 1993; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; and Sikes, 1985). Thus, the factors affecting it will be drawn from both OC and teacher career cycle theories. These factors have been reassigned into ten clusters to cover all the possible influencing factors: personal characteristics, professional characteristics, personal beliefs and values, personal biography, teacher identity, student characteristics, country culture, school cultures, school leadership/management, and school policy and external influences as demonstrated in Figure 4.1 below.

Figure 4.1: The contextual factors affecting teacher commitment

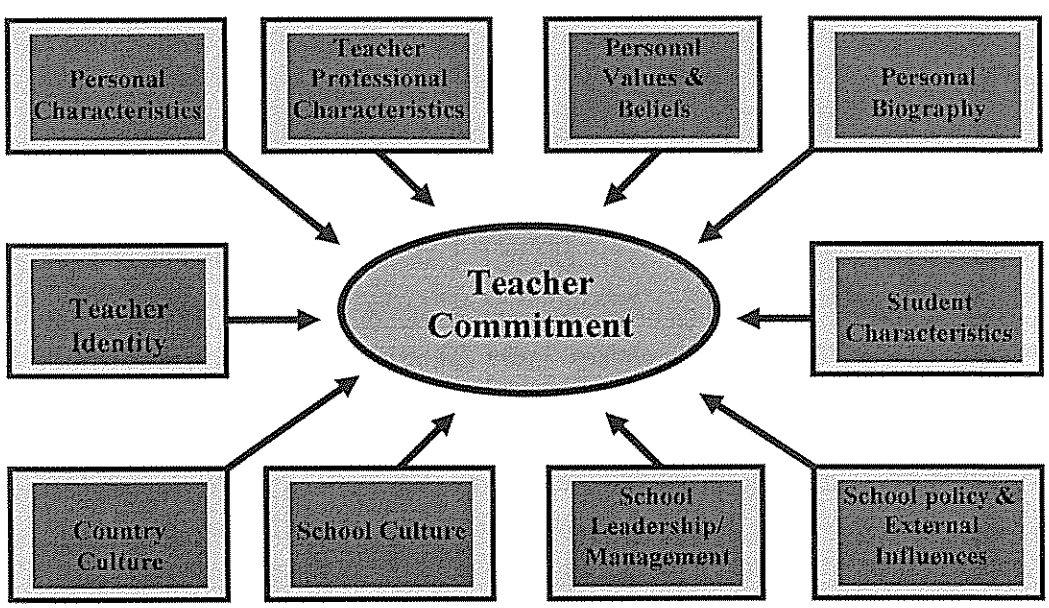


Figure 4.1 demonstrates the factors affecting TC, which are defined in the followings:

- Teacher characteristics refer to personal and career attributions and consisting of age, gender, educational qualification, marital status, teaching experience, faculty and grade level belonged.
- Professional characteristics refer to the professional practices and consisting of technical culture, service ethics, professional autonomy, professional commitment, collegial collaboration and self-efficacy.
- Personal beliefs and values refer to teacher's attitudes towards educational and professional practices derived from their personal values and work experience.
- Personal biography refers to personal and career experience that impact on teacher commitment, consisting of family, positive critical incidents, crises, individuals' dispositions, avocation interests, and life stages.
- Teacher identity refers to the meanings, values and images that individuals have about them as teachers.
- Student characteristics refer to students' attitudes and behaviours as they react toward teaching and learning.
- Country culture refers to a specific social beliefs, values and norms that dominate people's way of lives in general, in one particular country.
- School culture refers to the unique way of life in a particular school that is the result of norms, values, and beliefs of the school community.
- Leadership/management refers to power and authorities used to influence and motivate workforces to meet the common goals. This power and authority may be manifested in the school vision, administrative structure, rules and regulations, decision making, and goal settings.
- School policy and external influences refer to a school's managerial directions which have impacts on the school and teachers' practices. These are mainly influenced by the entities outside school, such as education policies, laws and regulations, politics, economics, public trust, and societal expectations.

4.2 The Research Approach

In striving to discover the reality of the world, it is essential to recognise that "*research is concerned with understanding of the world and that is informed by how we view our world(s), what we take understanding to be, and what we see as the purposes of understanding*" (Cohen et al., 2000: 3). There are two main paradigms in searching for social reality: Objectivism and Subjectivism. Objectivism views social existence to be the world of natural phenomena where reality or knowledge has an independent nature and is external to the observers. Thus, knowledge is described as being hard, objective and tangible and therefore can be discovered and observed through senses. As a result, it assumes that human actions are the result of their environment. That is, social behaviours are the products of their social conditions (Cohen et al. 2000).

On the other hand, Subjectivism views the reality as a construct of human mind. Reality varies according to the different understandings of what is real. Therefore, social reality is not something objective as described by natural science but must be grounded in the ways people perceive reality through their social experience. It recognises that man is the master, controller and constructor of their environment. The interpretations of human actions are based on the social meanings that they engage in their daily lives and are changed through social interaction. Thus, knowledge is described as being soft, personal and humanly created. In congruent to these two paradigms, the current research inquiries are classified as quantitative and qualitative approaches (Cohen et al. 2000).

Quantitative approaches are modelled on the natural sciences and emphasise the application of measurement or numerical methods for data gathering and analysis. Sophisticated statistics are employed to make correlations and comparisons between quantified variables for its analysis. They involve deductive processes in the analysis. They "*begin with a theoretical system, operationalises the concepts of that system and then set out to gather empirical data to test that system*" (Murphy et al., 1998: 70) As a consequence, it is possible to collect information form a large number of people and make generalisations about the social world. However, the disadvantage of quantitative approach is the limited ability to understand the reasons behind

the cause-and-effects between variables and that is where the strength of the qualitative approach lies.

On the other hand, qualitative approaches are modelled on the social sciences with an emphasis on the understanding of subjects' perspectives, processes and contextual components. In contrast to numerical measurement, they employ techniques like interviews, focus group discussions, observation and document analysis to provide in-depth information about the phenomenon. Qualitative data are rich with words which aim to answer the 'why and how' questions and provide greater depth of understanding. They are characterised as inductive approaches. They begin with the data collection and lead towards a general conclusion. They often result in hypothesis-generating rather than hypothesis-testing (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

However, many researchers increasingly agree that quantitative and qualitative approaches can be effectively combined in the same study by uniting their advantages based on the purposes of their studies (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Cohen et al., 2000; Cresswell, 2003). The combination of both approaches would generate complementary results which add greater breadth and depth to the analysis more than any single approach can do (Patton, 1990; Cresswell, 2003). This research therefore, employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

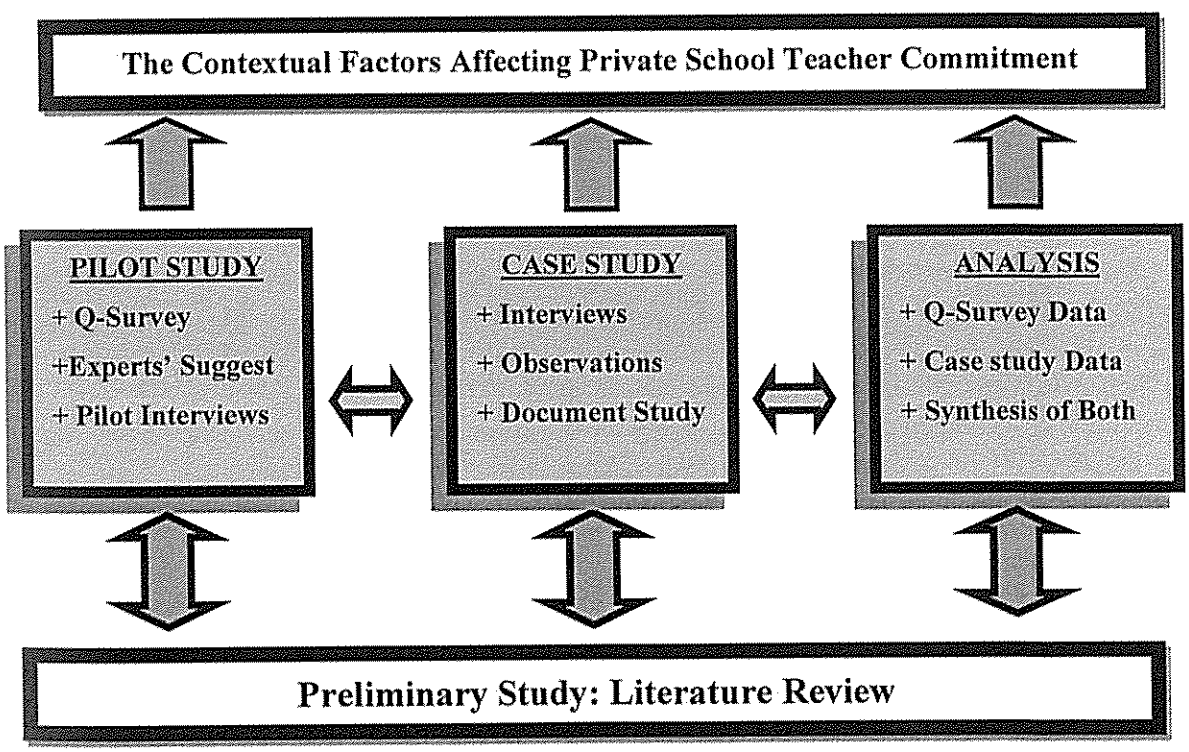
4.3 Research Design

In general, research method refers to research techniques and procedures used as an instrument to draw out responses to predetermined questions, recording measurements, describing phenomena and performing experiments (Cohen et al., 2000). However, this include "*not only the methods of normative research but also those such as participant observation, role playing, non-directive interviewing, episodes and accounts, which are associated with the interpretative paradigm*" (p. 44). Thus, methodology aims "*to describe and analyse methods, throwing light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their presuppositions and consequences, relating their potentialities to the twilight zone at the frontiers of knowledge. It is to venture generalisations from the success of particular techniques, suggesting new applications, and to unfold the specific bearings of logical and metaphysical principles on*

concrete problems, suggesting new formulations" (Kaplan, 1973, cited in Cohen et al., 2000: 45).

To meet the aims of this study, a descriptive method was chosen. Descriptive research is concerned with "*conditions or relationships that exist; practices that prevail; belief, point of view, or attitudes that are held; processes that are going on; effects that are being felt; or trends that are developing. Its major purpose is telling what is*" (p. 25). From the seven subcategories of descriptive research classified by Ary et al. (1979), the questionnaire survey and case study approaches were chosen for this research. The questionnaire survey was administered to elicit general opinions about teacher commitment from the vast population of teachers in the fieldwork. The case study was used in the target schools for the in-depth study. In order to map out the research methods used in this study, a research design was developed as demonstrated in Figure 4.2 below.

Figure 4.2: Research design demonstrating methods and procedure of the study



4.3.1 Research procedure

The research procedure in this study consists of three parts: pilot study, case study and data analysis (See Figure 4.2). The research began with the literature review, which serves as the foundation of the study. Based on this theoretical framework, a pilot study was undertaken to provide a profile for case study. The case study was conducted in one of the SGF schools (the name of the school is omitted for ethical reason). Finally, the data were transcribed, analysed and discussed.

The preliminary study

As the theoretical foundation for the research project, the literature on TC and the related topics were reviewed, included: teacher professionalism, teacher identity, teacher career cycle, school culture, and school leadership in changing context. The researcher also attended some related modules, workshops and seminars to update the research knowledge and to improve the research skills. In addition, as SGF schools were chosen to be the research fieldwork, the current conditions of Thai education and the educational perspective of the Gabrielite education is reviewed. The target school for the case study was visited and the general information about the school was studied. The preliminary study was used as the ground-knowledge for the research project.

The pilot study

As a preparation for the case study, a pilot project composed of a teacher commitment survey, panel suggestions (teacher and expert representatives), and interview rehearsals were carried out to provide the framework and validate the case study. The questionnaire survey was developed and served as the instrument to elicit general opinions about TC in the wider population. That is, the survey research aimed to gather the data from the samples that were representative of all the SGF schoolteachers in Thailand. Before administering to collect data, a reliability test was conducted to validate the instrument. A private school parallel to the target schools was chosen. Forty respondents participated in the prior trial and the Alpha-coefficient of the instrument was 0.928. The result of the reliability test indicated that the instrument was highly reliable for the data collection. In addition to completing the questionnaire, the

respondents were also requested to provide any possible suggestions and feedback that would improve the instrument.

The questionnaire survey was conducted in eleven SGF schools with the following procedure. First, the researcher contacted the target schools for permission, obtained required information, and agreed on the administering schedule. Second, with the assistance of these schools, the questionnaire survey was administered to both primary and secondary teachers by random. Third, the survey data were collected and analysed. Fourth, the findings from the survey study and the respondents' feedback were discussed and used as the framework to form the interview schedule for the case study. Thus, the quantitative study enabled the case study to relate to the findings from the larger population, that is, Saint Gabriel Foundation schoolteachers in Thailand.

As the result of the questionnaire survey, the initial interview schedules were formed and developed. To validate this interview schedule, a panel of teacher representatives and experts was formed and invited to examine and discuss the interview validity, objectivity, and comprehensibility. The interview schedule was revised according to the comments and suggestions of the panel. The pilot interviews were trialled in a parallel school where the informants resemble those of the understudy samples. At the end of each pilot interview, the interviewees were asked to give comments about the problems encountered and suggestions to further improve the interview schedule. As the result of the experience of the pilot interviews, the interview schedule was revised.

The case study

According to Cohen et al. (2000) "*a case study is a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle, it is the study of an instance in action*" (p. 181). "*The purpose of such observation is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit with a view to establishing generalisations about the wider population to which that unit belongs*" (p. 185). Thus, case study has its advantages, such as a rich and vivid description of events, relevant to the case. It is strong in reality, and elicits deep information. However, the weak point is that it is not easily

generalisable, not easily open to cross-checking, and limited to a specific context and condition (Nisbet and Watt, 1984).

In order to study in-depth about the complex nature of Thai private school TC and the factors influencing it, a case study was carried out in one of the SGF schools. Although the school was chosen because it was the representative of all SGF schools in term of school policies, management, structures and work systems, it was also a school which appeared to have rapid development in the past 10 years. The school has been changing in various dimensions, more particularly with regard to the job mobility of teachers and school reform. As found in a study by Huberman (1993), the effects of education reform on the lives of teachers would provide a dimension to this study which could be related to effects of reform on teachers in other countries.

The semi-structured interview was employed as the prime tool for data collection complemented by observation and document study. The advantage of the semi-structured interview is that it reduces time spent acquiring basic information. The structure and contents of the interview was established using foreknowledge of the literature and the use of the previous significant findings (Cohen and Manion, 1997). In order to keep the interviews focused on the research purpose and to achieve comparability within and across the study, an interview schedule was prepared and used as its guideline.

With the permission of the school principal, the research project was introduced and the target participants were approached and invited. As a confirmation, personal contacts were needed to ask for their consent and co-operation. A meeting was held to explain the research project and answer the informants, particularly regarding ethical concerns and confidentiality. Then, the schedule for the interview was planned and agreed on what, when, where, how and approximate time required.

The interviews were conducted during November 2003 and January 2004. The interview data were recorded and transcribed. After that, the transcripts were returned to the informants for confirmation, disagreement, and amendment. Meanwhile, the observation schedule was

planned and carried out to support the interviews. The purpose was to take account of the events related to TC and the way teachers react to the contextual factors affecting it. In addition to the regular teaching and learning activities, the observations focused on the extra-curricular activities, such as, the events before and after classroom schedules, lunch breaks and short breaks, teachers'meetings, parents'gatherings, as well as some important school functions and rituals. In addition to this, there were certain venues to focus on such as, teacher staff rooms, canteens, playgrounds and gymnasiums.

Field notes were taken in co-operate with the interviews. The researcher also took time to study the available school documents, such as school history, bulletins, newsletters, development plans, school charters and annual reports. Some of the related information were discussed with the people concerned and were added to the research analysis. Finally, a brief interview was held with the principal concerning school policies that relating to teacher commitment.

4.4 The Research Ethics

Concerning research ethics, there are a few points to draw attention to. First, the publication of the research findings may result in negative effects on personal, social and work dimensions of the participants. Second, they may not be free to participate in the research project unless they feel secure from all the possible negative effects as a result of sharing their opinions. In order to solve these problems, the interviewees were approached personally for their consent to participate in the research. An orientation was conducted to introduce the research project, answer participants' questions and their worries. The interview schedules and procedures were agreed on. The informants' permissions were sought before the use of tape recorder. The interview records were transcribed and returned to the informants for confirmations, agreements or disagreements and the permissions to be published. They were assured that the school name would not be revealed and fictional names would be used to represent the informants and the related places or persons.

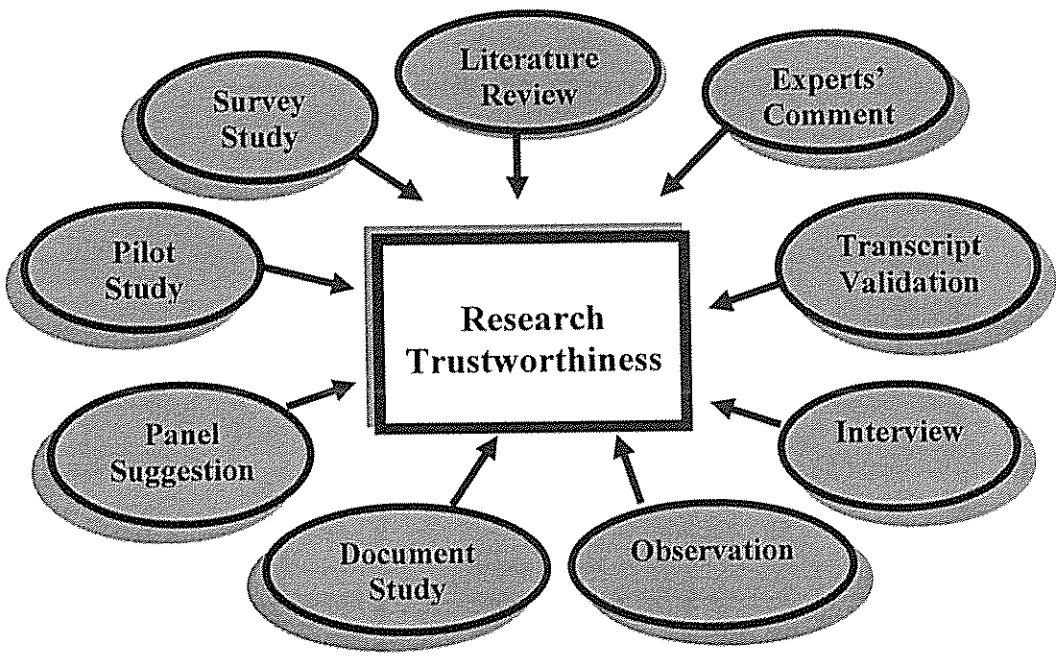
4.5 Validity, Reliability and Triangulation

The terms reliability, validity and generalisation are crucial concepts used in traditional research methodologies. Bassey (1999) defines reliability as "*the extent to which a research*

fact or finding can be repeated, given the same circumstances, and validity is the extent to which a research fact or finding is what it is claimed to be" (p. 75). These concepts are important because they determine the nature of the research evidence. For example, qualitative research uses the term 'trustworthiness' as an alternative to reliability and validity (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The concept of triangulation refers to a method of having "*two or more 'fixes' or 'sightings' of a finding from different angles*" (Delamont, 1992). In this research, triangulation consisted of the preliminary study, survey study, pilot study, suggestions from the panel of teacher and expert representatives, document analysis, observations, semi-structured interviews, teachers and principal validation of the transcripts, and critical comment from experts, as shown in Figure 4.3.

Generalisability or referability is concerned with the extent to which research findings are applicable to other people or settings in the similar contexts. However, in case study, generalisation could be a problematic term because of contextual variations. Nevertheless, Cohen et al. (2000) suggest three forms of generalisation: "*from the single instance to the class of instances that it represents; from features of the single case to a multiplicity of classes with the same features; and from the single features of part of the case to the whole of that case*" (pp. 182-183). In this study, the research planned to refer a single case to the bigger population that of SGF schoolteachers through the linking between the questionnaire survey and the case study.

Figure 4.3: Triangulation employed to confirm the credibility of the findings



4.6 Research Sampling

The population for the first phase of this study consisted of the primary and secondary teachers working at the eleven Saint Gabriel Foundation schools, as shown in Table 4.1 below. The population of SGF teachers in this study referred to the teachers who were working in the 2003 academic year. Teachers in this sense were characterised as full time teachers who were officially registered with the Ministry of Education. It did not include non-teaching staff, such as finance, general business, registrar, administration officers and librarians in the study.

Table 4.1 shows that the population for the questionnaire survey were 2,529 teachers which consisted of 958 primary teachers, 558 lower secondary teachers, 357 higher secondary teachers and 656 supportive teachers. Based on Yamane's sampling table (1970: 886) the sample size is equal to 662, when the population is 2,500 at the standard error +5% or approximately 30% of the population.

Regarding the case study, twenty-two teachers were chosen from the list of the target school. The respective principal of the school has cooperated by providing the list of teachers with their personal information such as, gender, age, length of teaching, education earned, marital status, subjects and grade level taught. In order to study teacher commitment in different career phases, Huberman's career life scheme (1993) was employed as the framework for this research. Those were the beginning phase (1-3 years), stabilisation phase (4-10 years), diversification phase (11-25 years), conservative phase (26-33 years), and disengagement phase (34-40 years). Although employing the above criteria and emphasis on the career phases, the participants were 'opportunity samples'. They were assumed to represent the population of the SGF teachers except for its gender, as more male teachers were available to participate in this project (13 male and 9 female teachers).

Table 4.1 Saint Gabriel Foundation Schoolteachers according to grade level and gender in 2003 academic year

Teachers / School Names	Primary		Lower Secondary		Higher Secondary		Supportive		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1. Assumption College	49	114	34	49	23	41	40	98	448
2. Saint Gabriel College	44	48	21	21	17	16	34	53	254
3. Montfort College	64	73	43	39	27	34	51	35	366
4. Assumption College Sriracha	11	47	33	41	19	15	31	34	231
5. Saint Louis College	21	67	18	27	11	9	7	17	177
6. Assumption College Lampang	16	64	16	24	11	18	24	39	212
7. Assumption College Thonburi	24	78	20	29	18	16	24	45	254
8. Assumption College Rayong	17	56	15	10	14	9	4	24	149
9. Assumption College Ubonrachthani	9	20	11	17	12	14	8	25	116
10. Assumption College Nakornrajasima	12	36	17	28	-	-	11	14	118
11. Assumption College Samutprakan	17	71	16	29	17	16	5	33	204
Total	284	674	244	314	169	188	239	417	2,529

From: Saint Gabriel Foundation Annual Report/Education Statistic 2003 Academic year

4.7 Research Instruments

There were two sets of research instruments employed in this study: questionnaire survey and interview schedule. First, the questionnaire survey (See Appendix B1) was constructed and based on the related literature and the research questions. It consists of two parts: the first part is the respondents' personal information; the second part is the teacher commitment questionnaire: TCQ. There are 11 questions in the questionnaire. Each of this composes of question, choices (as response to the question), and the space to explain the highly preferred choice(s). The TCQ is a ranking and open-end type where the respondents are asked to rank three levels of importance from the choices given, then explain or give reasons for them. However, if the respondents cannot find the appropriate answer(s) from the given choices, they can introduce their own choice(s) at the end of each item.

Second, the TC interview schedule (See Appendix B2) is a set of questions posed as the guideline for the semi-structured interview. The schedule is composed according to the research purpose and aimed to answer the research questions. In order to validate the interview schedule, the findings from the questionnaire survey was analysed and served as the framework for the interviews. A panel of teacher representatives and experts was set up to examine the first draft and provide further judgement and suggestions for the case study. The draft, then, was revised and the new draft was tried out with 2-3 teachers for more feedback and improvement. Finally, the interview schedule was employed as a guideline for the TC semi-structured interview in the case study.

4.8 Data Treatments

In this study, there were two sources of data collection: TC questionnaire survey and case study. Regarding the questionnaire survey, all the samples' answers were tallied and coded. SPSS program (version 9) was proceeded to analyse the survey research data. The following statistical methods were employed for the questionnaire survey analysis, namely: frequency, percentage, and chi-square test. In order to analyse the questionnaire survey, the frequency and percentage were used to show the distribution of respondents' opinions with regard to teacher commitment and the related factors. Chi-square test was employed as the means to examine the significant correlations and strengths of the factors affecting teacher commitment positions and the factors affecting teacher commitment in the different career phases.

Regarding the case study analysis, all the raw data collected from the research interviews, observations, and document analyses were transcribed, coded and analysed. The transcripts were carefully classified into themes and topics. These classified issues were compared, interpreted and patterns were identified. As suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994), in doing through these processes, the researcher examined and reflected on the data to generate the new ideas and concepts out of it.

Focused on the research questions, the interview data from each interviewee were analysed and emerged themes and topics were notified. In addition to the research questions, some of the progressive concepts were accepted and included into the data analysis. Colour pens were employed to highlight the statements which were relating to the emerging topics and themes. The identified concepts and ideas from each interviewee were pooled together to be compared and coded. Then, a 'long-table approach' was employed as a method to facilitate the whole interview analysis. Krueger and Casey (2000) suggested that this simple approach is helpful for the novice researchers, as it breaks the job down into manageable chunks and helps make analysis a visual process.

4.9 Research Limitations

The research focused on the nature of teacher commitment and the factors affecting it in the context of Thai private schools. The SGF schools were chosen as the field of this study, as this research was sponsored by Saint Gabriel Foundation, Thailand. As all of these schools are under the same educational philosophy, vision, mission, objectives, and administration and work systems, this contributed to the external validity of the research. In addition, these schools could be regarded as representative of the private schools in Thailand, as they are located in different parts of the country: Bangkok, central, northern, eastern, and north-eastern regions of Thailand, except the southern region.

The population in this research were limited to the study of primary and secondary teachers who are working in the academic year 2003 (from May 2003 to April 2004). The population in this research referred only to the full time teachers who were officially registered with the Ministry of Education. These were assumed to be the qualified teachers required by the state and accepted by the schools they belonged. This study did not include

supportive and general administrative teachers who did not teach, as the research aimed to examine teacher commitment among the teaching personal.

Finally, the case study took only six months for its fieldwork because of the time limit. During this short period, the researcher paid regular visits to the school; interviewed teachers; took scheduled observations; interacted in person with teachers, students, parents and administrators; and studied the available documents. All the information with regard to this research was in Thai language and was recorded and used as the data for the case study analysis. However, the data collections from different sources were employed as the means to provide research trustworthiness for this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter aims to discuss literature regarding teacher commitment and the areas related to it. The literature review is organised into six sections. The first section begins with the nature of teacher professionalism which provides meanings for teachers' roles and their investments. The second section focuses on the development of teacher commitment in the literature and the factors affecting it. The third section explains the way teachers identify themselves in different roles and circumstances, and how these concepts contribute to explanations of their practices. The fourth and fifth sections look at the ways culture, especially Thai culture, influences teachers in their workplace and the role of school leadership in its changing contexts. The sixth section reviews the nature of the various phases of teachers' career lives, which relate to their commitment.

5.1 Teacher Professionalism

Teacher professionalism is the quality that indicates the performance of teachers as trustworthy, responsible for personal needs and welfare of learners, and maintaining professional standards and ethical practice. This quality informs the values and meanings of teaching, and therefore teacher commitment. Teacher professionalism is dynamic and subjective to change over time. Education reform was perceived as the important threat affecting work conditions, which undermine teachers' professional autonomy and place limits on their responsibilities. Nevertheless, in spite of the reform agenda, empirical evidences show that teachers are able to manage and regain confidence and control over the changes in their profession (Goodson, 1994; Woods and Jeffrey, 2002). Through activist professionalism, teachers are the active agents, who build a community of learning, work collaboratively for their professional development and co-operate with school constituencies for student achievement and school development.

The quality of professionalism is essential for the way in which teachers work dedicatedly in teaching and devotedly for school goals. In this section, the professional nature of teachers and the complex development of teacher professionalism are discussed. It examines how professional status and practice is meaningful for teachers. How teacher professionalism developed in the context of schooling? What are the important factors affecting it? Why has this concept been considered as problematic? This section discusses the different approaches in the literature regarding the problems of teacher de-professionalism, and how to regain it.

5.1.1 The meanings of 'professional teachers'

'A professional' is considered to be a member of a privileged occupation in society because s/he requires special knowledge, skills and commitment to clients. Professionals base their work on the principles of providing well-being to clients and working for the good of society, in which professionalism is at the heart of their work. It is essential that professionals are respected for their judgements and allowed to work autonomously (Weick and McDaniel, 1989). According to the 'classical view', a professional teacher is characterised as "*having a specialised knowledge base or technical culture; a strong service ethic with a commitment to meeting clients' needs; a self-regulated collegial control rather than external bureaucratic control over recruitment and training, codes of ethics, and standards of practice*" (Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996: 5). However, "*as teachers do not have control over professional standard, teaching has been regarded as a semi-profession*" (Day, 1999: 5).

Two terms are often referred to describe a professional teacher: 'professionalization' and 'professionalism'. Helsby and McCulloch (1996: 56) provide definitions which distinguish between these two concepts. 'Professionalization' refers to "*the issue of status that has tended to preoccupy historians and sociologists. These include in particular the quest of teachers to be publicly acknowledged as 'professionals' and of teacher unions and associations to establish teaching as a recognised profession.*" That is, teaching is recognized by society as an important function that contributes to the common good of society. This concept is mainly linked with social respect, income and welfare.

By contrast, 'professionalism' refers to *"teacher rights and obligations to determine their own task in the classroom, that is, to the way in which teachers develop, negotiate, use and control their own knowledge"* (p. 56). Englund (1996) argues that these two concepts are related and should not be totally separated. Thus, both are informing the meanings and values of a good professional teacher and contribute to teacher commitment. However, *"teachers' professionalism is a complex and dynamic concept which is constructed in the everyday realities of teachers' working lives"* (Helsby, 1996: 146). In the same way, *"teacher's professional status cannot be acquired once and for ever. Instead professionalization must be viewed as an ongoing struggle without any single path that can guarantee a group to reach the preferred status as full professionals"* (Laursen, 1996: 51).

5.1.2 Changing contexts of teachers' work

Freidson (2001) argues that, previously, professional institutions and professionals were in the position of being well protected by the state. It is the new policies of competition and efficiency that weaken this privilege and undermined this practice. *"It is charged that profession have monopolies which they use primarily to advance their selfish economic interests while failing to insure benefits to consumers that they are inefficient, their work unreliable and unnecessarily costly"* (p. 3). In England and other countries, the radical right-wing thinkers have been the main influences of the sustained attack on licensed professionals. They argue that *"the strategy of providing welfare through the employment of autonomous professionals in welfare state bureaucracies is inefficient and ineffective, because it becomes producer-led, it generates a nationally debilitating dependency culture, it produces big brother bureaucracies, and it inevitably leads to politicians taking short term vote-catching decisions rather than those in the general public's best interests"* (Wright and Bottery, 1997: 236).

In England, Whitty (2002) argues that teachers enjoyed licensed autonomy during the 'golden age of teacher control' (from 1944 until the mid-1970s). They were trusted by society to have good performances. Thus, the state did not influence within the areas of curriculum and pedagogy. Autonomy over the curriculum rested within schools but system autonomy was located at the local education authority level (the equivalent of school district). However, in the

mid-1970s "*teachers were accused of abusing their 'licensed autonomy' to the detriment of their pupils and society*" (p. 66).

In addition, education was dramatically expanded to meet the needs of a rapidly increasing pupil population, in which education standards were claimed to be falling. Education was regarded as compatible with the needs to increase economic competitiveness and social cohesion. However, some political rhetoric regarded education as "*ill-adapted to be either agent of the state or entrepreneurial service providers in a marketised civil society*" (Whitty, 2002: 66). These claims have supported the notion of 'regulated autonomy' that "*the teaching profession should have a professional mandate to act on behalf of the state in the best interests of its citizens to a rigors of the market and/or greater control and surveillance on the part of the reformed state*" (Whitty, 2002: 66-67).

Within the market policy, the 'political right wing' claimed that "*market forces were the most appropriate way of allocating resources and structuring choices in all aspects of human endeavour. Competition became the motive for policy implementation*" (Bell, 1999: 208). This had pushed schools' growth and existence to rely on the market systems. The market is the dominant motive force through which accountability and parental choices were the main indicators. Schools were granted devolved or site-based management that operated within a tightly prescribed and monitored National Curriculum framework. The roles of head teachers shifted from those of education professionals to business managers' leadership. Teachers were pushed to becoming deskilled workers as they lost control of their teaching practices and assessments. School autonomy also demanded greater accountability of teachers' performance and the school as a whole to the local/national authorities, parents, employers, and society. As Seddon (1997: 242) states it, "*Today, teachers are more subject to managerial regulation, less autonomous and self-regulating, less involved with educational decision-making, and less well paid and satisfied, confirms the assessment that teaching is being de-professionalized*".

The new policy has changed the patterns of organisation and management within these schools: from 'bureau-professionalism' (which is the two modes of co-ordination between bureaucratic administration and professionalism) to 'managerialism' (Pollitt 1993; Clarke

and Newman, 1997; Gewirtz et al., 1995). This mode of control by the state, as Whitty (2002) suggests, "*can be strong even while appearing to devolve power*" (p. 67). Whitty quotes Neave's concept of the 'evaluative state' as a useful explanation for this new mode of control. "*What matters most is not the process by which goals or targets are achieved, but the output. In the education system, as elsewhere, there has been a rationalisation and wholesale redistribution of functions between centre and periphery such that the centre maintains overall strategic control through fewer, but more precise, policy levers including the operationalisation of criteria relating to 'output quality'. Rather than leading to a withering away of the state, the state withdraws from the murky plain of overwhelming detail, the better to take refuge in the clear and commanding heights of strategic profiling*" (p. 67).

Ozga (2000) summarises 'managerialism' in education as "*following business practice that leadership defines the mission for systems and schools as 'world-class education for economic competitiveness', and links improvement to target-setting and monitoring of performance centrally, locally and at school level. Teachers are managed (and changed) through the definition of appropriate prerequisites at different levels of responsibility. These prerequisites began as competence, and have become standards, and they operate both as filters and as performance monitors*" (p. 20). Through this policy, teachers are supposed to follow the descriptive practices and aims. It assumes that competition for financial rewards would be the source of motivation for teachers. The work monitor system will be used to assure teachers' performance and success (in competition with one another and with other schools). The financial recognition will be the main support for their achievement and success. In this condition, teacher professionalism has to rely on external control and discretionary judgement is limited.

Through managerial control, teachers perform their work within the framework of legal accountability. Eraut et al. (1987) observe that teachers are mainly responsible for two kinds of accountabilities. They are obliged to render a legal account to their employers or those in authority. In the moral sense, teachers have the main task to educate students and are responsible for those who are affected by them. Through moral accountability, teachers are bound to be answerable to their clients (pupils and parents). With professional responsibility,

teachers are obliged to be responsible for their professional conduct and that of their colleagues; and by contractual accountability, teachers are bound to fulfil the objectives of their employers, especially in private schools. However, constrained by the content-led and prescriptive curriculum, the limited professional autonomy has deprived teachers of their moral accountability.

Teacher autonomy is complex and may be limited by different functions and levels of controls. Hoyle (1995) argues that autonomy can be limited by the State through a national curriculum or prescribed textbooks, by school administrators through bureaucratic constraints, by the local community through collegial structures, and by peers such as schemes of peer appraisal. Bull (1990) argues that the professional's autonomy is always subject to limitation, but not all professions deal with these limits in the same way. Some professions are granted 'licensed autonomy' whilst others receive 'regulated autonomy' (Dale, 1989). That is, some occupations such as medicine and law have greater authority to manage their own affairs, but other professions including teachers, have less authority to control their own work.

Additionally, led by educational purposes, teaching is an act of moral and teachers are considered to be the moral agents (Sockett, 1989; 1993; Buzzelli and Johnston, 2001). Within the current education reform, teachers are placed at the point of tension between society's value of achievement or market value and the obligation to all pupils in respect of their development as persons (Sockett, 1989). 'The new work order' has pushed teachers into being de-skilled workers through a prescriptive curriculum, in which teachers' discretionary judgements are limited. The overloaded and goal-setting contents have demanded most of the classroom time and decreased teachers' ability to care for students' learning and well-being. These conditions are described as the de-professionalism of teachers (Ozga, 1995), in which their senses of commitment are undermined.

5.1.3 The re-professionalism approaches

Recent literature of teacher professionalism has focused on the school reform policy as the source of de-professionalism (Hoyle, 1995; Ozga, 1995; Hargreaves, 1994). Others have optimistic views of expecting change for the better and greater opportunity for re-

professionalism (Sachs, 2001; Seddon, 1997; Hargreaves, 1997). In the era of post-modernism, changes are unavoidable and the ability to master changes could be one of the keys to success (Ducker, 1993). It is obvious that teachers are either subject to the demands for change or they are able to manage change. That is, teachers should be alert to changes and learn how to cope efficiently with both challenge and threat encountered. Teaching is no doubt a complex situation, teachers "*may be both autonomous and accountable to others, independent and collaborative, being in control and not in control, teacher centred and child centred*" (Day, 1999: 12). The ability to exercise their professional power is crucial in the condition of fluctuation and pressure whilst society expects more from teachers than ever. It is through professionalism, support and respect that quality learning can be developed, where student well-being and achievement will be the centre focus.

In Helsby's studies (1996 and 1995), although many secondary school teachers in the study were constrained by the compulsory National Curriculum and accountability systems, she found that there were some teachers who regained professional confidence and were able to control and adapt the curriculum to suit the needs of their practices. Whereas, those who can not cope with the changes and are subjected to the high demand of the job such as work overload, resource scarcity and overcrowded classrooms, have become stressed, exhausted and subject to 'burn-out'. This has resulted in an increased level of illness, low morale, lack of professional commitment, premature retirement and job turnover (Day, 1999). Moreover, the teaching occupation has become unattractive to potential newcomers, which will affect education in the long term (Weiss, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 1984).

In order to cope with the changing demand of school reform, the new professionalism should be centred on continuing professional development which enables the acquiring of knowledge and updated information, learning to integrate new knowledge with practice, collaborate with colleagues and co-operating with all parties involved. Jon Nixon et al. (1997 cited in Day, 1999: 12) propose "*the four integrative modes of agreement-making*" in a review of the changing purposes of professionalism in the twentieth century. This emphasises the continued professional learning of teachers through collaboration with their colleagues, cooperation with parents in partnership, involving students in school activities, and extending toward other

professional agencies and communities, as a strategy to cope with changes and complexities in the new professionalism.

In the same way, Sachs (1999, 1997) suggests five practical principles, which contribute to the fundamentals of proactive and responsible approach to professionalism:

1. *Learning in which teachers are seen to practice learning, individually with their colleagues and students.*
2. *Participation in which teachers see themselves as active agents in their own professional worlds.*
3. *Collaboration in which collegiality is exercised within and between internal and external communities.*
4. *Co-operation through which teachers develop a common language and technology for documenting and discussing practice and the outcomes.*
5. *Activism in which teachers engage publicly with issues that relate directly or indirectly to education and schooling, as part of their moral purposes* (p. 13).

Above all, Day (1999) argues that teaching is more than the desired outcomes of the narrow prescriptive curriculum. In fact, teachers' activities influence students' lives in various aspects in addition to the explicit curriculum. More particularly, it is clear that teaching is a moral enterprise. Teaching has a moral purpose and teachers are obliged by a strong moral commitment to do whatever is good for their students. Committed teachers are active in initiating new methods that improve teaching and learning "*Teachers are not only recipients of policy change initiated from outside their schools and classrooms, but also are themselves initiators of change. Therefore changing teacher's practice is not something simple and taken for granted, it provokes commitment to change. That is, it involves responsibilities and answerabilities, which go beyond the transmission of knowledge, experience and skills*" (pp. 15 - 16). In order to understand how this professional quality is developed and maintained in a meaningful way, it would be essential to understand the complex nature of teacher commitment in the career lives of teachers.

5.2 Teacher Commitment

'Commitment' is defined as a form of social endeavour to attach to someone or something. It involves psychological, social and intrinsic attachment to this endeavour (Kanter, 1974). Thus, it is described as beyond a kind of investment just to expect some benefits in return. It has been characterised as a moral issue, involving devotion and dedication (Etzioni, 1975). Teacher commitment is believed to be one of the most important characteristics of a professional teacher because it reflects professional meanings, work motivation, job satisfaction, morale, and teacher identity. However, it is complex, multidimensional, contextually bounded and subjective to change over time. In the next section, the complex nature of teacher commitment, its theoretical development in the literature and its nature in the school setting will be discussed.

5.2.1 The development of teacher commitment

In the past few decades, most of the literature concerning 'commitment' has been focused on organisational or occupational commitment in the field of industrial and business organisations. Organisational commitment (OC) has been studied in the industrial and organisational psychology and organisational behaviour science as the potential indicator and predictor for employees' attitudes and behaviour toward job withdrawal and job performance (Reichers, 1985; Morrow, 1983; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977). Organisational commitment is widely studied because of its influence on employees' motivation, organisational efficacy and productivity in various aspects. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted a Meta-analysis study of organisational commitment and found that it affects performance, retention, and job mobility.

Recently, interest in organisational commitment has developed amongst researchers in the field of education, as it is considered to be one of the prominent factors influencing the performance level of teachers and their students (Bryk et al., 1993; Kushman, 1992; Rosenholtz, 1989; Bryk and Driscoll, 1988). Based on this concept, Reyes (1990) defines teacher commitment as "*a psychological identification of the individual teacher with the school's goals and values, and the intention of that teacher to maintain organisational membership and become involve in the job beyond personal interest*" (pp. 153-4). Here, teacher commitment is interpreted as the basic

components that activate, direct, and sustain teachers' behaviour towards the goals and values of the school.

Day (2004: 71) characterises teacher commitment with the combinations of these attributions:

1. *A clear, enduring set of values and ideologies that inform practice regardless of social context.*
2. *The active rejection of a minimalist approach to teaching (to just doing the job).*
3. *A continuing willingness to reflect upon experience and the context in which practice occurs and to be adaptable.*
4. *A sustained sense of identity and purpose, and an ability to manage tensions caused by external change pressures.*
5. *Intellectual and emotional engagement.*

In contrast, the teachers with low commitment may reduce student achievement, show less sympathy toward students, have a lower tolerance or higher frustration level and feel more anxious and exhausted. They develop fewer plans to improve the quality of their teaching and are less likely to challenge authority when faced with rules that keep them from effective teaching (Firestone and Pennell, 1993; LeCompte and Dworkin, 1991; Dworkin, 1987; Farber, 1984). However, the literature has identified different concepts and operations in teacher commitment.

Based on different disciplines (such as psychology, sociology and socio-psychology), teacher commitment is defined in various ways and interests. Many of these studies focus their work on teachers' attitudes whilst the rest focus on teachers' behaviours and incentives. For example: Firestone and Rosenblum (1988) defined commitment as positive effective attachment, whilst Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) focused exclusively on attitudes of disaffection towards teaching. Rosenholtz (1989) measures teacher commitment through their internal motivation and their attitude to absenteeism and leaving the job, whereas Riehl and Sipple (1996) focus on the concept of behaviours, such as extended tenure in a school or the willingness to take on a variety of roles. However, the research of teacher commitment in educational organisations is limited and unsystematic, and remains incoherent (Reyes, 1990).

Riehl and Sipple (1996) analysed previous studies and summarised the antecedent factors that influence teacher commitment in three categories, namely, personal, organisational, and task characteristics. First, as personal attitudes and behaviours relate to teacher commitment, Reyes (1990) explains this interaction as a psychological phenomenon. It is believed that commitment is the result of personal characteristics such as status, intrinsic motivation and work orientation which match with the organisational opportunities and demands. The following studies are examples related to this concept. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) found that teachers' stress, years of experience, gender; parents' occupation and dissatisfaction with the organisation were associated with commitment. Freestone (1987) reported that teachers identified the need for professional autonomy whilst being indifference towards organisational rewards. Reyes and Pounder (1993) found teacher commitment, in public and private schools, associated with the matching of teacher and school value orientations.

Second, organisational characteristics were found to relate to teacher commitment. From a sociological perspective, it is believed that commitment is the result of the social reaction of the individual towards organisational structure and process (Reyes, 1990). Studies based on this concept focus on the school social factors as related to teacher commitment. A number of empirical studies have examined the impact of workplace conditions on teachers' sense of professionalism, certainty about their work, and sense of self-efficacy which in turn increase teachers' internal motivation towards work (Louis, 1992; Smylie, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1989; Ashton and Webb, 1986).

For example, Firestone and Pennell (1993) conclude from their study that organisational factors such as autonomy regarding classroom decisions, participation in school-wide decision-making, opportunities to collaborate with other teachers, opportunities to learn, and adequate resources are consistently shown to be strongly associated with teacher commitment. These variables become powerful especially when they reduce uncertainty, promote autonomy, and provide opportunities for teachers to learn how to be successful. Other studies have found principal behaviours to represent an important determinant of teacher commitment, in so far as

they can help establish supportive organisational climates (Reyes, 1992; Anderman et al., 1991; Maehr et al., 1990; Newmann et al., 1989; Pitner and Charters, 1988).

Third, task characteristics were found to be the antecedent factors related to teacher commitment. This perspective has a strong link with the job design theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Hackman and Lawler, 1971). The job design theory assumes that individuals are motivated toward high job performance and commitment when their internal efficacy is modified by the core attributes of work tasks. These work attributes include the range and variety of skills and knowledge required of the worker, the scope of the task, its perceived significance, the autonomy of the worker and the task, and whether feedback on task performance is available (Hart, 1990; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Higher levels of commitment have been associated with a wider scope, with jobs that require many skills, with greater job autonomy and with jobs that provide more feedback. However, this perspective does not have a strong influence on teacher commitment research. As teachers working within the same school environment often have very different attitudes about their work, the question persists as to whether the work itself can influence teacher commitment.

Louis (1998) reviewed teacher commitment and suggested that it should be examined in a wider scope rather than simply in the classroom. He divides the definitions of teacher commitment into four facets as described in the following:

1. *Commitment to the school as a social unit. This form of commitment creates a sense of community, affiliation, and personal caring among adults within the schools and facilitates integration between personal life and work life. Teachers who are engaged in this way care about and identify with their specific school, as well as with their profession and volunteer for extra work that leads to improvements in school climate and general functioning.*
2. *Commitment to the academic goals of the school. Teachers may be socially integrated, yet fail to create an atmosphere of high expectations. Teachers who are engaged with academics spend time working on lesson plans, classroom activities, and constantly think about how to improve students' engagement and performance.*

3. *Commitment to students as unique whole individuals rather than as 'empty vessels to be filled'. This form of commitment may motivate teachers to deal with students undergoing personal crises, or to be more sensitive and aware of adolescent development. It is believed to be particularly important for retention of at-risk students that teachers who care about their students spend time on extracurricular activities, working with counsellors or families, or other activities that help them to understand how to better motivate and support them. While this is typically expected of elementary school teachers, personal involvement with students at the high school level is often not viewed as 'part of the job'.*
4. *Commitment to the body of knowledge needed to carry out effective teaching. In schools, particularly within rapidly changing fields, teachers must be energised to access and incorporate new ideas in the classroom and curriculum.* (pp. 3-4)

Teacher commitment is complex and multidimensional. It is difficult to distinguish between 'commitment to school' as separate from 'commitment to teaching' as it relates to commitment to students. This phenomenon is obvious in studies by Woods (1983) and Nias (1981) who describe teachers' reasons for entering and remaining in teaching as relating to commitment to care for students as persons, or an enthusiasm for a skill and knowledge transmission, or commitment to a subject. Tyree (1996: 296) argues, therefore, that "*commitment to teaching reflects commitment to the school in as much as commitment to students and subjects. Commitment to teaching describes the real purposes of the organisation in which they practice teaching*". It is obvious that committed teachers will identify themselves with one or more of these factors. On the other hand, it would be difficult to identify teacher commitment without their references in the forms of their students and the subjects they teach.

By nature, teaching is a complex practice. The way teachers teach is not just a pattern of applying knowledge and skills, but "*grounded in their backgrounds, their biographies, social context, and in the kinds of teachers they have become*" (Hargreaves, 1994: ix). It is most likely that teacher commitment is formed before teachers take their first assignment and it is the source of their enjoyment in the teaching career (Culver et al., 1990; Chapman, 1983; Salancik, 1979). However, the initial commitment may change for better or worse, depending on the

experience teachers receive during their professional careers. In the study by Huberman (1993), the teachers tend to be satisfied with their classroom teachings and the factors contribute to their professional development. On the contrary, they find the changing environment, especially education reform, which conflicts with their core professional values, a threat to their sense of commitment.

One of the most influential factors affecting teacher commitment is self-efficacy (Rosenholtz, 1989; Ashton and Webb, 1986). It is the belief that the ability to control teaching practices and influence students' success contributes to the feeling of self-worth and professional fulfilment in teachers. Huberman (1993) finds that some teachers' sense of commitment and efficacy tend to decrease over the course of their careers through limited classroom relationships, qualities of school administration and poor relationships with colleagues. Nevertheless, these can be sustained by a strong sense of purpose, values and identity, and the conditions where teachers are motivated to work collaboratively to support and challenge each other for quality learning and student achievement (Helsby and McCulloch, 1996; Huberman, 1993).

Teacher commitment is a complex and multidimensional construct that links teachers to their school, students, colleagues, subjects and teaching in a meaningful way. Led by educational purposes, teaching is a unique profession in which teacher commitment is the core quality of their practices. Motivated by intrinsic or psychic rewards, teachers are aware of the needs of their students, in which professional developments are at the heart of their careers. Nevertheless, teacher commitment is contextually bound and subject to change over time. In order to understand teacher commitment, it is important to take account of teachers' identity and the way the environment impacts on it. As suggested by Ball and Goodson, (1985: 18) "*the way in which teachers achieve, maintain, and develop their identity, their sense of self, in and through a career, are of vital significance in understanding the actions and commitments of teachers in their work*".

5.3 Teacher Identity

Teaching is a values-led profession and teacher identity is a core source of professional meanings and values. It would not be possible to understand teacher commitment without

understanding his or her teacher identities. In this section, the complex nature of teacher identity, and the way teacher identities develop and change are discussed. In addition, how teacher identities relate to and influence their sense of teacher commitment is being examined. Finally, the discussion focuses on the factors which influence teacher identity and result in the changes on teachers' careers.

5.3.1 The nature of teacher identity

Beijaard (1995: 282) refers 'teacher identity' to "*who or what someone is, the various meanings someone can attach to oneself or the meanings attributed to oneself by others*". Teachers enter their careers and bring with them different attitudes, values, experience and expectations. This self-concept forms in them their sense of self-identity when they take on the role of teacher. This identity plays an important role "*as an organising principle in teachers' jobs and lives*" (MacLure, 1993: 311). At the same time, teachers have to adjust themselves to a school environment which may be consonant with their self-identity or at odds with their values. However, the way in which teachers construe and construct their work is not based only on their personal identity, but "*as the result of an interaction between the personal experiences of teachers and the social, cultural, and institutional environment in which they function on a daily basis*" (Sleegers and Kelchtermans, 1999: 579).

Teachers spend most of their time working individually with students, as they are the important source of reference and fulfilment in their careers. Teachers also feel the need to associate with their colleagues to share and support their aspirations and values. Nias (1989 and 1985) found that teachers used 'reference groups' as the mechanism to confirm their professional ideals and practices. They also used their identity as a point of reference in judging the behaviours and beliefs of others that are not congruent with their ideals and practices. Teachers tend to associate with those who support their self-identity and avoid confronting conflict attitudes. Occasionally, if they find it hard to communicate with peers, they isolate themselves. Teachers may have to adjust their frame of values and adapt to that of their colleagues, or they may have to change their group of reference or leave their workplace.

Ball (1972) suggests that 'substantial identity' is the persistent principle that organises teachers' works and lives, whilst 'situated identity' is dynamic and adaptive to the changing environment. Cooper and Olson (1996) argue that teacher identity is an on-going construct that involves continued interaction with the environment. That is, teacher identity is identified as 'multiple selves' which is the result of "*historical, sociological, psychological and cultural influences*" (p. 78). In this perspective, teacher identity is viewed as a complex and dynamic construct that change over time. It is a result of personal experience, grounded in daily life, and makes meanings through a process of social interaction. Therefore, both personal biography and social contexts are important parts in the constructions and reconstructions of teacher identities.

There are two main approaches used to explain teacher identity: humanist and post-structuralism theory. Humanism (such as Cooley, 1902) emphasises the consistent and unitary self that experiences little effect from context or biography. It believes in the ability of a person to form a defining system of concepts. The essence of these concepts is stable and develops over time through the subjective reflections of personal experience and interpreted feedback from others. As described by Nias (1985: 105) "*The self is a social yet reflexive product, shaped by the responses of others but capable of initiating behaviour and reflecting upon it.*" This kind of reflexive learning is important because it contributes to enhancing personal values, attitudes, behaviours, roles and identity. The ability to adapt to change, according to this perspective, depends mainly on reflexive learning ability. However, Mead (1934) argues that although the self is stable, it is a construct of continued interaction with the social contexts through language and social experience. The self is described rather as a process than something definite and fixed.

On the other hand, post-structuralism emphasises the multiple selves, the identities that change and shift according to different discourses. Identities are believed to be shaped and re-shaped through social interactions in particular institutional, social, cultural and historical contexts. The connection between emotions and self-knowledge is essential to the understanding of identity formation and changes (Zembylas, 2002). It is through the role of emotion that we know the world, relationships with others and the values we possess (Campbell, 1997). Thus,

this approach recognises the multiple meanings of teacher identity "*as it comes to be constituted through social interactions, performances and daily negotiations within a school culture that privileges emotional self-discipline and autonomy*" (Zembylas, 2003a: 109). It emphasises the role of emotion in the construction of identity and agency (one's ability to pursue the goals that one values). The significant role of emotion in this perspective is the ability to negotiate and provide the conditions for agential power to transform and connect to the changing contexts.

Teaching is mainly involved with 'emotional labour' (in terms of care and sacrifice for the love of teaching students) and this emotion cannot be separated from moral purposes (Hargreaves, 1998). Teachers invest their personal and professional selves in teaching because they care for children and feel responsible for their learning and achievement (Nias, 1999a). Absorbed in the 'ethics of care' (responsibilities for and relatedness to students), teachers tend to value moral rather than legal accountability to students. Teacher identity, as Zembylas (2003: 214) argues "*is at bottom affective and is dependent upon power and agency.*" It is through the examination of emotion which contributes to the understanding of teacher selves and provides the abilities for self-transformation. By understanding power relations and the situatedness of teachers' work, the complex and dynamic nature of teacher identity and agency are revealed. Through the discourse of teachers' emotions, teachers are empowered to expand a sense of their agency and overcome the feeling of personal inadequacy and powerlessness in teaching. These discursive practices help teachers to cope with their emotional needs, transform their professional quality and react to changes in a meaningful way.

5.3.2 Teacher identity and commitment

It is important to note that teaching is not just a technical business; it is principally a moral practice. Hargreaves (1995) gives two main justifications for this notion. "*First, teachers play the important role in the growth and development of students. They constitute the generations of the future. Second, teaching is a professional act that refers to the use of discretionary judgement in situations of unavoidable uncertainty. It is obvious that teachers need to commit to educational purposes. These purposes lead teachers to commit to their*

teaching and to their students" (p. 81). It is through committed to educational purposes that lead teachers to devote to school goals and dedicate to their students' well-being and growth.

Woods et al. (1997: 152) argue that "*teaching is a matter of values. People teach because they believe in something. They have an image of 'the good society'.*" Most of the teachers in the study by Nias (1981) embrace the role of teaching because they have the need to fulfil personal values and ambitions. Woods (1981) categorises teacher identity according to its strength of commitment into three types: vocational, professional, and career continuance. In other words, the degree of teacher commitment can vary depending on how teachers perceive themselves in the role of teacher. Nias (1989) reported that many primary teachers involve themselves in teaching so much that they can not separate their work from their personal lives. Such evidence suggests that teachers demand both personal and professional investments in their careers and these components contribute to form their identities.

MacLure (1993) argues that teacher identity is not a stable entity but as a result of social interaction and personal judgement. Although, on the one hand, local contexts and individual circumstances may influence perceptions of change, on the other, personal concerns, values and aspirations are employed as the means to judge and make decisions about the way teachers react to change. Beijaard (1995) found amongst secondary teachers that teacher identity relates to their school experiences. The interrelations between teachers' relationships and interactions with students, subject status and the influence of the school organisation and its structure influence teacher identities. Both good relationships with students and good performance in the school contribute to high stability, and a change in these cause instability in their careers.

Lacey (1977) found that new teachers use different strategies to adapt themselves to the particular school, namely, internalised adjustment, strategic compliance and strategic redefinition. That is, some teachers adjust to the constraints by accepting them for the better. Some may appear to comply with the authority but preserve their own beliefs and practices. The last category of teachers may engage with authority to pursue improvements and innovations. MacLure (1993) suggests that "*identity is a continuing site of struggle for teacher. Identity should not be seen as a stable entity -something that people have- but as*

something that they use, to justify, explain and make sense of themselves in relation to other people, and to the contexts in which they operate" (p. 312). According to this notion, it is most likely that teacher identity is closely linked with teacher commitment. It serves as a rationale for being a teacher. It provides them with teachers' professional meanings, explains their positions and justifies their actions.

However, teacher identity is culturally embedded, an opening and shifting process, which includes meanings, values and images of what it means to be a teacher (Sachs, 2001). The new policy which is opposed to the core values of teachers, leads to the professional tension amongst teachers. The literature shows that imposed change has been an obstacle to teachers' practices and has weakened their vocational and professional commitment (Helsby, 1999; Menter et al, 1997; Evans et al, 1994). Changing policy has a strong impact on teacher identity and deprives teachers of caring for students' needs, which results in perceiving professional worthlessness, decreasing teaching efficacy and deteriorating self-esteem (van den Berg, 2002).

5.3.3 Teacher identity and change

Teacher identity is observed to change over time because of personal and environmental factors. On the one hand, teachers' characteristics can affect their self-identity as they advance in age, gain more experience, and develop their status. Sikes (1985) argues that age and work status are the significant influences on teacher identity. According to Sofer (1970), it is obvious that individuals at different ages or career phases associate their life expectation with different statuses, hopes, rights and duties in their workplace. These variations contribute to their lives' meanings and link the individuals to their social lives at different life stages. On the other hand, the environment such as educational policy, school leadership, organisational structures and school culture may influence teacher identity.

Within the current education reform, teacher's identities "*are not stable but discontinuous, fragmented and subject to change*" (Day, 2004: 57). Post-modernity has caused the conditions of uncertainty in our society. This tremendous change "*has been reflected in the growth of economic rationalism and technicism, an emphasis on marketability, efficiency and attacks on*

moral systems, such as child-centredness, which appear to run counter to these" (Woods and Jeffrey, 2002: 90). In relation to these impacts, teachers might be said to be encountering the following dilemmas: "*1. The degree to which the self is unified or becomes fragmented, 2. Whether one appropriates the changes to one own concerns, or feels powerless before the scale and depth of the changes, 3. With regard to (who have controlled over) authority versus uncertainty, and 4. When the personalised (autonomy) versus the commodities (public accountable) experience*" Giddens (1991: 189-96).

Woods and Jeffrey (2002) observe how the primary teachers' identities in their study were affected by school reform in England. Before the change, teachers were described as having an integrated and consistent self-identity, based on humanism and vocationalism. They were free to apply the curriculum and felt secure to practise their profession without external intrusion. However, marketisation and managerialisation has led schools to new work orders, namely, the subject orientation of the prescribed National Curriculum, and new forms of assessment and inspection have challenged teacher identity (Ball, 1994). In this context, Woods et al. (1997) conducted a case study with primary teachers in England and found that teachers were not able to practise and realise their humanism and vocational values. The public accountability system decreased their self-confidence and led teachers to depend on the inspection system. Teachers were unable to practise discretionary judgement because of the emphasis on a series of competencies such as subject expertise, co-ordination, collaboration, management and supervision.

Under the new work order, change policies have challenged personal and professional core values of teachers and imposed them on the teacher's radical self. The easiest way for some was to embrace and conform to the new work orders as part of their professional identity. Some found it hard to conform to the new social identity and left their career. Some adjusted themselves to the new practice but still maintained their ideal selves. Nevertheless, despite the challenges, the majority of these teachers were working hard to maintain and generate identities that provided them with a measure of self-worth and dignity (Woods and Jeffrey, 2002). Through collaborative culture, teachers regained professional confidence, self-esteem

and professionalism in their work and were motivated to work collaboratively for the good of their students and the school (Woods and Jeffrey, 1997).

Sachs (2001) argues that the early definition of 'identity' is problematic and insufficient. It is a set of attributes that limit a teacher's view of their professional boundary and become stagnant. She described the old form of identity as 'the entrepreneurial identity', which can be referred to as individualistic, marketing oriented and competitive, authoritative, controlling and regulative, and externally defined. This kind of teacher is subject to external influences, such as the education reform agenda, school policy changes and the bureaucratic work systems. These teachers tend to have shallow relationships with their students and colleagues, limit their roles to their job descriptions, follow the bureaucratic rules and regulations, and rely on the national standards for their performance and rewards.

By contrast, in a time of rapid change, identity has to adapt to the new ideas that are more flexible. These can be characterised as "*negotiated, open, shifting, ambiguous, the result of culturally available meanings and the open-ended power-laden enactment of those meanings in everyday situations*" (Kondo, 1990: 24). This kind of identity is referred to as 'the activist identity' and based on democratic discourses (an emphasis on collaborative, co-operative action between teachers and other education stakeholders). Through democratic professionalism, teachers work collaboratively to enhance their professional quality and status. Activist identity is a focus on the broader purposes of education and can be described as: first, the open flow of ideas, regardless of their popularity, that enables people to be as fully informed as possible; second, faith in the individual and collective capacity of people to create possibilities for resolving problems; third, the use of critical reflection and analysis to evaluate ideas, problems, and policies; fourth, concern for the welfare of others and the 'common good'; fifth, concern for the dignity and rights of individual and minorities; and sixth, an understanding that democracy is not so much an 'ideal' to be pursued as an 'idealised' set of values that we must live by and which must guide our life as a people. (Apple and Beane, 1995, pp. 6-7 cited in Sachs, 2003, p. 131)

Teacher identity plays an important role in providing a rationale for understanding why and how teachers are committed to their profession. Led by educational and moral purposes, teachers are motivated to invest their personal and professional selves to care and be responsible for their students as well as devotion to work for the good of the school. However, teacher identity is observed to be inconsistent, fragmented, and subject to change over time. Identities are the product of personal biography, social influences, culture and institutional values which will be changed according to roles and circumstances (Day, 2004). Nevertheless, the ability to control this change depends on the ability to exercise teacher agency where culture is the key condition.

5.4 School Culture

To be a member of the school is to be socialised into the culture of the professional community. The individual teacher is bound to believe and behave according to the norms and values of the school. In this section, the meanings of culture in the school, how school culture forms and how is it formed by the school constituencies are discussed. The section examines how culture could help to foster and stimulate professional practices as well as to be a hindrance to teacher commitment. The discussion will focus on how school culture is developed to support the professional development of teachers and enhance school effectiveness.

5.4.1 The definition of culture

Schein (1985) defined culture as "*the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic 'taken for granted' fashion an organisation's view of itself and its environment*" (p. 6). Organisational culture is shaped and developed by its history, by its members, and by the conditions of its environment (Stoll, 1999). Thus, "*culture can be explained as the concept of a learned pattern of unconscious (or semiconscious) thought, reflected and reinforced by behaviour, that silently and powerfully shapes the experience of people*" (Deal and Peterson, 1990: 301). Organisational culture, then, is the useful perspective to understand what, how and why people believe, think, and behave in an organisation. "*In essence, it defines reality for*

those within a social organisation, gives them support and identity and forms a framework for occupational learning" (Prosser, 1999: 33).

Darling-Hammond and Sclan (1996) define school culture as "*the dominant ethos of the organisation, its values and visions, and the everyday experiences of members of the school community*" (p. 86). School culture is a term frequently used in the literature despite its being one of the most complex and important concepts in education. Prosser (1999) explained the wide use and various meanings of the term 'school culture' in the literature as being diversity "*due to the concept's analytic power in understanding school life, and because it offered, via ethnography, an accepted methodological framework. Nevertheless, despite culture becoming the predominant term there are few signs of conformity in terms of agreed meaning and application*" (p.7). This diverse meaning may come from the way scholars interpret school culture, based on their different assumptions. In the same way, the beliefs and perceptions of schooling are shaped by the roles people play as pupils, parents, teachers and academics.

Each school culture is 'situational unique'. It is characterised by its norms, values, and beliefs (Beare et al., 1989). "*The values and beliefs that underlie a culture are abstract and difficult to access by outsiders and are shared and understood by the members, and most likely immersed in them as a set of assumption which become part of their lives*" (Nias et al., 1989: 11). Nevertheless, MacGilchrist et al. (1995) argue that "*school culture is expressed through 'three inter-related generic dimensions': professional relationships, organisational arrangements, and opportunities for learning*" (p.4). That is, 'school culture' is observable in the way people in the school relate to each other; the managerial operation in the forms of school structures, systems and physical environment; and the extent to which there is a learning focus for both pupils and adults in response to the needs of teachers and students (Rosenholtz, 1989).

5.4.2 The nature and forms of teacher culture

Culture can take different forms. If we look at a school as the holistic culture, we may observe many subcultures in the school, such as student culture, parent culture, leader culture, department culture and teacher culture. Most of the research about culture has a close connection with school improvement or school development (Stoll, 1999; Hargreaves, 1995;

Rosenholtz, 1989). Teacher culture has received most attention in relation to school improvement. Hargreaves (1994: 165) defines teaching culture as "*comprised of beliefs, values, habits and assumed ways of doing things among communities of teachers who have had to deal with similar demands and constraints over many years*". In this sense, teaching culture plays an important role in providing meaning, support and identity for teachers' work. Hargreaves (1994) highlights four remarkable teaching cultures in secondary schools: individualism, balkanisation, collaboration and contrived collegiality.

Individualism describes "*habitual patterns of teaching alone behind the closed doors of the classroom, cuts teachers off from the possibility of feedback, promotes unaccountable autonomy and insulates them from direct criticism*" (Day, 1999: 79). According to Hargreaves (1994), individualism is the fundamental practice in a teaching culture. Even though there are many reasons to explain why and how teachers isolate themselves, the most important of these are the need for autonomy in teaching, and the way teachers care and are responsible for their students. As Hargreaves (1994) suggests, "*the power to make independent judgements and to exercise personal discretion, initiative and creativity through their work are important to many teachers*" (p. 178). Thus, individualism provides time and space for teachers to dedicate themselves to students' learning and in turn result in receiving psychic rewards (Flinders, 1988). However, individualism is insufficient for professional practices; teachers need to associate with their colleagues for professional supports and values (Hargreaves, 1988).

Collaborative cultures, Hargreaves (1994) argues, are characterised as spontaneous, voluntary, development-oriented, flexible across time and space and unpredictable. Collaboration and collegiality is the natural phenomenon of teachers' co-operative response to the demands and changes of the environment. Teachers form relationships between themselves to help and support each other in their work. It is the result of value perceptions amongst themselves which derived from their experience of enjoyable and productive co-operation. They work together to achieve their own commitment and goals. They agree to work together in their convenience schedules, in the appropriate places, for their professional development and for their student needs.

The literature agrees that collegial collaboration is the important practice enhancing teacher learning which bridges school improvement and teacher development (Hopkins, 1996; Mortimore et al., 1994; Rosenholtz, 1989; Lieberman and Miller, 1984). In addition, some empirical studies indicate that collaboration is the significant factor contributing to teacher commitment (Reyes, 1992; Kushman, 1992; Louis and Smith, 1991; Hansen and Corcoran, 1989). This kind of social-cognitive and affective nature provides teachers with opportunities to learn the content of knowledge, methods of pedagogy and receive feedback in order to monitor and adjust their behaviours, in a sense of collegiality or shared endeavour. Collaboration can help overcome uncertainties about the means and ends of teaching by providing opportunities to identify common goals and learn useful methods (Miles, 1981). As a consequence, collegial collaboration contributes to teachers' continued professional development, increases teacher efficacy and enhances their professionalism.

However, Hargreaves (1988) succinctly states that "*team-teaching, exploration of new methods, collaborative approaches to improve teaching, constructive collegial criticism of classroom performance - none of these things are fostered by the isolation and individualism of the existing culture of teaching*" (p. 226). Although both individualism and collegial collaboration are essential for teacher commitment, they seem to be contrasting with each other in terms of time, energy and engagement. In this situation, Hargreaves (1994) suggests 'elective individualism' as the best choice for teachers, as this allows them to control their choice to work individually or in collaboration with their colleagues. Thus, individualism should not be an obstacle for teachers' opportunities in professional development.

However, some forms of collaboration may not contribute to professional development and teacher commitment. Hargreaves (1994) indicated that collaborative cultures, where collegial relationships express principles of help, support, advice, planning, reflection and feedback as joint enterprises, can be converted into 'comfortable and complacent culture'. Collaboration may be the means by which some teachers "*used to secure their work through sharing resource, materials and ideas without reflecting on the value, purpose and consequences of what they do, or without challenging each others' practices, perspectives and assumptions*" (p.195). In secondary schools, balkanisation as a source of political power to compete for

promotion, resources, status and influences in the school leads to conflict and fragmentation in the school community. In such conditions, this places limits on teacher development and student learning, especially those beyond the norms and traditions of the group. It has become an obstacle to the promotion of broader professional development across the school.

By contrast, contrived collegiality is an administratively imposed and controlled form of collegiality. Hargreaves (1994) argues that under the conditions of contrived collegiality, teachers are persuaded to work together to implement the mandates of others, often policy-makers and school administrators. Instead of being empowered, teachers feel coerced into conformity. He remarks that the two major consequences resulting from this kind of collegiality are inflexibility and inefficiency. However, to improve contrived collegiality, administrators have to be sensitive to the various circumstances of teachers' work and lives. They should allow teachers to be flexible in organising their time, venues and co-operation with their colleagues. Nevertheless, the professional development employed by teachers themselves may not be sufficient to cope with rapid changes and current educational demands. Day (1999) argues that contrived collegiality, in spite of certain limitations, may be a phase of development which may facilitate better collaboration by providing teachers with further development opportunities.

5.4.3 School culture and leadership

Leadership is believed to be one of the significant factors which influences school culture and teacher commitment. Ashburn (1989) argues that school culture is one of the most powerful predictors of teachers' work, career, and organisational commitment, and leadership is a measure of the quality of the culture. Schein (1985, 1992) argues the possibility that the "*only thing of importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture*" (p. 2). It is obvious that school as a sub-unit of society has to respond to the changing needs and demands of society. Indeed, one of the important tasks for the school leader is to "*engage constantly in the continued process of stating and restating the vision of where we are and where we are going that coheres the member of the organisation in mutual purpose and resolve. The vision of a leader is always uplifting, pointing to new directions, calling for progress from 'where we are to where we want to be', and describing how we will get there*" (Owens, 1995: 128). However,

the success of the culture lies in the co-operation of its followers. It is essential that this vision is participated and accepted by the members.

Schein (1985) and Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggest that to build a shared culture, leaders' actions and the use of various organisational and socialisation processes are important. The leaders act to instil vision, meaning and trust in their members, build culture and commitment (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Through leaders' role modelling, social interaction, and variety of culture-shaping events, the organisation is transformed into an institution infused with shared values (Selznick, 1992; Schein, 1985; Burns, 1978). With regard to the organisational and socialisation processes, leaders can use ceremonies, traditions, and organisational and socialised ritual events as the powerful means to shape culture. "*Commitment to the core values and beliefs of the organisation may increase the probability that members will act in ways consistent with organisational purposes, work more co-operatively, collegially, and collaboratively with others who also share institutional commitments; and seek ways to enhance the broader problem-solving and effectiveness of the organisation*" (Peterson and Martin, 1990: 226). To some extent, through the processes of culture shaping, employees' commitment is formed as well.

5.4.4 School culture and commitment

Hargreaves (1994) emphasises the important roles of collaborative culture in the building of school vision. "*The responsibility for vision building should be a collective, not an individual one*" (p. 250). In the study of 'developing teacher commitment', Peterson and Martin (1990) found that teachers who participate in building the school culture tend to be more committed to teaching and to the school. They argue also, that school principals who emphasise a collaborative leadership style focus on developing clarity of mission, cultural cohesion through shared norms, values and beliefs, and reward systems that reinforce those cultural values which are most likely to promote teacher commitment.

Principals who support collaborative norms and encourage teacher development and work autonomy enhance personal and group commitment to teaching (Fullan, 1992; Sergiovanni, 1987). On the other hand, teachers who perceive school leadership as providing regular

creative feedback convey high performance expectations, involve teachers in participative decision-making, promote professional development and provide necessary support and material resources in creating the conditions for work effectiveness. This, in turn, increases their commitment to teaching (Blasé and Kirby, 1992; Rosenholtz, 1989). "*Principal supports (in terms of instruction) help to facilitate and confirm the teaching tasks, enable its effectiveness and therefore, enhance the teacher's sense of efficacy. This implies that an increased sense of efficacy is an outcome of more effectively designed work environments, and is a predictor of high work effectiveness and job satisfaction (commitment)*" (Louis, 1998: 5). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, beliefs in their ability to help students learn, is strongly and consistently related to teacher performance and to student outcomes as well as to teacher satisfaction and commitment (Rosenholtz and Simpson, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1985).

"*Culture is a way of constructing reality and different cultures are simply alternative constructions of realities*" (Prosser, 1999: xii). A school culture which supports collaboration and teacher participation in decision-making is strongly related to higher morale, stronger commitment to teaching, and intentions to remain in the profession (Weiss, 1999). In order to understand teacher commitment and the way it changes, it is important to examine the nature of teacher culture and the role of principals and/or school leaders in directing and managing this culture.

5.5 School Leadership in Changing Contexts

The role of school leadership is increasingly crucial on the critical path towards school effectiveness, quality of teaching and student achievement (Leithwood et al. 1996). In this section, I shall review some of the theories that are related to the school leadership. As leadership is considered to be a socially and culturally bound issue, current Thai educational reform and cultural contexts will be examined. Then, the role of school leadership which relates to teachers and their sense of commitment are discussed.

5.5.1 Perceptions of leadership

In spite of being widely used in society, the concept of leadership is 'slippery'. Leadership may be defined in various connected ways such as 'social influence processes'

which control the way in which work is carried out through maintaining greater influences over the group (Yukl, 1994). It may be viewed with the concept of 'agency' which refers to the formal/informal leaders, who initiate changes, create the appropriate conditions for changes (Gronn and Ribbins, 1996) and the facilitator who helps the group to achieve the desired outcomes. In an organisational function, leadership may refer to one of the sub-functions that work along with other functions to accomplish the setting of goals (Bess and Goldman, 2001). However, the common objective of leadership study is related to the process and outcomes of the leader's efficiency in terms of influence over a group or community, and goal achievement (Fidler, 1997).

There are volumes of leadership theory. The early perspectives focus on the narrow domain of leader's personal characteristics such as trait theory (Stogdill, 1974); charismatic leadership theory (Conger, 1989); leader behaviours such as the Michigan and Ohio State leadership study (Hemphill, 1949), two-factor leadership theory and leadership styles such as autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leaderships (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982; Likert, 1967; Blake and Mouton, 1964). The broader concept of leadership focuses on contingency theory, which assumes that the effects of one variable on leadership are contingent on the other variables. This concept of leadership is open to the idea that leadership could be varied depending on the situation (Saal and Knight, 1988). Contingency theory looks at the effective style of leaders that match the task or situation, and the followers' characteristics (Fiedler, 1978). In this notion, leaders need to analyse the component factors in order to exercise the best leadership styles. The leader may build the situation or change the component factors to suit the leader. As the study of leadership develops and progresses, the focus of leadership expands to the wider context. The broader leadership contexts are dominated by two major approaches namely, transactional and transformational leadership.

Transactional leadership is described as the leader and followers relationships being based on an exchange of services for the expected rewards that are controlled by the leader (Leithwood, 1992). Transactional leadership focuses on the aims and purposes of the organisation and guides the members to recognise these goals and facilitate their work to meet the desired outcomes. This kind of leadership emphasises working procedures, employs hard data for

decision-making, and relies on the administrative techniques for working quality and improvement.

In contrast, a "*transformational leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents*" (Burns, 1978: 4). According to Bass (1998), transformational leadership consists of four key components; charismatic or idealised influence instilling pride, faith, and respect; inspirational motivation through building and articulating visions; intellectual stimulation, which encourages problem re-framing and creativity; and individual consideration that creates learning experience and needs for development. Fidler (1997) argues that transformational leadership should be the prime role of the school leader, as schooling is a moral and value oriented institution and the nature of professional organisation. The head teacher has the role of the professional leader for the professional staff and students (Hughes, 1985).

Transformational leaders are characterised as critical, reflective, educative, and ethical (Foster, 1986). It enables school leaders and the community to be aware of the moral, values, purposes, and practices of the current schooling. The function of transformational leaders is to place emphasis on changes in the individuals and the social systems for institutional reforms. The vital role of the leader is to inspire the community to work together in pursuit of the better features of schooling, culture and practice. That is, the practical strength of transformational leaders relies on the ability to enhance shared vision and mission which result in "*higher levels of personal commitment to organisational goals and greater capacities for accomplishing those goals are assumed to result in extra effort and greater productivity*" (Leithwood et al. 1999: 9).

Through transformational leadership, teachers are invited to share visions and missions of the school, be motivated towards professional development, participate in culture building; and recognised to be part of a professional community (Leithwood et al., 1999). As a consequence, this paradigm demands more self-confidence, intellectual knowledge and social skills which

enable them to work together and build up a new working system. It also requires a climate of trust and the followers need to believe that their commitment and attention have potential, are worthwhile, and fulfil the institution's missions. In this notion, the learning organisation culture should be the important character of the schools where the nature of continuous change and complexity prevail (Senge, 1990).

In their studies, Leithwood et al. (1999) show that transformational leadership resulted in positive perceptions of the leader's effectiveness by the school members. The previous empirical findings elaborate that transformational leadership could affect teachers' psychological states. It influenced the teachers' sense of commitment, such as commitment to student, to school, to profession and to changes. It enhanced teachers' attitudes and behaviours towards professional development. It produced control pressure, the tendency for teachers to feel that they must adhere to central demands for orderliness, structure and satisfaction. It relates significantly to the willingness to engage in extra effort for the school, while weakly or negatively associated with most aspects of organisational citizenship behaviour. The results indicate that transformational approaches to leadership have both direct and indirect effects on student outcomes, although the significant influence is mediated through classroom practices and teachers' implications.

However, the concept of effective leadership is "*a contested notion and one that has to remain open to question, to challenge and to refinement*" (Riley and MacBeath, 2003: 179). Successful leadership is not as simple as following certain prescribed formulas or practising some particular set of skills. In fact, the concept of leadership is profoundly value-laden (Day et al. 2000), socially constructed and influenced by its cultural values (Dimmock and Walker 2000). Leadership is inevitably bound to the national education purposes, social and school cultural norms, ethical norms, personal attitudes and values and expectations, as well as the demands of the communities which change over time (Riley and MacBeath, 2003; West-Burnham, 1997). As a consequence, Thai educational contexts and cultural dimensions which influence schooling will be discussed.

5.5.2 The changing contexts in Thai education

Thai educational reform has evolved and developed from 1868 onwards, as discussed in Chapter Three. Although the underpin rationale for education reforms has varied, the current ideology for education reform has been dominated by economic rationalism. According to Lam (2000), although developed countries' policy is partly influenced by the New Right or Neo-conservative ideologies, economic rationalism or market-driven forces seem to be the prime influence on government policy and in turn affect educational reform. He noted that in the globalisation era *"under the structural transformation of the post-modern economic activities, coupled with intensified trade competition, the governments in the developed world underscore their political need to set the 'proper' agendas so that reforms will be implemented as planned"* (p. 350). This ideology has been affecting Thai policy as well. The assumption is that education should be the prime instrument for human resource development, which will enhance national competitiveness in the international free market (ONEC, 1997).

Influenced by globalisation, the current Thai education reform policy has re-contextualised schooling into the market culture. That is, "*education is regarded as commodity; schools as a value-adding production unit; the head teacher as chief executive and managing director; the parents as consumers; and the ultimate aim of the whole enterprise to achieve a maximum value-added product which keeps the school as near to the top of the league table of success as possible. Head teachers are therefore expected to 'market the school', 'deliver the curriculum', and to 'satisfy the customers'*" (Grace, 1995: 21). In these conditions, school leadership is highlighted by the policy makers to be the important agent for the school reshaping context (Hallinger and Kantamara, 2000). The increasing role of the head teacher in this context is the ability to operate the school business as efficiently and effectively as possible so as to earn prestige and gain market confidence.

Under the market-driven condition, school leadership in many countries including Thailand is encountering three common areas of dilemmas: administrative versus professional leadership; professional accessibility versus efficiency; and increasing responsibility versus decreasing authority (Robertson, 1998). Although both leadership and management functions are necessary for the success of the school operation (Bass and Avolio, 1993), the market policy

tends to increase responsibility for the managerial roles of head teachers, which result in decreasing professional roles. Increasing administrative tasks have minimised their pedagogical roles which are the main objectives of their profession (Robertson, 1998). This tension has now become an ethical conflict for them because they can not fulfil their professional obligation in spite of working for longer hours (Wylie, 1997).

The market culture deprived schools of major concerns with moral, spiritual, cultural, and human values, and brought in the ethos of managerialism, competition and benefits (Bernstein, 1990). As a result, many head teachers have encountered ethical dilemmas of competing values, demands, and interests. These head teachers are caught between the role of moral and professional leadership as against the new role of chief executive with entrepreneurial and managerial functions. The new role shifted from the professional relationships with teachers, students and the classroom, to focus on the interests of parents, community and business. In this context, head teachers have to pay even more attention to students' achievement and their learning outcomes conditioned by a managerial and market orientation. The new role of school leadership affected teachers' professionalism and therefore their commitment.

This new feature of school reform has become a similar phenomenon in most of the countries. Under the same principles, school reform in different countries may differ in content, direction and pace because of different contexts and cultures. The recent studies of education reform have noted the salient effects of Western and Eastern cultures as important for school effectiveness and educational quality (Dimmock, 2000; Walker and Dimmock, 1999). This calls for the awareness of researchers and practitioners of the way in which the school leader is shaped by socio-economic and political factors and a constant reminding of the condition where cultural history meets contemporary politics and globalisation confronts national identity (MacBeath et al., 1996).

The literature has emphasised the importance of leadership study based on the complex social and cultural nature of schooling. Grace (1995) argues that it is not appropriate to limit it to a technical aspect. It is essential to study it within cultural, sociological, and historical bounds. Bates (1992) and Greenfield (1986) pointed out that because school leadership is crucially

related to schooling culture and value, leadership cannot be understood without referring to the historical and cultural aspects of the particular society. It is therefore complicated and varies from one setting to another. It is necessary to review how headship is developed and shaped in the schooling context. However, a challenge with any empirical study is "*whether to present a historical account which provides a cumulative record (but which ignores major themes and cultural settings), or, on the other hand, to construct a culturally located and thematic analysis which may obscure the historical sequencing of the work*" (Grace, 2002: 80).

Regarding the comparative study, Walker and Dimmock (2000) indicate the necessity of employing societal culture as the lens through which to examine school leadership. They emphasised the need for its comparative and cross-cultural perspective. They assert the danger of limited context in understanding it by focusing on single levels and assuming a structural-functionalist approach (Dimmock and Walker, 2000). Guided by the growing needs for internationalisation, the policy makers and practitioners from many countries are adopting cross-cultural education policies and practices as the models and blueprints for their local education. This issue has contributed to the increasing need to understand effective school leadership in the particular context and culture.

Hallinger and Kantamara (2000) analysed Thai culture based on Hofstede's cross-cultural framework (1991) and observed it to be the significant obstacle to teacher commitment and education reform as authority compliance and social conformity limit teacher agency. The nature of high power distance between the senior staff and teachers assume that leading change entails establishing orders which will be followed and applying pressure in special cases where it is needed. The high uncertainty avoidance provides a strong tendency to seek stability and opposition to any form of change. The collective nature implies that personal behaviours conform to those of the social norms. Social and group references play an important role in clanging individual behaviours. Additionally, Thai feminine characteristic values social relationships, seeks harmony and avoids conflicts, favours pleasurable work atmosphere and resists changing.

Nevertheless, effective leadership is deemed to be an important factor for productive change and to reinforce teacher commitment. Schools as a social unit in a changing society need to find appropriate leadership to cope with this dynamic force in a more meaningful and effective way. Based on transformational leadership, the family democratic atmosphere (the social relationship that values and respects each other as family members and emphasises personal care and concern) and visionary leadership are employed as the strategies to enhance co-operation, collaboration and commitment to change.

Thai cultural analysis has indicated that the authoritative styles and social status of Thai administrators create a gap between administrators and teachers. To bridge the gap, it is essential that a family democratic atmosphere should be established to soften the social relationship between different hierarchical levels and to strengthen the teachers' status quo, the atmosphere, where teachers feel at home, willing to accept and share school responsibilities, and committed to school goals. In this atmosphere, the head teacher and senior staff are respected as the paternal bodies or senior members in the family, and teachers regard each other as brothers and sisters where trust, care and shared responsibility are common and school goals are committed. In the same manner, their students regard teachers as their second parents.

On the other hand, within the cultures of collectivism, femininity and uncertainty avoidance, teacher commitment is limited and depends on social norms for professional practices. Change is regarded as threat and innovation is rejected. However, the strength of this culture is regarded as encouraging common responsibility, pleasurable spirit and work continuity. In this situation, shared vision and mission are employed to enhance teacher professionalism and contribute to effective school reform. Visionary leadership is adopted as an important strategy which contributes to teacher commitment and school improvement (Peterson and Martine, 1990; Leithwood et al, 1999).

Shared vision and mission play the prime role of inspiring and motivating school members to act on behalf of the school. It is the source of meanings and motivation which leads the organisational members to exert their efforts beyond their personal interests. Recent studies indicated that shared vision and mission were the important strategies which commit the

educational community to school effectiveness and school improvement (Teddlie and Reynolds, 2000; Caldwell, 1998; Hallinger and Heck, 1998). Shared vision and mission are found to have a positive influence on problem-solving, decision making (Hallinger et al., 1993; Leithwood et al., 1992) and organisational learning (Caldwell, 1998; Leithwood, 1994). It even plays a more important role when the schools encounter changing conditions (Kotter, 1996; Senge, 1990).

Barnett and McCormick (2002) argue that the building of shared vision is essential to secure a sense of commitment in all the members and give meaning to what they do. The quality of shared vision is based on the collaborative culture in the school community, the one which integrates school and professional purposes towards the same goals. Its inspiration fulfils personal needs and develops a sense of ownership. Vision should be communicated through culture building and symbolic actions in everyday activities and interactions. A consistent and integrated leader's behaviour is an important model which communicates and articulates a clear vision. Teachers tend to link leader consistency with school vision when "*they demonstrated individual concern, used recognition and reward, shared power and responsibility, used the school's vision as the basis for decision-making and involved teachers, parents and students in processes designed to make school vision real*" (pp. 63-64).

Educational leadership is inevitably bound by education reform agendas and influenced by school culture. In order to lead effectively, it is essential that the right leadership strategies be employed to fit the schools' socio-cultural contexts. Within this situation, Day et al. (2001) propose the 'values-led contingency leadership model'. In this model, leaders emphasise a people-centred philosophy (a belief that the willing contribution for the organisation is a powerful strength for success) as well as school improvement orientation. The role of leaders is to enhance school goals through raising high performance expectation and monitoring the conditions which contribute to the continued professional development and community growth needs. On the other hand, leaders have to be aware of the internal and external factors that cause tensions and dilemmas. It is essential that they manage competently to cope with these changes.

5.5.3 Leading change in school

Education reform in most countries, including Thailand, has demanded changes in schooling. Leading change in school is increasingly complex and requires leadership capacity to enhance school quality that responds to the internal (school community) and external (social, economic, political, scientific and technological) demands and becomes meaningful to all the stakeholders concerned (Stoll et al., 2002). The rapidly changing environment and its complexity demand a paradigm shift in school leadership (Cheng and Townsend, 2000) which is appropriate to the school professional context. However, successful leadership for school innovation is complex and may contribute to support or undermine teacher professionalism and teacher commitment.

Sleegers et al. (2002) indicate that the 'structural-functional' approach has been the dominant trend in educational policy and practice, particularly in education reform. This perspective deems that innovation can be implemented through organisational by designed structure and functions. Control, economic rationality and contingency characterise a structural-functional perspective. It assumes "*a view of human beings as rationally functioning creatures who can be steered towards desired behaviours by organisational structures and management*" (p. 78). The aim is to set the patterns of behaviour and conditions for teachers to achieve the school's desired goals. Therefore, innovation success depends on administrators' ability to plan, manage and control change efforts which value the final outcomes of student learning as 'products' and regard appropriate school structures as essential to innovation support.

However, educational effectiveness is more complicated and can be partially explained by a linear system (input-process-output), where successful change processes vary under the influence of different contexts and situations (Reezigt et al., 1999). In fact, the characteristics of change appear to be unpredictable, evolutionary in nature and difficult to manage. Recent research studies identify human factors as the most important cue in the complex and uncertain conditions of current reform, including teachers' attitudes, beliefs and professional identity as well as the school culture. Such studies suggest that the teacher is the core factor for constructive change. They argue that a successful teacher's transformation takes time and demands a supportive culture, in which, teacher concerns are seriously addressed, uncertainty

is accepted as natural, learning opportunities are provided and open communication among teachers is encouraged (Louis and Miles, 1990; Elmore et al, 1996; van den Berg et al, 2000).

By contrast, the cultural-individual perspective of educational innovation is based on the concept of human relations, which emphasises individuals' well-being as well as the importance of mutual consensus and collegial relationships (Mintzberg, 1979). Professional development is perceived as meaningful for human capital (Smylie and Hart, 1999) and motivation is essential for commitment to change (Bandura, 1986; Ford, 1992). It assumes that professional development and work motivation are the key factors for individuals' innovative commitment. Furthermore, it suggests that the 'active engagement' and 'self-steering' for change in the nature of human beings is controlled by social influences and motivation processes.

From this perspective, change is identified as the process of active engagement and creative collaboration. School is characterised as a professional community, in which commitment to change and organisational learning is the key for innovation achievement and school improvement. This implies that teachers' expertise should be respected and onsite-learning is regarded as important for professional knowledge and skills. The role of leaders is to inspire change, stimulate involvement and support an innovation process rather than to control and direct (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000). This approach assumes that "*collaborative and participative management practices will unleash the energy and expertise of committed teachers and thereby lead to improve student learning*" (Rowan, 1990: 354).

However, the 'commitment-oriented approach' (the term used by Rowan, 1990), on the one hand, depends on the organisational structure which provides clear objectives, democratic work systems, incentives, and resources. The supportive culture, on the other hand, is needed to empower teachers' collaborative involvement in their work, engage actively in organisational learning and influence each other to achieve personal and common goals. In this notion, structural-functional and cultural-individual approaches are complementing successful innovation (van den Berg et al., 1999).

In line with the cultural-individual approach, Fullan (2001) proposed five key components for successful leadership in the culture of change: moral purpose, understanding the change process, relationship building, knowledge sharing and creation and coherent-making. These components are inter-related with each other and help leaders to understand and lead change more effectively. Change is a process which takes time, involves personal endeavour, needs internal and shared commitment, cherishes supportive culture and requires appropriate knowledge and skills. However, change in the educational context should be understood as in the nature of a professional culture which promotes professional values, contributes to professional relationship within the school community, facilitates a community of learning, and encourages creative solutions and ideas for student achievement.

As 'moral purpose' is a basic characteristic of schooling, the role of leaders is to foster moral purposes in the individual teachers across the school. It should be regarded as the basic motive for change and innovation. Teachers' moral purpose is reciprocal to the school's educational purposes. This meaningful connection commits teachers to the deeper objectives of schooling and builds up a network of relationships with the school community. This kind of relationship is necessary for professional learning and successful innovation. It is important to build a professional community where professional autonomy is defined as collegial support and interaction, enabling individual teachers to reconsider and revive their classroom practice confidently (McLaughlin and Talbert, 1993).

Within the complexity of schooling, the role of leaders is to identify problems, provoke change needs, compromise diversity and guide teachers through the differences toward the moral purposes and knowledge-sharing. It is through these processes that the community forms a better solution and internal commitment is generated. Effective change is based on the way teachers build and share their knowledge, foster moral relationships amongst themselves, and are involved in shared commitment to achieve new solutions.

Although education reform is regarded as a global phenomenon, changes in different countries are emerging and being approached in different ways. School leaders have a vital role in understanding the social and cultural contexts of each unique school to apply the appropriate

strategies for productive changes. Being a professional community, a cultural-individual approach is regarded as more appropriate for productive change and contributes to sustained teacher commitment. Although change is mainly a personal endeavour (needs, motivation, knowledge, decisions and commitment), sustainable innovations depend on the ability of leaders to justify the moral purpose for change, construct facilitative work structures and create supportive cultures appropriate for successful innovation. Productive change can flourish in the school where a democratic climate prevails, in which transformational leadership is the dominant nature of schooling, collegial collaboration is the norm and organisational learning is the culture. Nevertheless, in order to understand the complex life of the teacher, it is important to understand the complex nature of teachers' career life cycle.

5.6 Teachers Career Life Cycle

For many teachers, teaching is more than a career; it is a way of life. The recent studies of teacher career life indicated that career phases related to teacher commitment and its development (Sikes et al, 1985; Huberman, 1993). In this section, I shall review the literature of the nature of the teacher career life cycle in relation to teacher commitment. It will discuss how teacher commitment is developed and affected positively or negatively throughout the career lives of teachers. The literature reveals the accounts of how teachers work to develop their professional lives, struggle to solve their problems, and adapt and adjust themselves to cope with the changes in different career phases.

5.6.1 The development of teacher career cycles

Life history research in education has its foundation in the tradition of sociological research and career theories. Since the early 1990s, this methodology has played an important role in education research, to represent the shift from an assumption that the teacher is simply an instrument in the production of school achievement to a view of the teacher as an intelligent agent in educating children (Goodson, 1994). Thus, it is impossible to separate teachers' and students' personal lives from their school public lives and work.

The underlining motifs of life-span research of teachers' work and careers are explained in the following rationale. First, there is the realisation that "*the teacher is the ultimate key to*

educational change and school improvement" (Hargreaves, 1994: vii). It follows that reform efforts have placed teachers as the important key factors. Second, there is the recognition that the way teachers teach is "*grounded in their backgrounds, their biographies, in the kinds of teachers they have become*" (Hargreaves, 1994: vii). It is insufficient, therefore, to focus solely on classroom performance, teaching skills or the curriculum in achieving school change. Who teachers are as persons must also be accounted for. Finally, there is awareness of adult developmental phases (such as, Levinson, 1978; Sheehy, 1976), that people intersect with their work in different ways at different stages of their lives.

There are two major strands within the biographical study of teaching and learning (Butt and Raymond, 1989). The first strand focuses on teachers' personal understandings of their practices and the methods used to acquire this understanding as a result of a dynamic interaction between context and personal biography (Raymond, Butt, and Townsend, 1992). The second strand concentrates on teachers' work and careers (Goodson, 1992; 1994). In this approach, biography is used to understand "*the contours and dynamics of the professional career cycle of teachers*" (Huberman, 1989: 343). This approach is very useful to understand the professional and personal life of teachers and the ways in which these aspects affect teachers' growth and career development.

5.6.2 The models of teacher career stages

Most of the studies of teachers' career lives were concentrated on the teachers' initial career stage to the mature or stable stage of a teaching career (such as, Unruh and Turner, 1970; Katz, 1972; Gregorc, 1973; Burden, 1982). Later on, the studies on this area (such as, Huberman, 1993; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; and Sikes, 1985) have expanded their research from the initial stage to the retirement or disengagement stage of the teachers' career lives. Most of the researches on the teacher career cycle tend to describe and report changes in teachers' attitudes towards teaching, commitment to teaching, career development and career satisfaction.

Many of the studies of the teachers' career lives attempted to understand different stages of teachers' experience in their careers. The early studies were stimulated by the ability to survive

and adjust to a teaching career. These studies were synthesised with the work of Burden (1982) who characterised the initial teachers' career life in three stages:

- Survival stage (first year). Teachers were concerned about their adequacy in maintaining classroom control, teaching the subject, improving their teaching skills, and knowing what to teach (for examples: lesson and unit planning, organising materials).
- Adjustment stage (second to fourth year). Teachers were more knowledgeable about teaching and were more relaxed. They started to see the complexities of children and sought new training techniques to meet the wider range of perceived needs. Teachers became more open and genuine with children and felt they were meeting children's needs more capably.
- Mature stage (fifth year and beyond). When teachers were comfortable with teaching activities and understood the teaching environment, they felt secure and that they could handle anything that happened in their teaching. They were continually trying new techniques and were concerned with their relationships with the children and with meeting the needs of the children.

Some of the early important findings were the professional developmental needs and concerns of new teachers. The early concerns of pre-service teachers are their own survival in teaching as well as control, mastery of content and supervisor evaluations. For example, Fuller (1969) found that pre-service teachers tend to begin with concerns for self, and then move to concerns for the teaching task, and finally, concerns for the impact of knowledge transferring to the students. Stress in this period is great. Linked to adaptive career needs, were the opportunities to receive appropriate professional development at different career stages. Katz (1972) suggested technical on-site support in 'the survival stage', on-site assistance, access to specialists and the advice of colleagues and consultants in 'the consolidation stage', conferences, professional organisations, demonstration projects, teacher centres and professional journals in 'the renewal stage', and seminars, institutes, courses, degree programmes, books, conferences and journals in 'the maturity stage'.

From the mid-1980s onwards, the literature of teachers' work and career cycles has developed to include the full life cycle in a teacher's career. There are increases in the interest to understand the ways in which teachers look at their work and how they perceive various influences upon their careers. The studies at this level have more research significance and enable the teacher's personal and professional lives to improve and contribute to school improvement. There are many of these kinds of studies but only some of the relevant studies will be presented, in which Huberman's life cycle scheme is employed as the research framework. The following section will continue with the works of Sikes (1985); Fessler and Christensen (1992); and Huberman (1993).

Sikes (1985) conducted a qualitative study to examine high school teacher careers from the teachers' viewpoints. Reflecting on the teachers' lives, the study aimed to examine teacher careers from their own experience and to discover their views about their on-going development and identity. The study was guided by interactionalist principles. The focus of the study was on the crises in a teacher's career which might produce future problems, such as disturbing the teachers' sense of well-being and threatening work efficiency. In these situations, the way in which teachers coped with constraints; role management and school management were also included in the study. Levinson's (1978) adult development phases were employed as the framework of this work. The study emphasised the ageing of the teacher in the face of a fixed generation of students. She considered the career lives of a teacher in the following five phases: profession entry phase (21-28 years old), transition phase (28-33 years old), career settled phase (30-40 years old), stable phase (40-50/55 years old) and declining phase (50-55 years old or more). These phases characterise the lives of teachers and their professional development from career entry to the last stage of their professional lives.

As the summary of this study, six intrinsic critical phases within teachers' careers are identified as choosing to enter the teaching profession; the first teaching practice; the first eighteen months of teaching; three years after taking the first job; mid-career moves and promotion; and pre-retirement. In addition to the emphasis on the various teacher career development phases, Sikes (1985) has taken account of the ways in which teachers cope with problems and constraints that affect their professional and personal lives, such as critical life events, general

economic and social events, and organisational factors. They noted that teachers had increasingly used public strategies of group action for their goals; in contrast, they used private strategies for adjusting to constraints. Students and subject specialisation play important roles in shaping teachers' identity, rewards and satisfaction in the occupation.

One of the most thorough descriptions offered is Fessler and Christensen's teacher career cycle model (1992). The study is based on semi-structured interviews with 160 teachers across their career span. The findings indicate that a teacher's career cycle can be influenced by personal experience such as family life, positive critical incidents, crises, individual dispositions, opportunities for continued growth and life stages. The second major influence is characterised as organisational factors such as school regulations, management style, public trust and various school movements and changes. Finally, a teacher's career can also be influenced by social factors such as societal expectations, professional organisations and teacher unions. The model includes eight career phases: pre-service, induction, competency building, enthusiastic and growth, career frustration, career stability, career wind-down and career exit phase.

However, it should be noted that the career cycle is not unidirectional. Instead, it represents an ebb and flow with teachers moving in and out of positions in the career cycle responding to professional experiences. Each position on the career cycle represents a distinct set of experiences and attitudes. The first four career positions (pre-services, induction, competent building, and enthusiastic and growing) are characterised by high motivation, high task accomplishment, teacher identity formation, and particularly during the enthusiastic and growing position, a time of professional revitalisation.

The remaining four career positions represent the other half of the career coin. Each position signifies a diffusion of expectations about teaching and a decrease in career satisfaction. For example, the career frustration is characterised by feelings of frustration and disillusionment with teaching. This waning of dissatisfaction typically occurs at the mid-career life in which a teacher is frequently questioning self-worth and the worth of teaching. As the career cycle is not unidirectional, a teacher at the career frustration position could return to the enthusiastic

and growing position if the individual is revitalised through an appropriate professional development programme.

Huberman (1993) offers yet another iteration of teachers' career trajectories which is influenced by the work of Erikson (1963). The study describes how teachers' lives are ameliorated or constrained by the passage of time and the normal crises that are part of the social and cultural milieu. Huberman's model of career trajectories also has much in common with the work of Fessler and Christensen (1992). The work is based on the in-depth case studies of 160 teachers. Each career period is defined by the number of years of teacher experience and global attitudes at each career phase. In addition to the open-ended questions, Huberman and his research team used three standardised instruments, namely, Rotter's locus of control scale, a checklist of aspects of pedagogical proficiency and a semantic differential.

It is clear from the findings that the trajectories of professional lives differed for women and men and for teachers at different grades and levels of experience. At the same time, Huberman and his colleagues looked for common themes across the teachers' career life cycle. The summary of the common patterns are described as follows:

- Career Entry Phase may be characterised in two categories, either an easy beginning associated with a sense of discovery and enthusiasm and good rapport with pupils or a painful beginning associated with pupils, exhaustion, and trial-and-error coping.
- Stabilisation Phase involves stabilisation, associated with consolidation, relaxation with pupils and colleagues, effectiveness as a teacher and pedagogical mastery of basic routines.
- Experimentation and Diversification Phase refers to a period of self-doubt or reassessment of varying degrees of severity. For some, self-doubt was followed by a phase of serenity and affective distance. For others, this was balanced by external interests: personal, family or social roles and responsibilities.
- Disengagement Phase is generally characterised as experiencing a disinvestment or withdrawal state; nevertheless the patterns are quite varied. For some, there was a negative focusing or a sense of disenchantment, betrayal, and devaluation by colleagues

and a feeling of dissatisfaction with the state of schooling. Yet, for others, a continuing enthusiasm and openness.

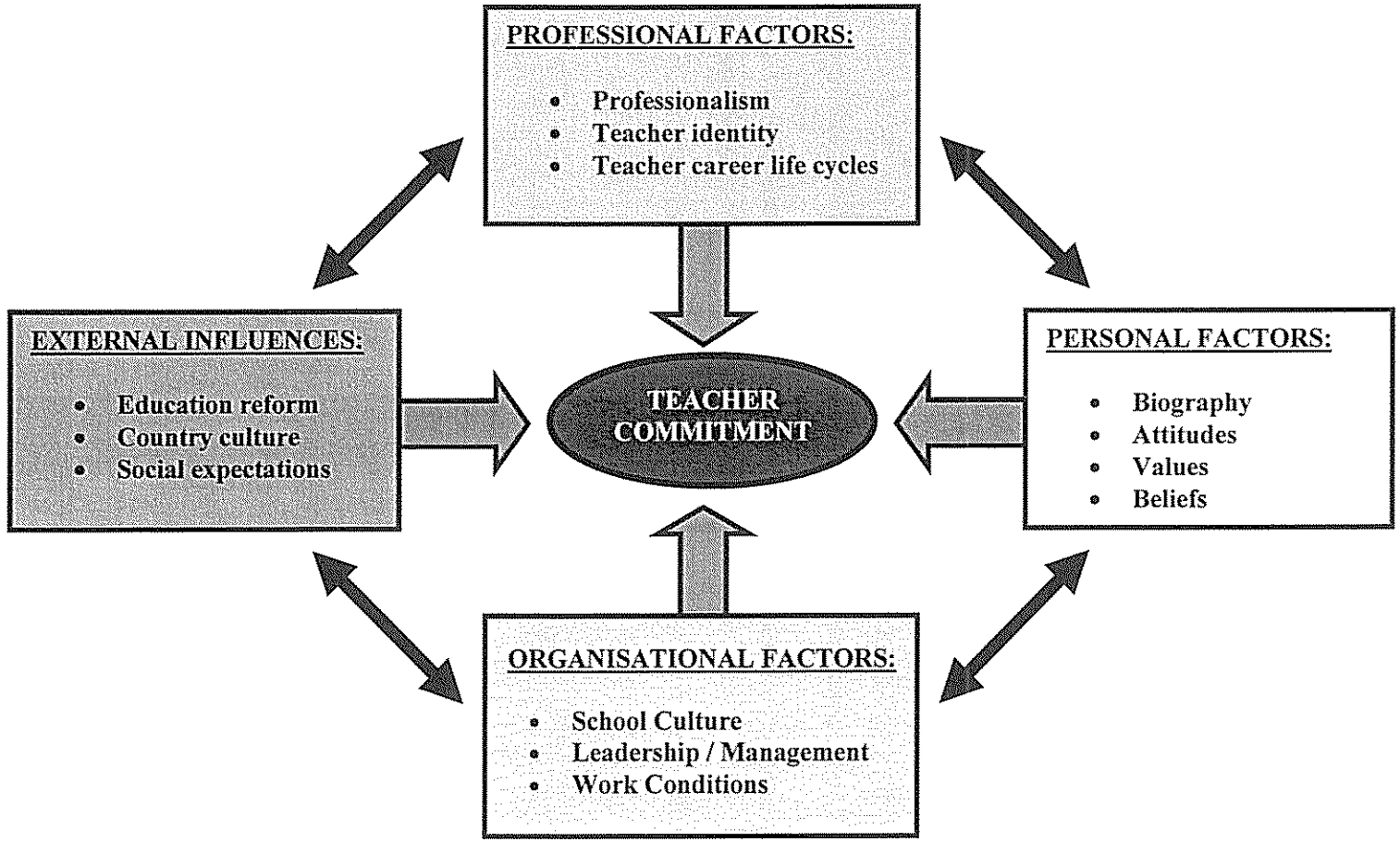
With Nias (1989), Huberman found relationships with students were central to the teachers' satisfaction, dissatisfaction and sense of development throughout their careers. This effect was especially apparent among middle school teachers and particularly women. Men appeared to place more emphasis on their careers than women, in part because women typically had outside investments throughout their professional lives. Men, therefore, had more uneven career progressions in terms of commitment and disillusionment. Women, however, had a more constant level of commitment throughout their careers.

Teaching is considered to be a complex career (Day et al., 2000). To understand a teaching career, it is necessary to understand both the personal and professional life of a teacher. It is essential to recognise school as a work place where organisational factors are the major influences on a teacher's career life. The teacher career cycle is a significant approach which contributes to understanding how teachers adopt a teaching career, develop their profession and react to coping with various surrounding influences. Finally, it is the career life cycle which reviews the nature of teacher commitment and explains the factors affecting it in the different phases of the professional life of a teacher.

In summary, teacher commitment is the essential quality of a professional teacher, which results in job motivation, professional development, quality teaching and learning, greater student achievement, job satisfaction and career fulfilment (Day et al 2005; Dannetta, 2002; Bryk et al., 1993; Kushman, 1992; Rosenholtz, 1989; Bryk and Driscoll, 1988). However, teacher commitment is complicated and may be affected by various factors which prevail in the personal attributions, professional conditions, school organisational environments and school external influences as summarised in Figure 5.1 below. In order to understand its complex nature, it needs to be located both in the school particular context and culture, in beliefs, values and sense of agency. These affect teachers' professional identities. Teachers' career life cycles also influence the development of teacher commitment as its nature is dynamic and subject to change over time.

In addition, it is important to note that external influences have significant impacts on schooling, more particularly teachers' lives and work, in the form of education reform and social culture. On the one hand, the impacts of reform policies are visible and encompass schools and classrooms more than ever. Schools are under pressure to cope with the demands of market and the standard set up by State, whilst trying to maintain professional objectives, ethics and practices. Teachers are restricted by the National Curriculum and unable to control their professional practices whilst succumb to public assessments. This has become the main source of dissatisfaction and burn-out as they are prevented from fulfilling their professional tasks and obligations. These are the dilemmas which challenge many teachers' commitment. However, it would be impossible to understand Thai private school teacher commitment without examining also the impacts of Thai culture on the school community. It is clear that culture has a specific role in providing personal and collective beliefs, values and norms which provide a unique framework for the ways people think, act and relate to each others. This in turn influences teachers' attitudes, roles and relationships, as well as how they respond and react to changes in their daily lives.

Table 5.1: Factors Influencing Teacher Commitment



CHAPTER SIX
ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

As a pilot study, 'teacher commitment questionnaire survey' was used to provide a framework for a case study. The objective of this study is to elicit the opinions of the SGF teachers about teacher commitment, the factors affecting it, and the perceptions of teacher commitment in different career phases. In this chapter, the questionnaire analysis is organised into five parts: questionnaire demographic information, general findings of teacher commitment, teacher commitment and changes, discussion of questionnaire data analysis and summary of questionnaire findings. The chapter begins with the personal and work profiles of the samples on which the findings are based. Next, the opinions with regard to teacher commitment conceptions, the factors affecting teacher commitment positions and in their various career phases are presented and discussed.

6.1 Questionnaire Demographic Information

A number of six hundred and sixty nine 'teacher commitment questionnaires: TCQ' were sent out to the teachers in the eleven Saint Gabriel Foundation (SGF) schools. There were five hundred and forty five questionnaires returned from the respondents or equal to 81.5 percent out of the total. The respondents were composed of 69.6 percent female teachers (369 respondents) and 30.4 percent male teachers (161 respondents). Adapted from Sikes' age group scheme (Sikes et al., 1985), the respondents' age are classified into five groups namely, entry (21-28 years old), transition (29-33 years old), career settling (34-40 years old), stable (41-49 years old), and declining (50-60 years old). The 'stable' age group was the biggest group with the proportion of 28.1 percent (150 respondents). The 'entry' age group was the second biggest group with the proportion of 22.9 percent (122 respondents). The 'transition' age group took the third place with the proportion of 21.6 percent (115 respondents). The 'career settle' age group took the fourth place with the proportion of 17.1 percent (91 respondents). And, the 'decline' age group was the smallest group with the proportion of 10.3 percent (55 respondents) as shown in Table 6.1.1.

Table 6.1.1 Respondents' age group distribution

Respondents' Age Groups	Frequency	Percentage
1. Stable (41-49 years old)	150	28.9
2. Entry (21-28 years old)	122	22.9
3. Transition (29-33 years old)	115	21.6
4. Career settle (34-40 years old)	91	17.1
5. Decline (50-60 years old)	55	10.3

The majority of the respondents' qualification was 'bachelor degree' with the proportion of 89.6 percent (480 respondents), whilst only 9.3 percent of the respondents' qualification was 'above bachelor degree' (50 respondents), and 1.1 percents of the respondents were 'below bachelor degree' (5 respondents). The majority of the respondents' marital status were identified as 'married' with the proportion of 50.8 percent (274 respondents), 'single' with the proportion of 43.0 percent (232 respondents), 'divorced' with the proportion of 3.9 percent (21 respondents), and 'widowhood' with the proportion of 2.2 percent (12 respondents) consecutively as shown in Tables 6.1.2 and 6.1.3.

Table 6.1.2 Respondents' qualification distribution

Education Qualifications	Frequency	Percentage
1. Bachelor Degree	480	89.6
2. Above Bachelor Degree	50	9.3
3. Below Bachelor Degree	5	1.1

Table 6.1.3 Respondents' marital status distribution

Marital Statuses	Frequency	Percentage
1. Married	274	50.8
2. Single	232	43.0
3. Divorced	21	3.9
4. Widowhood	12	2.2

The majority of the respondents or equal to 66.3 percent (356 respondents) earned their income between 8,001-15,000 baht per month. The proportion of 19.4 percent of the respondents (104 respondents) earned less than 8,000 baht per month. There were 13.2 percent of the respondents (71 respondents) earned between 15,001-20,000 baht per month. The respondents equal to 0.7 percents (4 respondents) earned between 20,001-30,000 baht per month, and only 0.4 percent of the respondents (2 respondents) earned more than 30,000 baht per month as shown in Table 6.1.4.

Table 6.1.4 Respondents' monthly incomes distribution

Monthly Incomes	Frequency	Percentage
1. 8,001-15,000 Baht	356	66.3
2. less than 8,000 Baht	104	19.4
3. 15,001-20,000 Baht	71	13.2
4. 20,001-30,000 Baht	4	0.7
5. more than 30,000 Baht	2	0.4

In relation to the analysis of the work characteristic, the respondents were composed of 56.4 percent of secondary teachers (299 respondents) and 43.6 percent of primary teachers (231 respondents) as shown in Table 6.1.5.

Table 6.1.5 Respondents' grade level distribution

Grade Levels	Frequency	Percentage
1. Secondary	299	56.4
2. Primary	231	43.6

The respondents' work experience and teaching experience in the present schools are grouped and classified into the following five career phases which adapted from the general scheme according to Huberman's career cycle (1993) namely, beginning (1-3 years), stabilisation (4-10 years), diversification (11-25 years), conservative (26-33), and disengagement (34-40 years). The majority of the respondents identified their work experience as 'stabilisation' and 'diversification' with the equal proportion of 36.1 percent (193 respondents each). The rest of the respondents identified themselves as 'beginning',

'conservative', and 'disengagement' with the proportion of 16.6 percent (89 respondents), 8.8 percent (47 respondents) and 2.4 percent (13 respondents) consecutively as shown in Table 6.1.6.

Table 6.1.6 Respondents' work experience distribution

Work Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1. Stabilisation (4-10 years)	193	36.1
2. Diversification (11-25 years)	193	36.1
3. Beginning (1-3 years)	89	16.6
4. Conservative (26-33 years)	47	8.8
5. Disengagement (34-40 years)	13	2.4

In relation to the analysis of the teaching experience in the present school, the majority of the respondents identified their teaching experience as 'stabilisation' with the proportion of 41.8 percent (225 respondents). The rest of the respondents identified themselves as 'diversification', 'beginning', 'conservative', and 'disengagement' with the proportion of 28.3 percent (152 respondents), 24.2 percent (130 respondents), 5.4 percent (29 respondents), and 0.4 percent (2 respondents) consecutively as shown in Table 6.1.7.

Table 6.1.7 Respondents' teaching experience distribution

Teaching Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1. Stabilization (4-10 years)	225	41.8
2. Diversification (11-25 years)	152	28.3
3. Beginning (1-3 years)	130	24.2
4. .Conservative (26-33 years)	29	5.4
5. Disengagement (34-40 years)	2	0.4

Finally, the respondents were classified into the following eight academic departments: 'mathematics' (17.7 %), 'foreign language' (17.5 %), 'Thai language' (17.3 %), 'science' (17.2 %), 'social studies' (12.1 %), 'career and technology' (9.2 %), 'arts' (5.7 %), and 'health and physical education' (3.3 %) as shown in Table 6.1.8.

Table 6.1.8 Respondents' academic department distribution

Academic departments	Frequency	Percentage
1. Mathematics	91	17.7
2. Foreign Language	90	17.5
3. Thai Language	89	17.3
4. Science	88	17.2
5. Social Studies	62	12.1
6. Career and Technology	47	9.2
7. Art	29	5.7
8. Health and Physical Education	17	3.3

In summary, the majority of the samples in this study is female (69.6 %), between 41 to 50 years old (28.9 %), with bachelor degree (89.6 %), married (50.8 %), and earned income between 8,001 to 15,000 baht per month. With regard to the work characteristics, the majority of the samples are secondary teachers (56.4 %), having work experience between 4 to 25 years (72.2 %), teaching at the present schools between 4-10 years (41.8 %), and belong to mathematics department (17.7 %).

6.2 General Findings of Teacher Commitment

This section presents the results of the general findings of teacher commitment according to the SGF teachers' opinions. Included are the reasons for teaching, teacher commitment characteristics, teacher commitment positions, the peak and bottom years of teacher commitment, teacher commitment reinforcements, teacher commitment obstacles, teacher commitment reactions, and teacher commitment maintenance or enrichments. Then, the general teacher commitment findings were summarised.

According to the analysis of the 'reasons for being a teacher' (See Appendix C 1.1), the respondents ranked the reasons for teaching in the following order: 'love of teaching' (35.0 %), 'love of subject' (27.0 %), 'social development' (16.1 %), 'love of children' (13.4 %), 'self-identification' (3.0 %), 'social status' (2.6 %,), 'financial security and benefits' (2.4 %), and 'long holiday' (0.4 %) consecutively. That is, the findings show that the SGF teachers tended to adopt teaching because they like teaching and love the subject they teach as shown in Table 6.2.1 below. That is, they tend to identify professional issues (teaching

and subject) as the core reasons for being a teacher and regard personal benefits as peripheral.

Table 6.2.1: Reasons for being a teacher in frequency and percentage

Reasons for Being a Teacher	Frequency	Percentage
1. Love for teaching	172	35.0
2. Love for subject	133	27.0
3. Social development	79	16.1
4. Love for children	66	13.4
5. Self-identification	15	3.0
6. Social status	13	2.6
7. Security and benefits	12	2.4
8. Long holiday	2	0.4

According to the 'TC characteristics' analysis (See Appendix C 1.2), the respondents ranked 'TC characteristic' in the following order: 'acceptance of goal and value' (51.2 %), 'membership' (10.4 %), 'involvement' (10.2 %), 'loyalty' (9.0 %), 'devotion' (8.0 %), 'identification' (6.0 %), and 'responsible for student' (5.0 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the majority of the SGF teachers tend to perceive teacher commitment as acceptance of the school goals and values as shown in Table 6.2.2. That is, they identified school goals and values as the umbrella characteristic of teacher commitment and viewed other choices as its combination.

Table 6.2.2: Teacher commitment characteristics in frequency and percentage

Teacher Commitment Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
1. Accept goals and values	255	51.2
2. Membership	52	10.4
3. Involvement	51	10.2
4. Loyalty	45	9.0
5. Devotion	40	8.0
6. Identification	30	6.0
7. Responsible for student	25	5.0

According to the 'TC source' analysis, (See Appendix C 1.3), the respondents ranked 'TC sources' in the following order: 'student' (34.1 %), 'educational value' (25.3 %), 'institution' (16.6 %), 'teaching' (11.0 %), 'personal value' (7.0 %), 'social value' (3.0 %),

and 'colleague' (3.0 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the SGF teachers referred to students, educational values and school as the important sources for their commitment as shown in Table 6.2.3 below. That is, they tend to perceive students as the core source of their commitment whilst identifying the factors which do not relate to students as the least important sources of teacher commitment.

Table 6.2.3: The sources of teacher commitment in frequency and percentage

Sources of Teacher Commitment	Frequency	Percentage
1. Student	170	34.1
2. Educational value	126	25.3
3. Institution	83	16.6
4. Teaching	55	11.0
5. Personal value	35	7.0
6. Social value	15	3.0
7. Colleague	15	3.0

According to the 'TC importance' analysis, (See Appendix C 1.4), the respondents ranked 'TC importance' in the following order: 'professional value' (46.5 %), 'academic achievement' (14.5 %), 'self-efficacy' (14.3 %), 'self identity' (10.7 %), 'works motivation' (10.2 %), and 'benefits and honours' (3.7 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the SGF teachers perceived professional value as the most important issue for their commitment whilst identifying benefits and honour as the least importance. That is, they tend to invest in teaching for professional fulfilment rather than extrinsic benefits as shown in Table 6.2.4 below.

Table 6.2.4: The importance of teacher commitment in frequency and percentage

Importance of Teacher Commitment	Frequency	Percentage
1. Professional value	227	46.5
2. Academic achievement	71	14.5
3. Self efficacy	70	14.3
4. Self identity	52	10.7
5. Work motivation	50	10.2
6. Benefits and honour	18	3.7

According to the teacher commitment positions analysis (See Appendix C 1.5 and C 1.6), the findings indicated the congruent perceptions between personal and school TC levels. The respondents ranked their 'personal and school TC levels' in the following order: 'moderate and stable' (32.9 % & 38.1 %), 'high and unstable' (27.4 % & 20.8 %), 'high and stable' (25.2 % & 19.0 %), 'moderate and unstable' (13.0 % & 17.6 %), and 'rather low' (1.6 % & 4.6 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the majority of the SGF teachers evaluated their personal and school commitment levels as moderate and stable as shown in Table 6.2.5 and Table 6.2.6. That is, the SGF teachers tend to perceive personal and collective commitment positions in the same manner.

Table 6.2.5: Personal commitment levels in frequency and percentage

Personal Commitment Levels	Frequency	Percentage
1. Moderate and stable	167	32.9
2. High and unstable	139	27.4
3. High and stable	128	25.2
4. Moderate and unstable	66	13.0
5. Rather low	8	1.6

Table 6.2.6: School commitment levels in frequency and percentage

School Commitment Levels	Frequency	Percentage
1. Moderate and stable	191	38.1
2. High and unstable	104	20.8
3. High and stable	95	19.0
4. Moderate and unstable	88	17.6
5. Rather low	23	4.6

According to the TC peak year analysis (See Appendix C 1.7), the respondents ranked the most favourable committed periods in the following order: stabilisation phase (47.9 %), beginning phase (36.4 %), diversification (11.3 %), disengagement phase (2.3 %), conservative phase (2.1 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the SGF teachers tend to perceive stabilisation phase as the peak periods for their teacher commitment as shown in Table 6.2.7. That is, the SGF teachers tend to achieve their highest commitment level during the stabilisation phase (4 - 10 years) of their teaching careers.

Table 6.2.7: The high commitment periods in frequency and percentage

High Commitment Periods	Frequency	Percentage
1. Stabilisation phase	204	47.9
2. Beginning phase	155	36.4
3. Diversification phase	48	11.3
4. Disengagement phase	10	2.3
5. Conservative	9	2.1

According to the TC bottom year analysis (See Appendix C 1.8), the respondents ranked the poor committed periods in the following order: beginning phase (41.8 %), stabilisation phase (28.8 %), diversification (19.5 %), conservative phase (7.0 %), and disengagement phase (2.9 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the majority of the SGF teachers tend to perceive beginning phase as the lowest periods for their teacher commitment as shown in Table 6.2.8 below. That is, the SGF teachers tend to experience the critical period during the first and the third years of their careers.

Table 6.2.8: The low commitment periods in frequency and percentage

Low Commitment Periods	Frequency	Percentage
1. Beginning phase	161	41.8
2. Stabilisation phase	111	28.8
3. Diversification phase	75	19.5
4. Conservative	27	7.0
5. Disengagement phase	11	2.9

According to the 'TC reinforcement' analysis (See Appendix C 1.9), the respondents ranked 'TC reinforcement' in the following order; 'management and leadership' (20.5 %), 'sense of respect' (19.1 %), 'collegial collaboration' (17.2 %), 'educational policy' (12.2 %)', 'development opportunity' (11.0 %), 'student behaviours' (9.7 %), 'personal value' (8.9 %), and 'reward and benefits' (1.4 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the SGF teachers identified school management and leadership, sense of respect, collegial collaboration, and education policy as the important factors that contribute to their sense of commitment as shown in Table 6.2.9. That is, they tend to perceive supportive

organisational factors that relate to their teaching as contribution to their sense of commitment whilst identifying the unrelated factors as least influencing.

Table 6.2.9: Teacher commitment reinforcements in frequency and percentage

Teacher Commitment Reinforcements	Frequency	Percentage
1. Management & leadership	101	20.5
2. Sense of respect	94	19.1
3. Collegial collaboration	85	17.2
4. Educational policy	60	12.2
5. Development opportunity	54	11.0
6. Student behaviours	48	9.7
7. Personal value	44	8.9
8. Rewards & benefits	7	1.4

According to the 'TC obstacle' analysis (See Appendix C 1.10), the majority of the respondents ranked 'TC obstacle' in the following order; 'management and leadership' (29.4 %), 'educational policy' (22.2 %), 'collegial conflict' (13.8 %), 'student behaviour' (9.7 %), 'sense of respect' (8.2 %), 'personal value' (7.6 %), 'development opportunity' (4.9 %), and 'reward and benefits' (4.3 %), consecutively. The findings indicated that the SGF teachers tend to identify school management and leadership, education policy, and collegial collaboration as the important factors undermining their sense of commitment as shown in Table 6.2.10 below. That is, they tend to perceive the organisational factors related negatively to teaching as threats to their commitment.

Table 6.2.10: Teacher commitment obstacles in frequency and percentage

Teacher Commitment Obstacles	Frequency	Percentage
1. Management & leadership	143	29.4
2. Educational policy	108	22.2
3. Collegial conflict	67	13.8
4. Student behaviours	47	9.7
5. Sense of respect	40	8.2
6. Personal value	37	7.6
7. Development opportunity	24	4.9
8. Rewards & benefits	21	4.3

According to the 'TC coping' analysis (See Appendix C 1.11), the respondents identified six ways to cope with their TC obstacles and they were ranked into the following order; 'conformation' (37.4 %), 'discussion with colleague' (33.7 %), 'hard working' (14.6 %), 'rebel against' (7.0 %), 'withdrawal' (4.1 %), and 'manipulation' (the ability to adapt and control over changes especially with regard to teachers' professional practices) (3.3 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the SGF teachers identified conformation and discussion with colleagues as the preferable means to cope with their commitment problems as shown in Table 6.2.11 below. That is, they tend to prefer compliance as the means to cope with their TC obstacles and looked at their colleagues to discuss and solve their commitment problems whilst perceived manipulation and withdrawal as the least preferable means to solve their problems.

Table 6.2.11: Teacher commitment copings in frequency and percentage

Teacher Commitment Copings	Frequency	Percentage
1. Conformation	182	37.4
2. Discussion with colleague	164	33.7
3. Hard working	71	14.6
4. Rebellion	34	7.0
5. Withdrawal	20	4.1
6. Manipulation	16	3.3

According to the TC enrichment analysis (See Appendix D 1.12), the respondents ranked 'TC enrichment' into the following order; 'continued professional development' (51.5 %), 'collegial collaboration' (14.8 %), 'Avocational activities' (12.3 %), 'participative management' (8.6 %), 'classroom research' (7.6 %), and 'political involvement' (5.1 %) consecutively. The findings indicated that the majority of the SGF teachers identified continued professional development and collegial collaboration as the most important factors to maintain their sense of commitment as shown in Table 6.2.12 below. That is, they tend to perceive professional development and working collaboratively with their colleagues as the means to maintain and enrich their sense of commitment whilst refer political involvement as the least preferable means to maintain it.

Table 6.2.12: Teacher commitment enrichments in frequency and percentage

Teacher Commitment Enrichments	Frequency	Percentage
1. Continued professional development	251	51.5
2. Collegial collaboration	72	14.8
3. Avocational activity	60	12.3
4. Participative management	42	8.6
5. Classroom research	37	7.6
6. Political involvement	25	5.1

In summary, the general teacher commitment findings indicate that love of teaching (35.0 %) and subjects (27.0 %) are the main reasons that underpinned the SGF teachers' careers. They characterised teacher commitment as acceptance of school goals and values (51.2 %). Students (34.1 %) and educational value (25.3 %) were referred to as the important sources for their commitment. Teacher commitment was regarded as the important means for their professional value (46.5 %). They evaluated personal commitment level as high (52.6 %), whilst viewed collective commitment level as moderate (55.7 %). They identified the stabilisation phase (47.9 %) as the peak period of their commitment, while perceived the beginning phase (41.8 %) as the critical period of their commitment.

In relation to the analysis of the factors affecting teacher commitment, the SGF teachers identified management and leadership (20.5 %) as the most important factors that contribute to reinforce their commitment. On the other hand, school management and leadership (29.4 %) were also identified as the most important obstacles that undermined their commitment. They preferred compliance (37.4 %) to change policies and discussion with colleagues (33.7 %) as the means to cope with their TC obstacles and continued professional development (51.5 %) was referred to as the most important means for their TC maintenance and enrichment.

6.3 Teacher Commitment and Changes

In this section, the factors affecting teachers' commitment positions and their sense of commitment in different career phases are analysed and examined. The correlation analysis showed that teacher commitment was bound to be affected and changed over time. Frequency, percentage, chi-square test, and contingency coefficient are the statistics

employed in these analyses. The findings contribute to understand its dynamic nature and the way teachers perceived their teacher commitment in the different phases of their careers.

6.3.1 Teacher commitment and the affective factors

According to the correlation analysis on 'personal TC position' and the respondents' personal and work characteristics, only academic departments were found to have significant correlation with 'personal TC level' belong' [χ^2 .028 (28) = 24.013, C = 0.289] (See Appendix C 2.1). However, the result indicated weak correlation between them. That is, the majority of the respondents who belong to the following departments; 'health and physical education' (53.3 %), 'career and technology' (40.5 %), 'foreign language' (37.2 %), 'Thai language' (35.3 %), 'science' (33.3 %), and 'arts' (32.1 %) departments evaluated their commitment as 'moderate and stable', whereas, those teachers who belonged to 'social studies' (38.6 %) and 'mathematics' (30.6 %) departments evaluated their commitment as 'high and stable'.

According to the analysis on 'personal TC level' and the TC related factors (See Appendix C 2.2-2.8), there was a significant correlation between 'personal TC levels' and 'reason for being a teacher' [χ^2 .000 (18) = 95.730, C = 0.412], 'TC importance' [χ^2 .015 (20) = 36.189, C = 0.269], 'TC source' [χ^2 .001 (24) = 52.502, C = 0.315], 'school TC level' [χ^2 .000 (16) = 222.055, C = 0.562], 'TC obstacle' [χ^2 .043 (28) = 42.028, C = 0.287], 'TC reinforcement' [χ^2 .031 (28) = 43.462, C = 0.291], and 'TC enrichment' [χ^2 .046 (20) = 31.773, C = 0.253] as shown in Table 6.3.1 below. However, it should be noted that, only the 'school TC level' was found to have moderate correlation with the 'personal TC level'. That is, the way teachers perceived collective TC levels have only moderate impacts on their personal TC level.

In relation to the correlation between 'personal TC level' and 'reason for being a teacher', most of the 'personal TC levels' found to correlate significantly with 'love of teaching' as the important 'reason of being teacher' (moderate and stable = 34.0 %, 'high but unstable' = 27.1 %, high and stable' = 47.5 %, and 'moderate but unstable' = 28.8 %), whereas, the low committed teachers perceived 'love of subject' as 'reason of being a teacher' (57.1 %).

Table 6.3.1: Personal commitment levels by rank and the significant correlations

Related Factors / Personal TC Levels	School TC Level (C=0.56)	Reason for Teaching (C=0.41)	TC Importance (C=0.26)	TC Source (C=0.32)	TC Obstacle (C=0.29)	TC Reinforcement (C=0.29)	TC Enrichment (C=0.25)
1. Moderate and stable (32.9 %)	Moderate and Stable (68.3%)	Love of teaching (34.0%)	Prof-value (43.7%)	Student (35.0%)	Management & leadership (27.3%)	Sense of respect Collaboration (23.1%)	CPD (48.4%)
2. High but unstable (27.4 %)	High but unstable (37.4%)	Love of teaching (27.1%)	Prof-value (45.2%)	Student (42.0%)	Management & leadership (39.7%)	Management & leadership (23.3%)	CPD (58.5%)
3. High and stable (25.2 %)	High and stable (48.8%)	Love of teaching (47.5%)	Prof-value (56.7%)	Student (33.6%)	Management & leadership (22.4%)	Sense of respect (22.9%)	CPD (56.6%)
4. Moderate but unstable (13.0 %)	Moderate but unstable (45.0%)	Love of teaching (28.8%)	Prof-value (37.5%)	Ed-value (36.1%)	Management & leadership (33.9%)	Management & leadership (25.9%)	CPD (43.3%)
5. Rather low (1.6 %)	High but unstable Moderate & stable (42.9%)	Love of subject (57.1%)	Work motivation Self-identity (33.3%)	Ed-value (62.5%)	Personal value (42.9%)	Personal value (37.5%)	CPD Politic involvement (28.6%)

In relation to the correlation between 'personal TC levels' and 'TC importance', the analysis indicated that all of the 'personal TC levels' identified teacher commitment as meaningful for their 'professional value' (moderate and stable = 43.7 %, 'high but unstable' = 45.2 %, 'high and stable' = 56.7 %, and 'moderate but unstable' = 37.5 %). Whereas, the low committed teachers perceived 'work motivation' and 'self-identity' (33.3 %) as the goals of their teacher commitment.

In relation to the correlation between 'personal TC level' and 'TC source', the majority of the committed teachers identified students as the most important source of their commitment. The respondents who evaluated 'personal TC level' as 'moderate and stable', 'high but unstable', 'high and stable' identified 'students' as the important source for their commitment (35.0 %, 42.0 %, and 33.6 %). Those who evaluated 'personal TC level' as 'moderate but unstable' and 'rather low' identified 'educational value' as the important sources for their commitment (36.1 % and 62.5 %).

In relation to the correlation between 'personal TC level' and 'school TC level', the analysis indicated that most of the respondents tend to identify both teacher commitment levels in the same manner (high and stable = 48.8 %, high but unstable = 37.4 %, moderate and stable = 68.3 %, moderate but unstable = 45.0 %), whereas, the low committed teachers perceived 'school TC level' as both 'high but unstable' and 'moderate and stable' (42.9 %).

In relation to the correlation between 'personal TC level' and 'TC obstacle', most of the 'personal TC level' ('moderate and stable' = 27.3 %, high but unstable = 39.7 %, high and stable = 22.4 %, and moderate but unstable = 33.9 %) identified 'management and leadership' as the important obstacle for their teacher commitment, whereas, the low committed teachers perceived 'personal value' as the important obstacle for their commitment (42.9 %).

In relation to the correlation between 'personal TC level' and 'TC reinforcement', the majority of the committed teachers identified school management, sense of respect and collegial collaboration as the most important factors contribute to their commitment. The respondents who evaluated 'personal TC level' as 'moderate and stable' identified 'sense of respect' and 'collegial collaboration' as the important factors for their 'TC

reinforcements' (23.1 %). Those who evaluated 'personal TC level' as 'high but unstable' and 'moderate but unstable' identified 'management and leadership' as the important factors for their 'TC reinforcements' (23.3 % and 25.9 %). Those who evaluated 'personal TC level' as 'high and stable' identified 'sense of respect' as the important factors for their 'TC reinforcement' (22.9 %), whereas, the low committed teachers perceived 'personal value' as the important factors for their 'TC reinforcement' (37.5 %).

In relation to the correlation between 'personal TC level' and 'TC enrichment', all the 'personal TC level' identified 'continued professional development' as the important factors for their 'TC enrichment' (moderate and stable = 48.4 %, 'high but unstable' = 58.5 %, 'high and stable' = 56.6 %, and 'moderate but unstable' = 43.3 %), whereas, the low committed teachers perceived 'continued professional development', 'political involvement' and 'avocation activities' as the important factors for their 'TC enrichment' (28.6 %).

In summary, the findings indicate that teacher's academic departments, school TC levels, reasons for being a teacher, TC sources, TC importance, TC obstacles, TC reinforcements, and TC enrichments have significant influences on teacher commitment positions. In this study, the majority of the SGF teachers perceived their personal position as moderate and stable. They belonged to the Thai language, foreign language, arts, science, career and technology, and health and physical education departments. They identified 'love of teaching' as the important 'reason of being a teacher', viewed teacher commitment as important for their 'professional value', and referred 'students' as the most important source for their commitment. They evaluated collective commitment levels as moderate and stable, perceived 'management and leadership' as the most important 'TC obstacle', viewed 'sense of respect' and 'collegial collaboration' as the most important factors for their 'TC reinforcement', and identified 'continued professional development' as important for their 'TC enrichment'.

However, the analysis indicates that although the SGF teachers' commitment positions found to have significant correlation with academic departments, school TC levels, reasons for being teacher, TC sources, TC importance, TC reinforcements, and TC obstacles, only the collective TC levels (C = 0.56) and the reasons for being a teacher (C = 0.41) were found to correlate moderately with the perceptions of their commitment positions, the rests

were having weak influences. That is, the way teachers perceived their collective teacher commitment and the reasons underpinned their careers had moderate influence on their personal commitment positions.

6.3.2 Teacher commitment in different career phases

According to the correlation analysis on 'teachers' work experience' and the related factors (See Appendix C 3.1-3.6), only the following indicated significant correlation; 'TC source' [χ^2 .030 (24) = 38.592, C = 0.269], 'school TC level' [χ^2 .046 (16) = 26.607, C = 0.226], 'TC peak year' [χ^2 .000 (16) = 187.893, C = 0.556], 'TC bottom year' [χ^2 .000 (16) = 167.455, C = 0.553], 'TC obstacle' [χ^2 .002 (28) = 55.003, C = 0.320], and 'TC reinforcement' [χ^2 .000 (28) = 64.007, C = 0.341] as shown in Table 6.3.2 below. However, the findings indicated that only 'TC bottom year' and 'TC peak year' were found to have only a moderate correlation with 'teacher work experience'. That is, the previous positive and negative commitment experiences tend to have moderate effects on teacher commitment perceptions in different career phases.

In relation to the correlation between 'work experience' and 'TC source', the stabilised teachers, the diversified teachers and the conservative teachers tend to identify 'students' as the most important source for their commitment (36.0 %, 34.3 %, and 43.2 %). Collate from these phases, the beginning teachers and the disengaged teachers identified 'educational value' as the important source for their commitment (32.5 % and 58.3 %).

In relation to the correlation between 'work experience' and 'school TC level', the stabilised teachers, the diversified teachers, the beginning teachers and the conservative teachers identified collective TC level as 'moderate and stable' (34.8 %, 38.3 %, 45.7 %, and 40.9 %). Collocate from these phases, the disengaged teachers identified their collective TC levels as both 'moderate and stable' and 'moderate but unstable' (30.8 %).

In relation to the correlation between 'work experience' and 'TC peak years', the stabilised teachers and the beginning teachers identified the 'beginning phase' as the peak year (54.7 % and 76.7 %) of their teacher commitment. The diversification teachers and the conservative teachers identified the 'stabilisation phase' as the peak year (64.5 % and 55.3%). The disengaged teachers identified the 'stabilization phase' and 'diversification phases' as the peak periods of their commitment (30.0 %).

Table 6.3.2: Teachers' career phases by rank and the significant correlations

Related Factors / Work Experience	TC Source (C = 0.27)	School TC level (C = 0.23)	TC Peak Year (C = 0.56)	TC Bottom Year (C = 0.55)	TC Reinforcement (C = 0.34)	TC Obstacle (C = 0.32)
1. Stabilisation (28.8 %)	Student (36.0 %)	Moderate and stable (34.8 %)	Beginning (54.7 %)	Beginning (51.3 %)	Mgt & leadership Sense of respect (20.6 %)	Mgt & leadership (28.1 %)
2. Diversification (28.8 %)	Student (34.3 %)	Moderate and stable (38.3 %)	Stabilisation (64.5 %)	Diversification (35.8 %)	Mgt & leadership (27.0 %)	Mgt & leadership (36.6 %)
3. Beginning (13.3 %)	Educational value (32.5 %)	Moderate and stable (45.7 %)	Beginning (76.7 %)	Beginning (79.6 %)	Sense of respect (22.0 %)	Collegial conflict (23.4 %)
4. Conservative (7.0 %)	Student (43.2 %)	Moderate and stable (40.9 %)	Stabilisation (55.3 %)	Diversification (47.1 %)	Collegial collaboration (33.3 %)	Ed-policy changed (36.4 %)
5. Disengagement (1.9 %)	Educational value (58.3 %)	Moderate and stable Moderate but unstable (30.8 %)	Stabilisation Diversification (30.0 %)	Diversification Disengagement (33.3 %)	Sense of respect (66.7 %)	Student behaviour (33.3 %)

In relation to the correlation between 'work experience' and 'TC bottom years', the majority of the stabilised teachers and the beginning teachers identified the 'beginning phase' as the critical period (51.3 % and 79.6 %) of their teacher commitment. The diversified teachers and the conservative teachers identified the 'diversification phase' as the critical period (35.8 % and 47.1 %) of their teacher commitment. The disengaged teachers identified both the 'diversification' and 'disengagement' phases as the critical periods of their teacher commitment (33.3 %).

In relation to the correlation between 'work experience' and 'TC reinforcement', the stabilised teachers perceived 'management and leadership' and 'sense of respect' as the important factors for their 'TC reinforcement' (20.6 %). The diversified teachers perceived 'management and leadership' as the important factors for their 'TC reinforcement' (27.0 %). The beginning teachers and the disengaged teachers perceived 'sense of respect' as the important factors for their 'TC reinforcement' (22.0 % and 66.7 %). The conservative teachers perceived 'collegial collaboration' as the most important factor for their 'TC reinforcement' (33.3 %).

In relation to the correlation between 'work experience' and 'TC obstacle', the stabilised teachers and the diversified teachers perceived 'management and leadership' as the most important factors for their 'TC obstacle' (28.1 % and 36.6 %). The beginning teachers perceived 'collegial conflict' as the important factor for their 'TC obstacle' (23.4 %). The conservative teachers perceived 'educational policy' as the important factors for their 'TC obstacle' (36.4 %). The disengaged teachers perceived 'student behaviours' as the important factor for their 'TC obstacle' (33.3 %).

In summary, the findings indicate that teachers in different work experiences or career phases found to have significant influence with TC sources, collective TC levels, TC peak years, TC bottom years, TC reinforcements, and TC obstacles differently. With regard to teacher commitment conception, the teachers in all career phases identified collective commitment levels in the same manner and perceived the previous phases as the satisfied experience for their sense of commitment, whilst the beginning and diversification phases were viewed as the critical periods for their commitment. The stabilised, diversified and conservative teachers identified students as the main source of teacher commitment, whilst

the beginning and disengaged teachers indicated educational values as the source of their commitment.

In relation to the analysis of the factors affecting teacher commitment, teachers in different phases tend to have different emphasis on TC obstacles and TC reinforcements. The stabilised and diversified teachers tend to identify school management and leadership as the important factors undermining their commitment, whilst the beginning, conservative, and disengaged teachers viewed collegial conflict, educational policy and students' behaviour as the main factors undermined their commitment consecutively. In relation to the factors supporting teacher commitment, the beginning and the disengaged teachers identified sense of respect as the important factors contributed to their commitment, whilst the stabilised, diversified and conservative teachers viewed school leadership and management, sense of respect, collegial collaboration as the important factors reinforcing their commitment.

However, the analysis indicates that, although teachers' work experience found to have significant correlation with TC sources, school TC levels, TC peak years, TC bottom years, TC reinforcements, and TC obstacles; most of the correlations appeared to produce weak results, only TC peak year and TC bottom year were found to have moderate correlation with teacher work experiences. That is, the previous positive and negative work experience tend to relate moderately with the way teachers perceive their teacher commitment in different career phases.

6.4 Discussion of Questionnaire Data Analysis

In this section, the results of the survey analysis are discussed. The discussion begins with the overview of the general findings of the SGF teachers' commitment. The discussion focuses on the factors affecting teacher commitment and the way teachers perceived their dynamic commitment in different career phases. The analysis would contribute to the understanding of the changes in teacher commitment and the significant factors which influence it. Finally, the discussion concludes with a summary.

6.4.1 General findings of teacher commitment

The general findings of teacher commitment indicate that the committed teachers, according to the SGF teachers' opinions, were described as having positive motives for

their teaching career, devoting to the school goals and values, upholding professional values as their work principals and referred to students as the main source of their commitment. These teachers tended to identify school management and leadership, sense of respect and collegial collaboration as the important factors affecting their sense of commitment. Nevertheless, within the collectivist and power distance culture, teachers tend to comply with the policy changes and seek consultations from their colleagues. However, teachers tend to agree that continued professional development and collegial collaboration were the important factors which contribute to maintain and enrich their commitment.

Teacher commitment is closely associated with teacher professionalism. The committed teachers tend to embrace teaching because of the love of teaching. They took professional values as the principal of their career and dedicated to work for the well being and learning achievement of their students. As a consequence, they valued superiors' support, the sense of respect, collegial collaboration and professional development as the support to improve their professional practises. In this perspective, the committed teachers viewed active involvements with their colleagues and widely participation in the school functions as essential for teacher commitment as well. That is, in addition to their professionalism, they also regard commitment as accepting the school goals and values.

6.4.2 Teacher commitment and changes

In order to understand the way teacher commitment changes, the study looked at the perceptions of teacher commitment positions and the factors affecting it (See Section 6.3.1). According to this study, the analysis identified the committed teachers as ones who perceived personal and collective commitment in the same level. They were characterised as having love of teaching, upholding professional values, and identified students as the core source of their commitment. School management and leadership as well as sense of respect were the critical factors affecting their sense of commitment. They relied on continued professional development as the important means to maintain their commitment.

On the other hand, the low committed teachers were those who did not focus their career interests in the professionalism and looked for job satisfaction outside the classroom. These teachers were identified as ones who perceived personal and collective commitment levels in different ways. They were characterised as love of subject, valued work motivation and personal identity, and took educational values as the source of their commitment. Personal

values were regarded as the important factors that affected their commitment. They relied on political involvement as the means to maintain their sense of teacher commitment.

The analysis of 'TC positions' confirms that teacher commitment and teacher professionalism are closely related. That is, the committed teachers are those, who identified with the school goals and values, hold on to professional values, find satisfaction in teaching students, valued sense of respect and sustain their commitment in the opportunities for continued professional development. In this condition, it is obvious that the perceptions of teacher commitment may change according to the kind of their career conceptions and the organisational circumstances or the conditions affecting these conceptions. Especially, under the changing policy of the education reform, teachers who based the sources of their commitment on the educational value tend to be uncertain with their job and may become dissatisfied with their careers.

In relation to the analysis of teacher commitment in career phases, the findings showed that different career phases had significant influences on the perceptions of teacher commitment. Teachers tend to refer to both job satisfaction and critical work experiences as the main influences affecting their sense of commitment. As a consequence, they identify school management and leadership, sense of respect and collegial collaboration as the important factors affecting their commitment. This implies that, teachers in different career phases tend to have concern about their professionalism in different aspects. Being new teachers, the beginning teachers looked at educational values as the important source of teacher commitment. As a result, they emphasise on sense of respect and collegial collaboration as the important means that contribute to their commitment.

The stabilised and diversified teachers identified students as the main sources of their commitment. Progressing in their careers, they seemed to have concern about school management and leadership as well as sense of respect which are the important conditions affecting their sense of commitment. Reaching the plateau of their career, the conservative teachers projected against the changing policy and viewed collegial collaboration as the important means to cope with changes. Finally, feeling distant from the school settings, the disengaged teachers seemed to find difficulty adjusting to the changes. They perceived students' behaviour as problematic and identified sense of respect as the means to maintain their commitment.

In summary, the study shows that teacher commitment is closely associated with teacher professionalism, teacher career phases and the factors affecting them. The committed teachers in this study are characterised as having the love of teaching, hold on to professional values for their practises. As a consequence, they took students as the source of job satisfaction, valued sense of respect and viewed continued professional development as the important means to enrich their commitment. School management and leadership were perceived as the factors which undermine or contribute to support their sense of commitment. In addition, the findings indicate that career phases had significant influence on teacher commitment development and change. It is obvious that the previous work experience, which is affected by work condition, contribute to the changes of the perceptions of teacher commitment in their present career phases.

6.5 Summary of Questionnaire Findings

According to this study, the questionnaire findings indicate that the way teachers perceived the positions of their commitment depends significantly on their professional concepts and the work conditions that threatening or supporting it. That is, the majority of the SGF teachers perceived committed teachers as 'acceptance of school goals and values', preferred 'student' as the most important source of their commitment and identified it as meaningful for their 'professional value'. They tend to perceive personal TC as 'high and stable', whilst identified collective TC as 'moderate and stable'. The stabilised phase was inferred to as the most satisfying period, whilst referred to the beginning phase as critical for teacher commitment. Influenced by Thai culture, school management and leadership were perceived as the most important factors contributing to or undermining the sense of their commitment. As a consequence, they complied with the administrative demands, whilst sought comforts from their colleagues and identified continuing professional development as the most important means to maintain their commitment.

The analysis on the changes in teacher commitment indicates that the committed teachers valued professionalism as at the heart of their careers. As a consequence, school management and leadership were identified as the most important factors that support or undermine their commitment, whilst indicate sense of respect and collegial collaboration as contributing to their sense of commitment. Continued professional development was

regarded as the most important means to maintain and enrich it. In addition, career phases were having significant impact on teacher commitment. Teachers tend to be influenced by their career phases, which were the results of their career development and the work conditions around them.

However, although the questionnaire analysis may be able to investigate teachers' perceptions of their commitment, this is not sufficient. The analysis indicates that teacher commitment is more complicated than identifying a choice or choices, while answering a questionnaire. In addition, the analysis showed small correlation significances, which do not strongly confirm the qualitative findings. In order to understand the complex nature of teacher commitment, further investigations on how and why teachers conceive the meanings of teacher commitment, perceive and interact with the factors affecting it and with and maintain their sense of commitment are needed. As a consequence, a case study was conducted, using the survey findings as its framework with an emphasis on teacher professionalism and the school internal and external factors affecting it.

CHAPTER SEVEN
ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW DATA

In this chapter, the findings of teacher commitment interview data are analysed and discussed. The analysis aims at exploring and understanding the complex nature of teacher commitment and the contextual factors affecting it as perceived by the Thai private schoolteachers. First, the analysis provides the informants' demography to identify their personal and work details. Second, the conceptions of teacher commitment with regard to the initial career attitude, the definitions of commitment and the meanings of it in teachers' careers are explored. Third, the study looks at the changing experience of teacher commitment, the factors affecting it and the ways teachers react to it. Finally, the natures of teacher commitment in different career phases are examined.

In response to the research ethics, a 'participant coding system' is employed as the means to identify informants' characteristics and their extracts. The code consists of four alphabets and end with a number. The first three alphabets stand for teachers' career phase (BEG = beginning phase, STA = stabilised phase, DIV = diversified phase, CON = conservative phase and DIS = disengagement phase), the fourth alphabet goes for gender (M = male and F = female) and the number (1, 2, 3...) indicates which teacher in each category. That is, the coding system would be useful for readers to understand the interview analysis better whilst maintaining participants' confidentiality.

7.1 Informants' Demographic Data

The participants in the interview project were an opportunity sample from one of the Saint Gabriel Foundation (SGF) schools in Thailand. With the school principal's permission, the target teachers were approached and asked for their consent to join the project. A meeting was arranged to explain about the objectives of the interview project, agree on the time schedules and activities, and questions were answered and clarified for all the participants. One of the important agendas of this meeting was regarding the ethical issues, in which,

confidentiality was raised and confirmed. The duration for each interview is approximately one hour to one and a half hours. Informants were requested to use their free time from their teaching for this project. The interview took place between November and December of the 2003 academic year (May 2003 - April 2004).

There were twenty-two teachers participating in this phase of the research. Informants were chosen using the following criteria: career phases, grade levels, and academic departments. The informants' demography included: personal characteristics, such as gender, age groups (adapted from Sikes' age groups, 1985 and consists of five age groups: 21-28, 29-33, 34-40, 41-50 and 51-60 years old), and educational qualifications; and their work characteristics such as, teaching experience, grade level, and their academic department as summarised in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: The informants' demographic data in frequency

Characteristics	Categories	Frequency
Informant's gender	Male Female	13 9
Informant's age	22 to 28 years old 29 to 33 years old 34 to 40 years old 41 to 50 years old 51 to 60 years old	2 5 3 8 4
Education	Bachelor degree Above bachelor degree	17 5
Work experience	Beginning phase (1-3 year) Stabilisation (4-10 year) Diversification (11-25 year) Conservative (26-33 year) Disengagement (34-40 year)	2 4 6 7 3
Grade level	Primary Secondary	12 10
Department	Thai language Mathematics Foreign languages Art Science Social studies	4 7 2 2 6 1

According to Table 7.1, the participants consisted of 13 male and 9 female teachers. The biggest aged group were ranged between 41-50 years old (8 teachers). The majority qualified with bachelor degree, identified their teaching experience in the 'diversification' (11-25 work years) and 'conservative' (26-33 work years) phases. Primary and secondary informants were almost equal in number (12 primary teachers and 10 secondary teachers). They belonged to the following academic departments: seven 'mathematics', six 'science', four 'Thai language', two 'foreign language', two 'art subject' and only one teacher was from the 'social studies' department.

7.2 The General Findings of Teacher Commitment

In order to understand teacher commitment, the study explored the general construct of teacher commitment, as teachers understand it. This included the initial career attitudes, the establishments of teacher commitment, the definitions of teacher commitment, the sources of teacher commitment and the meanings of teacher commitment in their careers. In each of these themes, the findings were categorised and summarised in frequency and percentage in a form of table.

7.2.1 The initial career attitudes

In order to understand the initial attitude of teacher commitment, it is important to examine the reasons underpinning teacher career entry, career establishment, and initial teacher commitment. As in the study of Woods (1983) and Nias (1981) in their studies implied that the underpinned reasons in entering teaching career has a strong influence over teachers' career attitudes and work behaviour. In addition, recent empirical studies emphasised that the initial experience in teaching career is critical and may have strong impact on teacher commitment (Huberman, 1993; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; Cole, 1985; Sikes, 1985).

Reasons for being a teacher

The informants identified six reasons for being a teacher. These reasons were ranked according to its frequency. Including are 'love of teaching and children' (15 teachers, 68.18 %), 'social development' (4 teachers, 18.18 %), security and benefits (4 teachers, 18.18 %), and 'self-

identification' (3 teachers, 13.63 %), 'social statuses' (3 teachers, 13.63 %) and 'growth and development opportunity' (1 teacher, 4.54 %) as shown in Table 7.2.1. Some of these informants gave more than one reason. Those who identified as 'love of teaching and children' also included 'security and benefits' (DIVF2, DIVF6, and DISF1) and 'social status' (STAF1, CONF1, and CONM6) as their career entry reasons. One who identified as 'opportunity for growth and development' included 'financial security and benefits' for adopting teaching career (BEGM1).

Table 7.2.1: Reasons for being a teacher in frequency and percentage

Reasons for being a teacher	Frequency	Percent
1. Love of teaching & children	15	68.18
2. Social development	4	18.18
3. Security & benefits	4	18.18
4. Self identification	3	13.63
5. Social status	3	13.63
6. Opportunity for growth & development	1	4.54

Identification with teaching was explained as a reason to be a teacher.

"I don't feel happy working in the industry. I recall the time when I was a university student and gave special tuition to a group of 4-5 students. That was my happy moment" (STAF2: 37-40)

A secondary teacher explained what he meant by love of children.

"I love (to teach) children. I don't know how to explain...it's like watching their growth and development. During a long holiday (APEC), I feel, I miss them. It may look serious sometime when they quarrel with each other. I feel something is missing in my life if I do not meet them, play with them, and quarrel with them" (STAM3: 57-61).

Financial security and benefits was regarded as the source of teaching career.

"I am not from a well being family. I wanted to work early and earn my living. I took a year of librarian training course at a teacher college and began working." (DISF1: 25-26)

"My father passed away when I was in grade four. Since then, my mother was the only one earns a living. I wish to continue my study (master degree) but then, I would prefer to work and share

her financial burden. I decided to work in the first place and find the opportunity to continue my study. I heard that after five years of work, I can ask for my study leave." (BEGM2: 55-59)

A senior teacher recalled how his teacher turned him away from his wasteful habit. He then decided to follow his footsteps (social development).

"I have seen both good and bad examples. If they (teachers) are good, why couldn't I walk on the same path?" (DISM2: 16)

However, teachers who enter a teaching career with the intentional motives tended to adjust and commit to the teaching career better than the unintentional ones. As found by Nias (1989), the data reveals that the minority of these teachers were impressed by some model teachers from their childhood. They had a strong determination to become a teacher since then. These intentional teachers were decisive to embrace teaching from the beginning of their careers. This kind of attitude contributes to their career adaptation and commitment. Conversely, the unintentional teachers tend to have tentative career attitude and may take more time for career adaptation and teacher commitment. The career hesitation may deprive them from their career investment.

One teacher who wished to be teacher from her childhood expressed her career motive.

"Since I was young, I had never thought of any other career besides teaching. I wish to become teacher from my childhood, and it is the only thing in my mind since then." (DIVF3: 70-73)

By contrast, the tentative teachers found difficulty in committing to their career. A teacher who took seven years for her career establishment told her experience.

"My first three to four years (in teaching career) were quite indecisive. In my fifth year I was looking for more work opportunities (somewhere else). Until my seventh year, I felt absorbed (into the career) and settle in this career." (DIVF2: 45-46)

In this study, only six informants adopted teaching as their intentional careers. They identified self-identification (BEGF2, STAF1, and STAF2) and love of teaching and children (STAM3, DIVF3, DIVF4, DIVM5, and DIVF6) as the important reasons of their careers. On the other hand, the majority of the informants chose teaching as the alternative to their preferred job

choice(s). These teachers reported to follow the current career trends (such as engineering, architecture, nursing, and medicine) but failed to pursue them in one way or another. In addition, there were some other reasons, for example, among them, two informants reported to choose teaching as a substitute for priesthood (DIVM1, CONM3). Another two informants (CONM4 and CONM7) were led to a teaching career because they wanted to escape from military services (The officially registered teachers are allowed by Thai law to be exempted from military service).

Career establishment and initial commitment

According to the career establishment analysis, the majority of the informants (11 teachers, 50.0 %) identified their career establishments in the 'beginning phase' (1-3 year). They indicated supportive environment (the conditions of work, where acceptance and encouragement are prevailed), family atmosphere (the work condition, where family relation, care and concerns are practiced), academic culture (the work condition, where academic excellence is the norm), security and benefits, and good mentor system as the important factors contributed to their career anchored. Six of the informants (27.27 %) reported to be settling in the 'stabilisation phase' (4-10 year). They identified collegial conflict and grade level/subject mismatch during the beginning phase as the main obstacles delaying them. The rest of the informants (5 teachers, 22.72 %) did not give any information with regard to their career establishment as shown in Table 7.2.2.

Table 7.2.2: Career establishment periods and the affected factors

Career phase	Frequency	Percent	Affected factors
Beginning phase	11	50.00	Supportive environment Family atmosphere Academic culture
Stabilisation phase	6	27.27	Collegial conflict Grade level/subject mismatch

According to the initial teacher commitment analysis, eight of the informants (36.36 %) reported commitment to teaching from the 'beginning phase' (1-3 year) of their career. They

identified the combination of the following factors has contributed to initial commitment: self-identification, intrinsic reward (success with teaching and student problems), family atmosphere or supportive environment, and grade level/subject match as the positive factors contributed to their sense of commitment. Nine of the informants (40.90 %) committed to teaching career in the 'stabilisation phase' (4-10 year) due to the collegial conflict (1 teacher) and grade level/subject mismatch (5 teachers) and took time to solve these problems. The rest of the informants (5 teachers, 22.72 %) did not give any information with regard to their initial commitment, as shown in Table 7.2.3.

Table 7.2.3: Initial commitment phases and the affected factors

Career phase	Frequency	Percent	Affected factors
Beginning phase	8	36.36	Self identification Psychic rewards Family atmosphere
Stabilisation phase	9	40.90	Collegial conflict Grade level/subject mismatch

In relation to the matching between the career establishment and initial commitment, the majority of the informants (14 teachers, 63.63 %) appeared to have their career establishment and initial commitment in the same phase. The findings indicated that family atmosphere or supportive environment, grade level/subject matched, self identification and psychic rewards were regarded as the important factors contributed to teachers' career adjustment and resulted in teacher commitment. On the other hand, three of the informants (STAM4, DIVM1, and CONM2) (13.63 %) experienced initial commitment after their career settle phase, and identified further education and grade level/subject mismatch as the main reasons delaying their initial commitment. This issue will be further discussed in the analysis of teacher commitment in the stabilisation phase.

The study demonstrated that the beginning and stabilisation phases were regarded as the important periods in forming the initial commitment in teachers. In the supportive work conditions, the beginning teachers with positive career motifs tend to adapt to the new environment and the teaching assignments better than their counterparts. As the consequence,

they were on the better position to develop their initial commitment in their profession. By contrast, it would be more difficult for those who did not favour teaching and found themselves in the poor supportive work environment. These teachers may take time to be established in teaching career and experience their initial commitment. Some might quit soon and never experience teacher commitment at all.

The initial teacher commitment analysis demonstrates that career entry motifs and working conditions are the main factors that influence the initial teacher commitment. The data indicate that teachers with the intentional motives for teaching tend to adjust and become committed to their career better than those without. The intentional teachers tend to invest fully in the teaching career, whilst the unintentional teachers were hesitant. Reyes and Pounder (1993) found that the congruent values between personal and school orientations, in public and private schools, contributed to teacher commitment. This finding may support the assumption that teacher commitment is formed before teachers take their first assignment (Culver et al., 1990; Chapman, 1983; Salancik, 1979).

On the other hand, the study also indicates that teacher's initial commitment is affected by their work conditions. The study showed that self-identity or initial career motifs may be cherished in the supportive environment such as a family atmosphere and grade level/subject match. On the contrary, the poor work conditions, such as, grade level/subject mismatch, uncertain work system, and collegial conflict may undermine teacher commitment. Choy et al. (1993) pointed out that, teachers who were assigned to teach the courses they were not qualified, suffered lack of work efficacy and commitment. Coldron and Smith (1999) argued that, teacher professional identity is partly formed by a teacher's own choice and partly by the social environment of teacher workplace.

The findings suggest that schools should pay attention to the initial commitment of a teacher, as it is the important step that leads to teachers' definite commitment and career establishment. It would be helpful to identify the strength of teachers' career motives, and their areas specialisations and interests. New teachers should be provided with appropriate induction program. A good mentoring system would be helpful for adaptations and socialise them into

the new school culture. The data insisted that grade level and subject match is regarded as the most important issue for new teachers as it directly affects their professional efficacy, psychic rewards, and career success. It is essential that schools recognise the specialisations of new teachers and do not just fit them in to any available post.

7.2.2 The conception of teacher commitment

By nature, teaching is a complex career. The recent studies indicated that TC is characterised as complex and multi-dimensional (Louis, 1998; Tyree, 1996; Firestone and Pennell, 1993). As a consequence, teachers may commit to different educational dimensions: to the school goals and values, to the school social community, to the body of knowledge needed for professional efficacy and to the students as their professional target. As suggested by Tyree (1996) that "*commitment to teaching reflects commitment to the school in as much as commitment to students and subjects. Commitment to teaching describes the real purposes of the organisation in which they practice teaching*" (p. 296). Therefore, to understand teacher commitment, it is essential to explore TC characteristics, TC sources, and the way commitment is perceived as important by the teacher.

The characteristics of teacher commitment

According to the 'TC characteristic' analysis, the informants defined TC characteristics in the following four categories: organisational commitment (loyalty, involvement, and identification), responsibility for students' growth and development, love of teaching children and or self-identification, and subject-identification. Nevertheless, these characteristics may be classified into two clusters, that is, commitment to school and commitment to teaching. The commitment to school was described as: 'loyalty' (feel supportive and proud to be school member), involvement (ready to engage with or devote to the school), and identification (identified with the school goals and values). Most of the informants (18 teachers, 81.81 %) identified themselves as 'loyal' to the school. The rest of the informants were presenting their commitment to school as identification (2 teachers, 9.99 %), and involvement with the school (2 teachers, 9.99 %).

One of the teachers described school as her second home (loyalty).

"School is like another home to me. I spend more time at school than at home. It makes me look great. I am so proud of my school." (DIVF4: 118-123)

Loyalty to the school was expressed by a teacher in this way:

"I am part of the school. I am the owner of this place. I can not allow any flaw in this school. I can not but do my best to procure what is profitable for this school. Although I may tolerate with something disagreeable (such as certain school policies and traditional practices) but if the fault is strongly offensive I would confront with it." (CONF1: 142-155)

An informant defined teacher commitment as the opportunities for involvement.

"I feel that I am here, participating in it (school). If it no longer exists, we will not exist as well. We are here inherited its merit, therefore, I feel like, we need to...commitment means we participate with the institution in works even though some time it may turn out as failure or success." (CONM2: 131-133 and 212-214)

Some of the teachers in the study identified their commitment to the school with financial security and benefits and social status. They are grateful for all that the school has given them and felt the need to devote themselves to the school. They found that the more they devoted the more they felt committed to the school. This kind of investment is described by Becker (1960) as the condition that binds the organisational member with the security and benefits expected from the organisational goal achievement.

One of the informants expressed how she feels about the school.

"(I received a lot of good things from this school) I am so grateful. I feel the need to do my best for the school. Nevertheless, the more I devote, the more I become attached to the school." (DIVF2: 156-157)

They were proud to be members of a famous school. They felt that, being school members their social statuses were highly accepted in society.

"Our school is very famous. Wherever I go, people ask me where I'm from. I answer ... they were very delightful ... Most of our old boys are successful and become good citizen in the society. The alumni love and highly attached to our school." (STAM4: 232-233, 243-245)

The second cluster of TC conception were characterised as commitment to teaching and described as responsible for student, love for teaching and children, self-identification, and subject-identification. Many of these informants referred more than one characteristic for their commitment to teaching such as self-identification and responsibility for students. The majority of the informants (13 teachers, 59.99 %) identified teacher commitment as being responsible for students' well being, growth and development. Eleven of the informants (50.0 %) identified themselves as self-identification or love of teaching and children. Three of the informants (13.63 %) linked teacher commitment with 'subject-identification'.

An informant explained what she means by 'responsible for student':

"I mean, responsible for the time students spend with us. We have to be responsible for their growth and development as they should and as we expect them to be. This is what I mean by responsibility." (CONF1: 127-130)

'Self-identification' is at the heart of teacher commitment.

"I heartily love to do this (teaching). I desire to do it. I am happy to do it, to do this work." (DIVF4: 61) "Teaching is something ideal for me. I love this career and I strongly commit myself to this career. It (commitment) seems something abstract but I intend to become teacher, to teach children and to give them knowledge." (DIVF5: 144-146)

Two secondary teachers (DIVF4, and DISF1) identified teacher commitment as 'motherly care'. One of them explained her motherly care as:

"If we feel committed (to students), it's like taking care of our own children. We want our children to be educated as much as they can. Therefore, our duty is not just to teach but they are like our own children. Whatever parents wished to give their children, we will give them" (DIVF4: 297-299)

A teacher indicated 'subject-identification' as the characteristic of his commitment.

"(xxx music) ...it's part of my life. (STAM3: 154) I don't want to do any other works but xxx music. My classmate completed his study (music) and become an English teacher in grade one. This is not me. I prefer to play xxx music (as a career if I were not a music teacher)...because this is not me." (STAM3: 189-192)

The TC conception analysis confirms that teacher commitment is multidimensional and complex. The majority of the SGF teachers conceived teacher commitment into two main dimensions, organisational commitment [a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisational goals and values <identification>, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation <involvement>, and a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation <loyalty> (Mowday et al., 1982)]. and professional commitment [the sense of involvement in the process of instruction, which determines the amount of effort they put into teaching to promote students' learning and well-being (Firestone and Pennell, 1993)]. These teachers felt proud to be a member of the school and ready to exert efforts for the school achievement and goals. On the other hand, they were committed to teaching because they love teaching and viewed the core of their career as being responsible for students' growth and development as shown in Table 7.2.4 below.

Table 7.2.4: Teacher commitment characteristics in frequency and percentage

Teacher Commitment	Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Commitment to school	Loyalty	18	81.81
	Identification	2	9.99
	Involvement	2	9.99
Commitment to teaching	Responsible for student	13	59.99
	Love of teaching & children	11	50.00
	Love of subject	3	13.63

Teacher commitment sources

According to the 'TC source' analysis, six sources were reported in the study: student, school, colleague, teaching, subject, and administrator. All of the informants reported to have more than one source of teacher commitment. They reported the following frequency for their TC sources: student (22 teachers, 100 %), school (20 teachers, 90.99 %), colleague (13 teachers, 59.99 %), teaching (10 teachers, 45.45 %), administrators (4 teachers, 18.18 %), and subject (3 teachers, 13.63 %) as shown in Table 7.2.5 below. The analysis shows that TC sources were significantly related to TC characteristics. It is obvious that all of the informants who identified

student and school as their TC characteristics also referred them as the important sources of their teacher commitment.

Table 7.2.5: Teacher commitment sources in frequency and percentage

Teacher commitment sources	Frequency	Percent
1. Students	22	100.00
2. School	20	90.99
3. Colleagues	13	59.99
4. Teaching	10	45.45
5. Administrators	4	18.18
6. Subject	3	13.63

Student was regarded as the target of teaching and the psychic rewards for teachers.

"For me, teacher commitment means educating children. My happiness is to see students' success. I feel proud to be a part of their achievement." (CONM5: 49-50)

The second important TC source was the school or the school as community. Most of these informants associated school as the place of happiness (a home, family atmosphere), security, and benefits. A teacher conveyed how she felt about her school.

"I feel that school is the place of my happiness. I am part of the school ... I mean when I come to school, I meet my colleagues and I am happy to be here ... would it be too much to call it home. We live here more than our own house, don't we?" (BEGF2: 125-136)

The third important TC source was the colleagues. They agree that good colleagues attach them to their career as a secondary teacher explained:

"A factor that attaches me to this school is good colleagues. They are the source of my comfort, care and concerns. I am happy to work with them." (DIVF4: 83-84)

The fourth TC source was identified as teaching. They were happy, enthusiastic and motivated in teaching. They missed teaching during a long holiday. A teacher explained how she views teaching as the source of her commitment:

"It (teaching) is something ever changing and challenging for me. For example, although you teach the same subject every year, your teaching methods have to be adaptable to suit the needs of students in different classrooms and in different academic years. (STAF2: 152-154)

School administrators were recognised as a TC source, as one teacher explained:

"I think all the teachers are committed to the Brothers (school leaders). This commitment would be increased if the Brothers were more available for personal contact and accessibility for teachers. I think most of these teachers are good and willing to stay and die for this school." (CONM3: 301-304)

Finally, subjects were reported as TC source.

"For me, subject goes beyond commitment; it's a part of me. I loved this subject since I was a primary student ... without this subject, I don't think I can teach. I may not feel like teaching. I will not choose (teaching) any other subject if there is no mathematics." (BEGM1: 294-304)

However, some informants emphasised student as the core source of their commitment and viewed other sources as contributing to this end. They gave their opinions as:

"I commit to the school and colleagues but they are not my priority. Student is the first priority for me." (DIVF3: 84-85) "Yes, children are our real (educational) target. Organisation is not as important as children are. Anywhere will do, provided we can mould good children, we will be happy with it." (CONM5: 56-57)

As congruence to the TC conception analysis, the majority of the SGF teachers tend to identify more than one source for their sense of commitment. Most of these teachers identified students and schools as the important source of their commitment. However, teachers seem to emphasise students as the core source of their commitments. As a consequence, they regarded any other sources as supportive to their profession. That is, teachers perceived the school organisations, collegial collaboration, subjects or academic departments, and administrators' support as the factors that contribute to the success of their teaching and the students' achievement. On the contrary, these peripheral factors could be the threats if they become obstructive to their professional practises.

The importance of teacher commitment

According to the 'TC importance' analysis, the informants perceived TC importance in the following frequency: professional value [the principles of a teaching career] (17 teachers, 77.27 %), psychic rewards [teacher's positive feedbacks] (15 teachers, 68.18 %), job motivation (6 teachers, 27.27 %), professional development (5 teachers, 22.72 %), and financial security and benefits (3 teachers, 13.63 %) as shown in Table 7.2.6.

Table 7.2.6: Teacher commitment importance in frequency and percentage

Teacher commitment importance	Frequency	Percent
1. Professional value	17	77.27
2. Psychic rewards	15	68.18
3. Work motivation	6	27.27
4. Continued professional development	5	22.72
5. Security and benefits	3	13.63

Most of the informants regarded commitment as important for their professional values.

A senior primary teacher explained her position as:

"For me, teaching is dealing with human beings. I can not just look at it as something else, like animals or materials in the production line where defected products may be picked out and send back to be reproduced." (CONF1: 241-244)

An informant who was a co-administrator gave his view on professional value as:

"We come here to be teacher not being hired to do administrative work. However, since I was appointed administrator I would do my best. It does not mean that if you leave administrative post, you will have no value since you came from teaching profession." (CONM4: 99-101)

They identified teacher commitment as important for their intrinsic rewards. A science teacher recalled her feeling when students respond to her teaching.

"When the students ask for more work or homework from me, I was very delighted but when their response is poor I felt sorry and try to revise the lesson for them." (BEGF2: 47-55)

It was also important for their work motivation.

"It's hard to explain. It's like when you feel committed; you wake up in the morning, you are eager to go to school, to meet your colleagues, your students, and to your office desk as soon as possible." (STAF1: 110-112)

Teacher commitment was regarded as a strong drive toward the continued professional development as reflected by a teacher.

"I love to teach and use my professional ability. This urges me to develop myself. I don't want just to work day in and day out. Professional development contributes to my professional value and helps me to be happy with colleague and children." (STAF1: 86-92)

The informants also felt that commitment was meaningful for their security and benefits.

"Commitment to school is very important for me. It means that my life and my family will continue to be secured. I have to feed my children and many expenses." (DIVF6: 244-246)

However, many of the informants in this study insisted that security and benefits was not the core of their commitment. It was regarded as the basic component that helps them to devote themselves better or fully to their profession.

"I look at it (security and benefits) as basic needs. If they (teachers) do not have to worry about this, they would like to devote (for teaching) and this in return give benefits for their efforts. The more they do for their students the more they benefits. These are not just money but acceptance and honour."(STAF1: 369-382)

This extract also explains how teacher commitment is a motivating cycle that links professional development, intrinsic rewards, security and benefits in the life of a teacher. In other words, the more teachers commit to their profession the more they feel the need for professional development; the more they develop themselves, the more they are satisfied with their works (intrinsic rewards), feel secure, and be able to earn better benefits. This in turn contributes to their sense of commitment. This finding is congruent to the recent studies that, learning opportunities contribute to teacher commitment through providing professional efficacy and psychic rewards for the teachers (Firestone and Pennell, 1993; Nias, 1989; Rosenholtz, 1989).

The study shows that teacher commitment is mainly characterised by two interrelated dimensions: commitment to teaching and commitment to school. 'Commitment to teaching' is defined as teacher's ability and obligation for the well being and growth of students. In fact, teaching is mainly underpinned by its moral purposes (Hargreaves, 1995). As a result, teachers value the relationship with their students and the ability to teach and form them according to the curriculum and beyond (Hargreaves, 1994; Nias, 1989; Rosenholtz, 1989). They deem commitment as essential for their professional value, intrinsic rewards, work motivation, and professional development. Shann (1998) indicated that teachers valued relationship with students as the most important aspect of their job and draw job satisfaction out of it. As emphasised by Rosenholtz (1989), teachers may not be able to balance their professional responsibility if they do not get the psychic reward from the students they teach.

The second salient commitment conception is commitment to school. As found by Tyree (1996), the teachers in this study defined their commitment to school as "*teacher identification with, involvement with, and loyalty to the school*" (p. 296). In addition to school objectives and goals, teachers tend to link commitment to school with their professional status, security and benefits. This perspective is regarded as the important components that provide teachers with basic needs for their professional practices. In addition, the data indicates that the teachers deem the reciprocal link between commitment to teaching and commitment to school. Congruent to Helsby and McCulloch's study (1996), teachers valued both professionalization (commitment to school) and professionalism (commitment to teaching). They also agreed with Englund (1996) that the two commitment dimensions should be the combination of a good professional teacher (STAF1: 369-382).

It is essential that school administrations recognise the complex and multidimensional nature of teacher commitment as different from other careers. Schools should build a supportive environment for professionalism. School administrators should play the role of a buffer that allows teachers to exercise their profession efficiently (Rosenholtz and Simpson, 1990). It would be helpful for the school to recognise different conceptions of teacher commitment and link them to the school objectives and goals. School should be cautious of any changing policy

that could affect teacher commitment and encouraging them to take part in fulfilling the school visions and decision-makings, especially with regard to teachers' responsibilities.

7.3 Teacher Commitment and Changes

In order to understand changes in teacher commitment, the influential factors affecting teacher commitment and the ways teachers react to cope with changes are examined. The study employed rating scales to evaluate teacher commitment levels. In relation to this, teachers were asked to identify the factors perceived as affecting their sense of commitment. In addition, they were asked to reflect and share their experiences and feelings about their satisfaction and dissatisfaction with regard to these changes, their reactions to cope with the negative experience and the strategies to sustain it.

7.3.1 Teacher commitment evaluations and the affecting factors

According to the 'TC position' analysis, the informants were asked to rate their personal and collective TC levels using a commitment scale (See Appendix B2). The scale represents five teacher commitment levels, namely, high and stable, high and unstable, moderate and stable, moderate and unstable, and rather low. The findings indicated that the majority of the informants perceived their 'personal and collective TC level' in different way. That is, personal TC levels were identified by sixteen informants as high (16 teachers, 73.61 %), in which, fourteen of them (63.63 %) identified their positions as stable and only two of them (9.99 %) identified as unstable. The rest of the informants (6 teachers, 27.27 %) perceived their 'personal TC level' as moderate in which three of them (13.63 %) identified as stable and the other three (13.63 %) identified as unstable.

On the other hand, the analysis shows that the majority of the informants (14 teachers, 63.63 %) perceived their 'collective TC level' as moderate, in which, eight of them (36.36 %) identified as stable and six of them (27.27 %) identified as unstable. The rest (8 teachers, 36.36 %) perceived 'school TC level' as high, in which, five of them (22.72 %) identified as stable and three of them (13.63 %) identified as unstable as shown in Table 7.3.1 below. The data indicates that the majority of the informants had different TC perceptions between personal and collective TC levels.

Table 7.3.1: Personal and collective TC levels in frequency and percentage

Commitment levels	Personal TC positions		Collective TC positions	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1. High & stable	14	63.63	5	22.72
2. High & unstable	2	9.99	3	13.63
3. Moderate & stable	3	13.63	8	36.36
4. Moderate & unstable	3	13.63	6	27.27
5. Rather low	-	-	-	-

According to the factors affecting TC analysis, the frequency shows that the informants identified the following factors as contributing to teacher commitment. They ranked these factors in the following order: collegial collaboration (12 teachers, 54.54 %), superiors' support (9 teachers, 40.90 %), security and benefits (9 teachers, 40.90 %), psychic reward (8 teachers, 36.36 %), family atmosphere (8 teachers, 36.36 %), involvement opportunity (7 teachers, 31.73 %), academic culture (5 teachers, 22.72 %), clear directive work system (5 teachers, 22.72 %), grade/subject match (4 teachers, 18.18 %), professional value (3 teachers, 13.63 %), work facilitation (3 teachers, 13.63 %), and professional autonomy (1 teacher, 4.54 %) as shown in Table 7.3.2.

Table 7.3.2: Reinforced commitment factors in frequency and percentage

Reinforced factors	Frequency	Percent
1. Collegial collaboration	12	54.54
2. Superior's supports	9	40.90
3. Security and benefits	9	40.90
4. Intrinsic rewards	8	36.36
5. Family atmosphere	8	36.36
6. Involvement opportunity	7	31.73
7. Academic culture	5	22.72
8. Clear directive work systems	5	22.72
9. Grade/Subject match	4	18.18
10. Professional value	3	13.63
11. Facilitation	3	13.63
12. Professional autonomy	1	4.54

Collegial collaboration was the source of teacher commitment and security.

"At our level (as teacher) good colleagues are quite important. We commit to each other in our work. Although we may have different ideas but we can compromise and work together. Good teamwork helps us to be happy with our work. We enjoy mutual goals and collective success." (CONM3: 94-100)

A senior teacher shared how superiors' support was essential for commitment.

"One of the important factors for my success is the superiors' trust and support. He gave me the opportunities to work (administration). He has personal contact with us. During xxx mandate, we were not left alone with our work. Although we were small in number at that time, we were very proud of it" (DISM2: 127-135)

Security and benefits were regarded as important sources of teacher commitment.

"(I decided to commit myself to this school) as the work system is secure. I mean, I am satisfied with my income ... I feel that school give me a lot of things ... yes, it gives me a good society, and the opportunities for self development such as my personality, learning, and good income for a better quality of life and living." (DIVF2: 111-147)

A secondary teacher explained how intrinsic rewards were the source of commitment.

"I felt successful from the first year of my career. I felt that students love and trust in me. They believe that, whatever I gave them was good such as disciplines, modelling and so forth. I observed that students had good regards for me. This makes me conclude that teaching is a good profession for me." (DISM3: 26-29)

A new teacher was impressed by the family atmosphere.

"In my previous school, there are many teachers who leave each year ... When I came here, I have seen a good number of senior teachers. How to explain... I am impressed by the way they greet each other. This is what I like and think of the time when I will be like them. I really like this kind of atmosphere. It's a warm community." (STAF1: 341-354)

A teacher explained why involvement in the school is important for commitment.

"I begin to feel that I have a role to play. I begin to increase my participation in the school activities. I feel that I am somebody in this school." (STAM4: 165-167)

Academic culture is referred to as important for teacher commitment:

"I feel committed here. I think if I quit from here, I am not going to be teacher. This is the peak of my career. Compare with the other private schools, we are the best. For example, our academic quality is second to no one. We are the first among all the private schools. I mean most of our students are successful when they pass through the school." (CONM5: 245-250)

Clear work systems were regarded as supportive for teacher commitment.

"Clear work systems help me to be secure with my work... I think family relationship with my colleagues and good work systems help me to feel good with my career." (DIVF2: 87-91)

Professional autonomy as well as grade level/subject match was regarded as supportive.

"At first, I was teaching in the primary section. (It was not challenging.) Then, I moved to the secondary section. I looked at the contents and it is what I want to teach. At that time, I found it very enjoyable and worked hard. I taught twenty-three hours a week. It was not heavy for me. It is fun, provided, no one (administrators) should obstruct my work." (CONM4: 108-125)

Work facilitation was regarded as supportive for teacher commitment as a teacher shared.

"I am lucky compared with my friends who are working in the xxx schools with poor provision. They complain that they are progressing very slowly due to the lack of good facilitation. We began our work in the same point. After two years, they are still struggling with their problems and dissatisfied with their work." (STAF1: 158-162)

Teachers tend to judge and distinct their colleagues using their professional values.

"I observe that many junior teachers are not devoted to their work. They talk a lot about their benefits. Money is the prime objective in their career. I feel that they are benefit oriented teachers, whilst the senior teachers talk about students." (DIVF3: 318-325)

Many of the teachers in this study tend to identify professional values as the core meaning of their commitment. Using the same values, they judge and distinguish their group from the other teachers who do not behave and possess the same values. As in the study of Nias (1989), teachers felt at ease to share their ideas and work experience with teachers who had held congruent values and avoid associating with those who had contradicting values.

By contrast, the majority of the informants tend to regard the negative dimensions of the same factors as undermined teacher commitment. They ranked the following factors as the TC obstacles: policy change and education reform (13 teachers, 59.99 %), micro politic or unfairness (10 teachers, 45.45 %), professional value conflict (9 teachers, 40.90 %), collegial conflict (8 teachers, 36.36 %), bureaucracy [or task orientation] (8 teachers, 36.36 %), sense of respect (5 teachers, 22.72 %), benefits decrease (4 teachers, 18.18 %), personal problems (4 teachers, 18.18 %) and grade/subject mismatch (3 teachers, 13.63 %) as in Table 7.3.3.

Table 7.3.3: Obstructive to commitment factors in frequency and percentage

Obstructive factors	Frequency	Percent
1. Policy change	13	59.99
2. Micro-politic or unfairness	10	45.45
3. Professional value conflict	9	40.90
4. Collegial conflict	8	36.36
5. Bureaucracy or task orientation	8	36.36
6. Sense of respect	5	22.72
7. Benefits decrease	4	18.18
8. Personal problem	4	18.18
9. Grade/Subject mismatch	3	13.63

Changed policy and education reforms were the main obstacles for teacher commitment.

"For me, I believe hundred percent that it (education reform) affects teachers directly. The changing policies have effects on the motivation of students. Students are not working hard as before. The evaluation system is poor and do not encourage students to work hand... On the other hand, it increases a lot of paperwork and becomes a big burden." (DISM3: 254-271)

One teacher shared how micro politics affected work conditions in the school.

"I feel disgust, the way they fight for power and benefits among them. They fight for positions and divided into parties. They treat people with different standards; they would help those of their group and beat those who are not. I think they should treat everyone equally. This has become the negative conditions in our work." (DIVF3: 221-223)

A senior teacher viewed different professional values in his colleagues.

"I feel that, a lot of the teachers are poor in their responsibilities, especially the new ones. At present they are not devoted to the organisation if there is no benefit." (CONM5: 125-127)

In a collectivist culture, collegial conflict was regarded as essential TC obstacle.

"It's a frustrating situation when there are some misunderstandings and your colleagues do not confront with you but tell it to somebody else. And, they become indifferent with you... many a times this kind of relationship affects the quality of our works." (DIVM5: 279-284)

A teacher shared how task orientation was a problem in his career:

"Sometime I feel that, administrators and teachers are on different tracks. I mean, we did not discuss before giving order. When you give order, you should see whether it is practical and relevance. Being administrators, you should not just give orders; you should care for the teachers (who carry out the orders) and give them more concerns." (DIVM5: 257-260)

A teacher expressed how autonomy restrictions and sense of respect obstruct his professional work.

"When I work, I don't like to be controlled and being forced from my work autonomy ... Most of these come from the administrators. They like to set up rules and regulations to control. I don't like it, and don't want to follow it (rules and regulations). Or, if I have to, I would do it half-heartedly." (CONM4: 136-145)

A young teacher commented on benefits decrease as the reason for poor commitment:

"I heard some teachers talk about their previous devotion to the school but now they are retreating. They gave many reasons, but benefits decreasing seem to be one of the frequent issue raids among them" (STAM3: 317-328)

Personal and family problems were recognised as affecting teacher commitment:

"Sometimes, I have to accept that personal and family problems affect my work. But, as soon as I step into the school, I try to leave all the problems at the gate of the school. It is not fair to remain frustrated in the classroom. It prevents students approaching us." (DIVM5: 250-253)

A teacher shared how grade level/subject mismatch affected her sense of commitment:

"I was not very happy with my previous school. I was assigned to teach in the pre-university level. It was not what I want to teach. It's a kind of preparing students for university entrance examination. There was no fun. I am very happy to teach in the lower secondary. Here, I can teach what I want and students are happy and enjoy the lesson." (DIVF4: 83-85)

Paper work was obsessive and obstructive to teaching as one teacher viewed it.

"Here, we have got a lot of paper work. It's rather useful for administrative monitoring than students' achievement. Usually, teachers record all their tasks. The problem is there are too many forms to be filled repeatedly." (STAF1: 484-493)

It is remarkable that teachers tend to perceive personal TC positions as higher than collective TC positions. They tend to identify supportive professional factors as contributed to teacher commitment, whilst referred the negative organisational conditions as the main obstacles that undermined their sense of commitment.

One teacher expressed her commitment in this fashion:

"Talking about my commitment, I have high commitment with (teaching) students but feel low and unstable with the administrators" (DIVF3: 147-150)

In order to investigate further, the informants were asked to recall the time when they felt most committed or 'TC peak year' and the time when they felt least committed or 'TC bottom year' in their career. The findings indicate that the majority of the informants (10 teachers, 45.45 %) identified 'stabilisation phase' as their 'TC peak year'. Almost equal to the first group, nine of them (40.90 %) reported to enjoy their 'TC peak year' in the 'beginning phase' of their career. Only three of the informants (13.63 %) identified 'diversification phase' as their 'TC peak year' in their career. On the other hand, with regard to 'TC bottom year', the majority of the informants (8 teachers, 36.36 %) identified the 'beginning phase' as their 'TC bottom year'. The rest of the informants reported to experience 'TC bottom year' in the 'stabilisation phase' (4 teachers, 18.18 %), 'diversification phase' (5 teachers, 22.72 %), 'conservative phase (4 teachers, 18.18 %)' and 'disengagement phase' (1 teacher, 4.54 %) consecutively as shown in Table 7.3.4.

Table 7.3.4: Peak and low commitment periods in frequency and percentage

Career phases	Peak commitment		Low commitment	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1. Beginning phase	9	40.90	8	36.36
2. Stabilisation phase	10	45.45	4	18.18
3. Diversification phase	3	13.63	5	22.72
4. Conservative phase	-	-	4	18.18
5. Disengagement phase	-	-	1	4.54

The peak and low TC analysis suggests that teachers regarded the stabilisation and beginning phases as the sensitive period for TC development. Some teachers formed and experienced their sense of commitment from the beginning phase. Those who did not experience it in this phase tend to achieve it in the stabilisation phase or perhaps, they would never experience it and quit teaching career. Nevertheless, congruent with Nias (1989 and 1981) the beginning phase was perceived as the critical period in the initial commitment formation. Grade level/subject mismatch and collegial conflict were reported as the important obstacles for their career development; as a result, they were not able to inculcate their sense of commitment at this stage. In addition, the analysis indicates that teachers in different career phases tend to perceive their critical period differently. This issue is going to discuss in detail in the diversification phase analysis.

According to the factors affecting TC analysis, two kinds of antecedent factors emerge, namely, reinforcing and obstructing factors are observed. These antecedent factors are categorised into three groups: personal (such as, personal attributions, family environment, and work status), professional (such as, professional values, professional work conditions, and collegial collaboration), and organisational factors (such as, school policy, managerial styles, micro politics and professional value conflict). The study showed that teachers tended to perceive personal commitment as higher than collective commitment. They identified professional factors as directly affected teacher commitment and viewed organizational factors as the conditions that contribute to and undermine the collective sense of their commitment.

This implies that the committed teachers tend to focus on their professional practises as the source of their job satisfaction. They view organisational factors as the conditions influencing professional factors and affecting their practises. The recent studies have shown that organisational conditions have impacts on teachers' professionalism, work certainty, and self-efficacy (Louis, 1992; Smylie, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1989; Ashton and Webb, 1986), which in turn, contribute to increase their commitments. In this condition, school administrators play a determinant role in shaping and constructing the school work conditions that are supporting or obstructing teacher commitment (Reyes, 1992; Anderman et al., 1991; Maehr et al., 1990).

It would be helpful for the school to recognise the critical period of teacher commitment, and understand personal and professional concerns of their professional practises. This would help the school to provide teachers with the appropriate supports and resources. On the other hand, school administrators should organise the school functions (such as, work load, work intensification, and work certainty) and structure (such as, class size, responsibility scope, and administrative assignments) in supportive work conditions (such as, work co-ordination, collegial collaboration, and learning opportunity) and contribute to teachers' professional practises.

7.3.2 Teacher commitment: reactions to change

Life history research approach suggests that the teacher is not just simply a passive instrument in the process of teaching. Teachers should, therefore, be understood as an intelligent agent in the educational systems (Goodson, 1994). Teacher commitment is the intrinsic quality of teachers. Teachers are believed to be the active agents who form, maintain and sustain the sense of their commitment. However, teacher commitment is dynamic and subjected to personal, professional, and organisational environments. In order to develop teacher commitment, it is essential to learn how teachers react to cope with the TC obstacles that threaten them. On the other hand, it is important to understand what are the factors teachers use to maintain and enrich their sense of commitment.

Teacher commitment: coping with change

According to the 'TC reaction' analysis, many of the informants proposed more than one means to cope with their problems. The majority of the informants (13 teachers, 59.99 %) preferred 'discussion with colleague' as the means to cope with their commitment difficulties. Compliance to policy changes and prayer were identified by eight of the informants (36.36 %) as the methods to cope with new policy. Six of the informants (27.27 %) viewed 'consult with superiors' as the means to manage their problems. These teachers reported having involvement in administrative work or good relationships with their superiors. The rest reported 'consulting with outsider' [such as, parents, husband/wife and ones' previous experienced teachers] (5 teachers, 22.72 %), 'manipulation' (the ability to adapt and control over changes) (5 teachers, 22.72 %), 'withdrawal' (2 teachers, 9.99 %), 'rebellion' (2 teachers, 9.99 %), and 'continued further education' (2 teachers, 9.99 %) as shown in Table 7.3.5.

Table 7.3.5: Change copings in frequency and percentage

Coping with change	Frequency	Percent
1. Discussion with colleagues	13	59.99
2. Prayer and conformity	8	36.36
3. Consult with superiors	6	27.27
4. Consult with outsider	5	22.72
5. Manipulation	5	22.72
6. Withdrawal	2	9.99
7. Rebellion	2	9.99
8. Further education	2	9.99

Being embedded in the high power distance and collectivist culture, teachers would turn to their senior colleagues for morale support and practical advice and regarded them as experienced professionals or mentors. They identify peers as ones who understand them best. However, they realise that being in the same boat; this may release tension but may not solve problems. Further on, trust and confidentiality is regarded as a sensitive and cautious issue as one teacher shared his experience:

"I discuss with peers sometime. However, I think, it could be better to solve our own problems. We don't know whether the individuals have got the same problems with me or not. It is possible that

my words are transferred to different persons and it may return back with more trouble. It has happened so." (CONM5: 193-203)

The second important 'TC reaction' was identified as 'prayer and/or compliance'. Teachers abide with their religious faiths. They believe that prayer helps to calm their trouble minds. They also identified closed working systems or authoritative management as the reason behind this, as a science teacher recalled his experience.

"(In this situation) I pray and sometime I just turn passive. I do not mean that I am not working but just keep quiet. It's better to be still, the more you speak the more they (administrators) hate you. I just look a bit above the problems. Sometime in your life, there are obstacles and trials. Those who are strong can be survived." (CONM3: 219-221)

Administrators' advice was helpful, provided good relationship was established.

"I used to consult with some administrators, most of whom are good with me. I consult them whether it's good to do thing in this way." (STAM4: 129-131)

Some reported to take their problems home and shared with their husbands/wives.

"Being stress for problem solving at school, I used to tell him (husband) about it or release my stress. He will listen to me and be neutral to the problems and give helpful advices." (STAF1: 77-79)

A new teacher reported consulting with his previous teachers.

"Besides talking with peers, we also consult with some of our previous experienced teachers." (BEGF2: 377)

Further education was referred to as one of the solutions.

"At that time, I did not know what to do (with my problems). I tried to find way out and my solution was to increase my knowledge (continued education)." (DIVF2: 255)

It is remarkable to cite that teachers prefer manipulation to cope with the education reform issues. They referred to the principal as the source of their reactions.

"Yes, I try to conform (to education reform demands) as well as choose what is appropriate (for my students). We prepare the lesson plans for the official inspections. However, in practice, we may not follow them. We choose to teach what is best for our students." (DISM1: 288-293)

In a highly power distance and collectivist culture, work systems are described as authoritative and compliance. As a result, there is a big gap between authority and the subjects. In this condition, a good number of teachers would develop 'just do it' mentality. This kind of closed systems may lead some teachers to rebel against the authority as one teacher expressed it.

"(I do) nothing, but try to echo it (problem) to the administrators. Next, I try to make things worse. We didn't think of anything but just go against what is wrong and unjust. We will try to delay our work to show that we are not happy with them. But, this would not affect the students. We try to maintain our teaching (quality)." (CONF4: 200-203)

As indicated by the personal and school TC levels analyses (in Section 7.3.1) that negative managerial and organizational issues were regarded as the main factors affecting teacher commitment, the majority of the teachers preferred 'discuss with peers' as the important means to cope with their TC problems, although trust and confidence is regarded as crucial. Within the high power distance and collective culture, compliance and passive mentality and sought comfort in prayer were the common practices. Only a few of them reported rebelling against or withdrawing from their problems. Others reported consulting with their superiors and outsiders. However, the way teachers react to education reform was remarkable. Teachers tend to manipulate education reform for the good of their students and school. They employ professional judgement in teaching and did not act just like an educational instrument as regard to their professionalism.

The maintenance of teacher commitment

According to the 'TC enrichment' analysis, the study try to understand and investigate what are the factors contribute to maintain and strengthen teacher commitment as perceived by teachers. In this study, most of the informants identified more than one means to enrich their commitment. The following are the enrichment factors and its frequency reported by the informants: superior's support (11 teachers, 50.0 %), family atmosphere (10 teachers, 45.45 %), continued professional development (6 teachers, 27.27 %), professional value promotion (5 teachers, 22.72 %), collegial collaboration (4 teachers, 18.18 %), security and benefits (3

teachers, 13.63 %), opportunity for growth and development, clear directive work system (1 teacher, 4.54 %), and participative management (1 teacher, 4.54 %) as shown in Table 7.3.6.

Table 7.3.6: Teacher commitment maintenance in frequency and percentage

Teacher commitment maintenance	Frequency	Percent
1. Superior's supports	11	50.00
2. Family atmosphere	10	45.45
3. Continued professional development	6	27.27
4. Professional value promotion	5	22.72
5. Collegial collaboration	4	18.18
6. Security and benefits	3	13.63
7. Opportunity for growth and development	1	4.54
8. Clear directive	1	4.54
9. Participative management	1	4.54

According to the analysis, the majority of the informants identified 'superiors' support' as the most important factor enriching their commitment as expressed by a teacher.

"I think administration is the important factor. They should be seen as benevolent, using authority as well as care and concerns for their subjects. Teachers can make out the kind of superiors they observed. Those with authoritative may have power over the teachers but can't win their hearts. Teachers just do what is their duty and do not dedicate to their works." (CONM5: 140-143)

Family atmosphere was identified as the second important factor for TC enrichment. It reflects the characteristics of Thai way of life and work, as shared by one teacher.

"I would say that at that time, we (teachers) were friends and more like a family. If we did some mistakes they (colleague) would tell and warn us. Some time we would consult our elder before we do it. We could talk strait away. There was no boss or subject. We were having common responsibility." (CONM2: 136-143)

Another senior teacher explained what she did to build family atmosphere in the school:

"Whenever there is opportunity, I try to build commitment consciousness in our school. For example: I try my best to build a sense of common responsibility among us. I used to say 'Let's do this task together, let's help each other.' I mean we would feel committed if we commit ourselves to common

responsibility. It a matter of a little bit of this, and a little of that which makes up the meanings of our community." (CONF1: 513-518)

Family atmosphere appeared to be the remarkable characteristics of Thai culture. As Hallinger and Kantamara (2000) explained, it reflects the collectivist and feminist culture of Thai society. In this culture, all the school members regarded each other as family members. Through this family relation, teachers are concerned with their colleagues' well being, collaboration in works, and supporting each other to achieve the common goals. This kind of culture also reflects the pleasurable atmosphere where teachers enjoy sharing their responsibilities and value cheerful work. As a result, it contributes to build harmony and solidarity in the school community. It helps to bridge the gap between people in different age group and posts in the hierarchical structure. This kind of atmosphere would encourage supportive work condition and reinforce teacher commitment.

'Continued professional development' was central to the sense of commitment.

"In this profession, I think, we need to develop our career continuously; we can not just stop here. We have to acquire knowledge all the time. We may not be very clever but we must be diligent in learning and curious to search for new knowledge. Everyday at school is a challenge. We don't know what will be the questions and new enquiries from the students? What will be the new knowledge prepared for our students? What courses or seminars are we going to attend to update ourselves, etc...?" (DIVM5: 331-336)

Professional value was regarded as important in maintaining teacher commitment. One teacher shared what she had done to promote teacher commitment for herself and others.

"This family has three children and they can not afford for special tuition. I told the mother to send her child to join the class for free. As I have got no authority I referred this matter to the authority and they asked the boy to write a request and granted him this permission. This has strengthened their relationships with the school. We show them that we do not just look for the money. Teachers in the grade level knew and agreed to help. The boy feels grateful for what we have done. We are very delightful for what we have done." (DIVF4: 217-226)

Teachers viewed collegial collaboration as another means contributed to maintain their commitment. A teacher suggested how the school should promote teacher collaboration.

"I think the school should view teachers as co-operators and look at them with good attitude. I admit that some of them may not be good but not all the teachers ... The school should gradually help them to work co-operatively with each other and be collaborative rather than just give order." (CONM2: 366-370)

Some teachers identified financial security and benefits as important for TC enrichment.

"I think money is one of the important factors. Now a day, we have to shoulder a lot of expenses. For example, I have to do extra work and may not be fully devoted to teaching. I feel guilty about it."(STAM3: 409-411)

In order to respond to the TC obstacles and TC reinforcements, the majority of the SGF teachers tend to identify organisational factors and professional development as the main areas contribute to maintain the sense of their commitment. Teachers seemed to recognise the roles of school administrators and family atmosphere as the main contributor for their commitment. It is obvious that the roles of school administrators, especially in a private school, proved to be extremely influential (Grace, 2002). Teachers looked at their administrators as the main obstacles as well as supports for their careers. They expressed the need for family atmosphere, collaborative work and the opportunities for professional development. It is remarkable to note that teachers wished to promote their professional values; a kind of value that constructs the core meaning of their commitment. In this condition, it is essential that a school recognises the needs of teacher commitment and provides the platform that will support and develop their professions. Ultimately, in a collectivist and power distance culture, the role of the principal and senior teachers in promoting teacher commitment is vital (Hallinger and Kantamara, 2000).

Within a collectivist culture, family atmosphere is recognised as an important bond that bridges the administrative gaps and sustains work collaboration. In this atmosphere, teachers become members of the school community and engage to work for the common goals. This kind of relationship helps them to share their needs and aspirations, as well as, their responsibilities and goals. However, the impacts of bureaucratic work systems and insincerity may deteriorate

family atmosphere. Therefore, school administrators and senior staffs are playing the essential role to maintain and strengthen this culture in the school.

In 1999, when the education reform was introduced many of these teachers were not disgruntled. Some of them identified clearly that the school leader gave them a clear directive in order to cope with the reforms. The school had provided appropriate training and prepared its teachers to meet with the changes. Consequently, it is obvious that these teachers adjusted with ease to the changes that enforced them. These teachers cope with education reform through manipulation, to meet the needs of their students and the school. This finding is congruent to the studies of Woods and Jeffrey (2002) and Helsby (1996; 1995) that some teachers regained their professional confidence through controlling and adapting the curriculum to suit their practises.

In summary, the general TC analysis is summarised into the following findings:

1. Initial teacher commitment tends to emerge in the beginning phase (1-3 years) and stabilisation phase (4-10 years). New teachers are mainly influenced by their career entry motives (intentional or unintentional) and by the working conditions (family atmosphere, grade level/subject match). These findings indicate the role of induction systems, more particularly mentor supports, as an important mechanism to help new teachers in their job adjustment and be socialised into the new school culture.
2. Teachers mainly identify the concepts of their commitment into two related characteristics, namely, 'commitment to teaching' and 'commitment to the school'. That is, teachers tend to value commitment to teaching as essential for their professional values, work motivation and psychic rewards, whilst indicate commitment to school as the source of their social status, financial security and benefits. The two aspects are perceived as reciprocal with each other. This implies that teachers tend to value both professionalism and professionalization as essential for their profession.
3. Teachers tend to perceive personal commitment as higher than collective commitment. They identify positive personal and professional factors as contributing to their professional values, work motivation and psychic rewards, whilst viewing the negative

organisational factors as obstacles for their professional practices. This implies that teachers use the concept of their commitment to give meaning, judge and distinct themselves from the other teachers who are working in the school.

4. Within the collectivist and power distance culture, teachers tend to comply with policy changes and prefer discussion with colleagues and/or family members rather than seeking their superior's consultation. However, with regard to the education reform issues, teachers prefer to manipulate the curriculum to meet the needs of their students and for the good of their school.
5. Although teachers perceive organisational factors as hindrances to their professional practices, they also view organisational factors as the means to maintain and enrich their sense of teacher commitment. These findings suggest that school administrators play the determinant roles to enhance and undermine teacher commitment.
6. 'Family atmosphere' is recognised as a combination of collectivist and feminist cultures that binds the school community together in a family relationship and work collaboration. This kind of culture is a useful strategy in bridging the gap between the people in the hierarchical structures. As a consequence, it contributes to build a supportive working environment that reinforces teacher commitment.

7.4 Teacher Commitment in Career Phases

In this section, the perceptions of teacher commitment in different career phases are analysed and discussed. Studies (Sikes et al., 1985; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; Huberman, 1993) have indicated that teacher career stages influence significantly over teachers' work attitudes and behaviours. Based on Huberman's career phases, the analysis focuses on five career phases, namely, beginning phase, stabilisation phase, diversification phase, conservative phase, and disengagement phase. However, as explained by Huberman (1993), although the majority of the informants may fit into the general career life scheme, some of the informants may be deviant from this scheme and will be explained in the related sections. In each of these career phases, teacher commitment and the related issues will be examined.

7.4.1 Teacher commitment in the beginning phase

The beginning phase (1-3 work years) is described as 'a period of survival and discovery'. This period is reported to be one of the critical incidents in a teacher's life. It usually refers to new teacher including those who transfer from one work unit to another new work unit. This is the time when new teachers encounter with the reality of their career life or so called 'reality chock'. Usually, as soon as new teachers are employed, they are assigned with full responsibility and assumed as potential profession teachers. During this period, new teachers struggle to adjust themselves to new responsibilities and the new social environment of the school. This condition is regarded as the critical period. Those who find it hard to get along with the new environment may not survive. Those who are adjustable may develop their profession to a more stable career position.

In this study, four informants, one male and three female teachers, were included in the beginning phase analysis. Two of them (BEGM1 and BEGF2) were new from their graduation and were in the second year of teaching. The other two teachers (STAF1 and STAF2) were included in this group as they were newly transferred from their previous schools. Although they have been teaching for ten years they were categorised by their social experience as in the beginning phase. All of these teachers identified themselves in the stage of discovery and adjustment to the new environment.

In relation to teacher career entry motives, the beginning teachers tend to perceive personal interest as the focus of their career. They identified two reasons for being a teacher. Three teachers reported entering teaching intentionally due to self-identification with teaching, whereas, one teacher reported to enter teaching unintentionally. Although the unintended preferred to pursue for further education in accountancy, he decided to work so as to support his mother. This teacher identified growth and development opportunities along with security and benefits, as the reasons for being a teacher.

According to the personal TC level analysis, the evaluation indicated that all the beginning teachers perceived their TC level as moderate, in which, those with intentional entry perceived

themselves as stable, whilst the career hesitate teacher perceived as unstable. 'That is, teacher with intentional career entry tend to have more confidence in teaching career, while the unintentional teacher would take teaching as optional and may take time to become committed to this career. Teacher who entered teaching career unintentionally tend to have a tentative commitment.

"I think I have just started. It is only one and a half year after my graduation. I still have got a lot of time to learn about myself." (BEGM1: 85-86)

On the other hand, teacher with intentional career entry tend to be decisive with teaching career as one teacher shared.

"I feel confident (in teaching). I don't know how long I am going to teach; two, five, or ten years. I do not think how my future is going to be, but now I am happy to teach ... I don't know whether I will teach until my retirement, but I will do my best." (BEGF2: 70-74)

As described in the literature of teacher career life (Huberman, 1993; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; Sikes et al., 1985), the new teachers in this study tend to focus on career survival and adapt to cope with the new environment. They are at the stage of exploring and building their sense of commitment. They tend to perceive teacher commitment in a shallow and limited way. They characterise teacher commitment after their limited work experience. They have concerns for self, students, teaching and looking for professional acceptance.

A teacher who was impressed by the warm environment during undergraduate study defined teacher commitment as:

"I refer it to the feeling and experience received in this school. The senses received from contacting with the place, the students, the colleagues, the institution, and all about them." (BEGM1: 243-245)

Teachers who pursued teaching for 'self-identification' defined teacher commitment in the same manner.

"I think it's like when you love to do something and you did not do it, you feel missing it... I feel that this is part of me. If I do not teach, I feel I am worthless, doing nothing." (BEGF2: 88-92)

Most of the beginning teachers (three out of four) recalled being a stranger in the first few days and looked for professional acceptance. They identified the first year of their career as critical to their commitment. Many teachers, who could not adjust themselves during this stage, left their career. New teachers in this study looked at their colleagues as a source for their discovery and supports. They tried to adjust themselves to the school social systems, learning to keep up to the collegial norms and looked for acceptance from the school constituencies: students, parents and colleagues.

One teacher recalled her first few days in the school as:

"The first few days of my work, I felt I did not know anything, I was a stranger in this place. As time passed, I felt better. I felt very nervous with administrators, elder colleagues and even the students." (BEGF2: 182-190)

A new teacher expressed her needs for acceptance as:

"(I am happy if) I can get along with everyone, I mean, colleagues and administrators. For students, as in teaching, it feels like, when you teach them, you get a good feedback especially from parents and students. This makes me happy to work ..." (STAF2: 101-104)

Unlike the primary teachers, the new secondary teacher in this study concerned about student acceptance and perceived herself as sister to her students.

"(I) worry whether I can get along with them, get their attentions and acceptance. If I can not adapt to this, I may not work on I would have felt a big distance between them and me. Somehow, I think students look at me as their sister when they come to me for consultations. They may not dare to talk with senior teachers right away. They would come to me first and I would give initial advice and ask them to talk to their classroom teachers." (BEGF2: 223-227)

However, induction program plays an important role supporting teachers in this stage, especially a good mentor system. One teacher asserts that a good mentor system helped her immensely.

"I do not have many problems in my first year. Most of my tasks focus on teaching. A mentor is assigned for each new teacher. I was so lucky to have a good mentor ... It made me feel very good about my career." (STAF2: 54-65)

Most of the beginning teachers in this study perceived school TC level as high and stable, and feeling loyal towards the school. They identified family atmosphere, collegial collaboration, clear directive work system and security and benefits as the main factors contributed to their TC reinforcement. On the other hand, they identified collegial conflict as the main factor undermined their sense of commitment. This implies that the beginning teachers tend to flourish in a work certainty environment and rely on their colleagues for their professional learning and social adjustment.

One teacher shared her experience about the relationship with her colleagues as:

"(I am) happy to teach and be with my peers and senior colleagues. Although teaching is important, colleague is important as well. If I do not have good peers and seniors, they would have left me out. I would not be able to stay. Luckily, both peers and seniors are nice and helpful to me." (BEGF2: 289-291)

New teachers identified collegial collaboration as important for their TC reinforcement.

"Colleagues are essential, since most of our learning activities depend heavily on group work. In my case, most of the projects come from the grade level meetings. I noticed that if we have been conflicting in any project, our work would not go on smoothly and there were a lot of criticisms. On the other hand, if we could agree and share our responsibilities well, we would be able to work better and achieve successfully." (BEGM1: 265-274)

On the contrary, the same teacher shared his experience on collegial conflict as:

"I think heavy work load is not a serious problem compare to collegial conflict. I feel more stressful if my colleague and I were in conflict, especially when we are teaching the same subject. In reality, I may not be able to quarrel with my colleagues if they were senior to me. I dare not speak out although feeling uneasy about it. In case of experience I have to accept them (the senior teachers)." (BEGM1: 365-374)

In the collectivist and feminine culture, where social harmony is essential and confrontation is not a common practice. Teachers are sensitive to personal and collective relationships and avoid conflict. Once conflict begins, it is difficult to reconcile with them and it may affect the quality of their work, especially, with work co-ordinations. In the case of new teachers,

collegial conflict is regarded as a great problem especially with their senior teachers. Conflict with senior teachers may result in career isolation and difficulties in career supports and assistances. In this situation, it would be difficult for new teachers to adapt themselves to their new career and school.

As new teachers adapting through their career, they pay attention to their financial security and benefits as well as job certainty. Most of the beginning teachers identified the clear directive work system, and welfare as important for their TC reinforcement.

A new teacher emphasised the importance of good welfare as:

"I think good welfare is important for me. This is one of the reasons why I choose to work here." (BEGM1: 350-351)

Clear directive work system was regarded as important for work certainty.

"Work system should be clear and stable. It must not change every now and then. This makes work certainty. You should not give order for one thing today and change on the next day. It should follow clear and good system." (STAF1: 198-211)

With regard to TC reaction, most of the beginning teachers employed discussion with colleague and consultations with their family members, as a means of coping with their problems. A teacher recalled how peers could be the source of their comforts and release.

"Being new teacher, all of us were in the same boat, feeling stress, encountering something new; colleagues, responsibilities, and superiors. When we were stressful and unhappy, we shared and felt that our friendship could change something serious into fun and joke." (STAF1: 233-240)

New teachers, occasionally, consulted with outsiders, as one teacher recalled sharing her work experience with her parents.

"I used to tell my parents about my students and they would listen to me and be happy with me. Sometime when I tell them how I did not control my temper with children, they would remind me that I should not have spoken with children that way. Children have got their own ideas. You should not be harsh with them." (BEGF2: 101-104)

They regarded family atmosphere as the important key for their TC enrichment.

"When I feel that more people understand me and being supportive. I feel warm being here. I feel somebody by my side and support me. I am not lonely." (BEGM1: 380-383)

In short, as summarised in the Table 7.4.1a and Table 7.4.1b, the beginning teachers are characterised as the period of survival, discovery and forming initial commitment. They identify the first year of their career as critical for their career commitment as they are hesitating with their careers, while they are trying to adjust to the new assignments and socialise into the new social environment. In a supportive environment, teachers at this stage begin to experience their initial commitment and look for professional acceptance from the community. Within a collectivist culture (Hallinger and Kantamara, 2000), new teachers tend to depend on their colleagues for their career stability and professional learning. In this condition, collegial conflict is regarded as the most important obstacle for their adjustments. As they are embracing this career and developing their initial commitment, they seek for professional acceptance from the school constituencies. Family atmosphere and job certainty are referred to as the important key for their career adjustment and security. They identify security and clear work system as the basic factors for their work certainty.

The role of the school is to provide new teachers with a sound and coherent work system. Family atmosphere should be regarded as pivotal in their adjustment phase. Good induction program, especially appropriate mentor systems are regarded as substantial for their career adjustment and development. As a consequence, this contributes to their work efficacy and socialise them into the new social environment. This form of scaffolder would be helpful for the new teachers in building and facilitate them to develop their initial teacher commitment. As suggested by Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) it is necessary to arrange the organisational contexts in a way that facilitate the core work conditions and allow new teachers to achieve their commitment.

Table 7.4.1a: Career characteristics in the beginning phase

Career stage	Critical period	Career attitude	Career needs	Career provision
Survival & discovery	First year	Un/intentional career entry	Professional acceptance	Induction program

Table 7.4.1b: Teacher commitment perceptions in the beginning phase

TC status	TC perception	TC reinforcement	TC obstacle	TC copings	TC enrichment
Initial commitment	Shallow & limited	Family atmosphere Collegial collaboration Clear directives Security & benefits	Collegial conflict	Discuss with colleagues Consult with family members	Family atmosphere

7.4.2 Teacher commitment in the stabilisation phase

Stabilisation phase is a career stage when teachers become adapted to the school environment, able to master their teaching, granted with tenured and accepted by the school community. Teachers in this stage are characterised as being confident and feel independent in their work. They feel more at ease with their career, free to use their own teaching styles, more flexible in classroom management, take pleasure in maintaining standards, and welcome new challenges and responsibilities. On the other hand, they also achieve the sense of being accepted by the school constituencies and belonging to a professional community. They are proud to have ones' own classroom, responsible for one's own subject and able to conduct personal projects. This stage is described as 'definite commitment', a decisive stage of teachers who chose teaching as their careers.

In this study, four teachers, two male and two female teachers, are classified as in their stabilisation phase (4-10 year). Three of these teachers (STAF1, STAF2, and STAM4) were having teaching experience before entering their present school. They reported teaching eight, seven, and two years in their previous schools consecutively. Another teacher (STAM3) entered the school right away from his graduation. The stabilised teachers in this study are

characterised as feeling at home, having confidence in their teaching, devote fully in student development, enjoy improving the quality of their work, ready to take up new responsibility and learning new knowledge. Some are promoted and interested in becoming involved in the wider activities and new challenging projects.

Teachers explained how school is like a home to them.

"By this time I feel in love with this place. It's like you feel at ease to go anywhere in the school. As time goes, I can get along with my colleagues." (DIVF2: 269-272)

One teacher explained how she feels confident in her tasks.

"I can feel that I can see the whole picture of what I am going to do from the beginning of the academic year. What would be the contents for this month, this week? I even see my plan through out the year and up to the annual evaluation. Above all, I am also promoted as a classroom teacher." (STAF1: 54-57)

Stabilisation phase is described as a period of joy and satisfaction in teaching.

"... I would enjoy spending my life with successful teaching. I want to keep up with my achievement. I don't want to go back and begin it again. I want to continue moving forward with this success." (CONF1: 274-276)

A teacher who was promoted as a classroom teacher shared her perspective as:

"Being promoted as classroom teacher, I feel I could use my full potentials. At the same time, I feel the need for a lot of development so as to look after over fifty students in my care. It's not just teaching and over but following up children works as well as their personality that trade back to their family background...when I know them I feel committed and realised that each one is different. Some come from a broken family. Some have got autistic problem. I feel pity for them. Although some are rich but they have got a lot of problems. I am not talking of something ideal but this is my real experience." (DIVF2: 178-206)

Stabilised teachers were confident, welcomed challenges and were ready to learn new things.

"My principle is to be myself and choose what is suitable for me ... This year, what I enjoy most is the new challenging project ... I am very happy with it as I seem to learn new thing each day." (STAF2: 261-269)

In relation to teacher identity, the majority of stabilised teachers tend to identify professionalism as the focus of their career. They identify 'love of teaching and children' and 'self identification' as the reasons for adopting teaching career. They characterise their teaching commitment as 'self identification' and 'subject identification' whilst define their commitment to school as 'loyalty'. They identify teacher commitment as important for their professional value, psychic reward, professional development, motivation, and financial security and benefits.

In relation to teacher commitment evaluation, most of the stabilised teachers indicated that the beginning phase as the critical period, whilst identify the stabilisation phase as their TC peak period. They referred grade level/subject matched, promotion, involvement, and family atmosphere as contributing to their stabilisation stage. On the other hand, grade level/subject mismatch and collegial conflicts were regarded as the main factors preventing them from achieving their commitment. However, grade level/subject mismatch could turn into a crisis if teachers continued to experience failure conditions for a longer period without proper solutions.

A teacher shared how grade level/subject matched and collegial supports are the source of his career fulfilment and happiness.

"Although I was graduated in secondary teaching I was put to teach in the primary section. In the first year of my work, the committee told me to teach in the primary level because there was no available post in the secondary that year. I told them I would like to teach secondary students because I was prepared for this. After two year I planed to leave and went to apply in some new schools. Fortunately, one secondary teacher was retired and I was promoted to teach in his place. Exactly! This is what I want. I was very exciting to meet with new things and very energetic to teach. Besides, I was very lucky to have good colleagues. All of us; peers, juniors, and seniors were very happy together." (DIVM5: 348-365)

Another teacher who took six years to establish her career shared how she was suffering from her collegial conflict experience.

"My previous (classroom) partner is a kind of emotional unstable. Sometime she smiled at me but sometime she nagged at me. When I did something wrong she would talk about it to others... I felt as if I am alien among them. This was not fun." (DIVF6: 22-27)

In this stage, teachers tend to have good professional identity. The majority of stabilised teachers perceive their personal TC level as high and stable. They identify family atmosphere, clear directive work systems, superiors' support, collegial collaboration, work facility, and opportunities for involvement as important for their TC reinforcement. By contrast, stabilised teachers perceive school TC level as moderate and stable. They identify policy changed, paperwork overloaded, unfairness, and collegial conflicts as the obstructive factors affecting teacher commitment.

In relation to TC reaction, the stabilised teachers still regard 'discussion with peers' as the important channel to tackle with their personal and work problems. However, as they get more familiar with their social environment and work systems, they increasingly consult with their superiors about their work. At this career stage, teachers are confident with their teachings, they are ready for new challenges and accept new responsibilities. They regard family atmosphere, superiors' support, and continued professional development as essential for their TC enrichments.

As summarised in Table 7.4.2a and Table 7.4.2b, the stabilised teacher is characterised as confident in developing one's own teaching style. They are decisive in their career and develop a definite commitment to teaching career. Being a professional teacher they invest fully in their careers. They value quality teaching and seek to achieve high professional standards. They view continued professional development as the important means to improve their work efficacy and commitment. Many of them are ready to engage in new projects and new responsibilities. As a result, they value collegial collaboration, opportunities for involvement, and superior support as the important factors for their TC reinforcements. By contrast, policy change, paperwork overloaded, collegial conflict, and unfairness may be the threats for teacher commitment.

At this stage, the school should pay attention to teachers' potentiality and respond to their professional development needs. School administrators have an important role in facilitating collaborative working conditions, as well as, providing the opportunities for growth and development. In this supportive work condition, stabilised teachers would continue to commit to their profession, engage fully in their work and involve with colleagues for professional development, which, in turn, contribute to the school improvement and development.

Table 7.4.2a: Career characteristics in the stabilisation phase

Career stage	Critical period	Career attitude	Career needs
Confident & independent	Beginning phase	Value teaching as profession	Involvement opportunity

Table 7.4.2b: Teacher commitment perceptions in the stabilisation phase

TC status	TC perception	TC reinforcement	TC obstacles	TC copings	TC enrichments
Definite commitment	Professional teacher	Superior supports Collegial collaboration Involvement opportunity Work facilitation	Policy change Paperwork overloaded Collegial conflict Unfairness	Discuss with colleagues Consult with superiors	Family atmosphere Superior supports CPD

7.4.3 Teacher commitment in the diversification and conservative phases

In realising one's own potential and needs, teachers have carved out into different career paths. Many teachers may continue to enjoy teaching and promote student achievement. Others expand their interests beyond their classroom, looking for more challenging work. Some look for power in the administrative structures. Others sought to invest their energy in various projects, in and outside their school. However, the changing conditions such as personal environment, education reform, economic depression, managerial styles, and micro politic may affect working conditions and lead them toward career frustrations. These changes may affect teacher commitment and turn them to reassess their professional standings. Some may be more flexible and manage to dispose of their problems in a positive way. Others may

fix to their ideology and develop the defensive mechanism to cope with changes. These conflicting stages could become critical if teachers can not compromise their professional identity with the wind of change.

In this study, six participants, two male and four female teachers, were classified as in the diversification phase (11-25 years) and seven participants, one male and six female teachers, were classified as in the conservative phase (26-33 years). The majority of diversified teachers perceived their critical period (TC bottom year) in the stabilisation phase (4-10 year), whilst the majority of conservative teachers perceived their critical period in the diversification phase (11-25 year). This seems to suggest that, teachers in different career phases tend to perceive their critical period differently. The majority of these teachers reported having experience in teaching in their previous schools.

Being a private school, teachers' career paths are limited to two lines: teaching and administrating. Many teachers continued to develop teaching expertise; others were interested in pursuing administrative posts. However, a good number of the teachers in this career stage were adopting both teaching and administrative tasks. They continued to teach as well as occupy certain administrative responsibilities, such as, head of an academic department, supervisor, and grade level co-ordinator.

A senior teacher confirmed her enthusiasm for teaching.

"I feel confident in the subject I teach. What always challenges me is how to transfer all this knowledge into students' heads. This is what I always eager to do. Even today, this feeling is still there." (CONF1: 76-78)

A senior teacher compared the beginning and diversification phases of his commitment.

"In the early period of my career, I enjoyed working and felt committed due to the family atmosphere and trust worthy friendship. Later on, I was highly involved with a lot of works (promoted as a department head). I rather commit myself to the responsibilities entrusted." (CONM2: 235-246)

Those who continued to invest in their teaching perceived professional autonomy, collegial collaboration, and continued professional development as TC reinforcement, whilst viewed

paper work overloaded, professional autonomy restriction, and collegial conflict as the important obstacles undermine their commitment.

Professional autonomy is regarded as essential for good teaching.

"At that time, I was very enjoyable and working hard. I taught twenty-three hours a week. It was not heavy for me. It is fun, provided no one (administrator) should be obstructive with my work."(CONM4: 108-125)

Collegial collaboration is very helpful for teachers in their professional progression.

"I refer to good colleague as the source of my TC reinforcement. In the grade level where I belong, we always work in team. We feel that we are part of the team. We always give our hand to whatever tasks we do. It is something our school would like it to be. Teamwork helps to ease fear and worry. Being a new classroom teacher, I worry about the quality of my job. If there is any problem (worry) we would be able to discuss about it." (DIVF2: 211-222)

Professional development is regarded as the on-going challenges for teachers.

"In this profession, I think, we need to develop our career continuously; we can not just stop here. We have to acquire knowledge all the time. We may not be very clever but we must be diligent in learning and curious to search for new knowledge. Everyday at school is a challenge. We don't know what will be the questions and new enquiries from the students? What will be the new knowledge prepared for our students? What courses or seminars are we going to attend to update ourselves, etc...?" (DIVM5: 331-336)

A senior teacher shared how paperwork overloaded was her career obstacle.

"Education reform is not so serious (for me). Reform is to do with changing texts and resources. It just causes confusion. A real handicap is the paperwork. It was the time when the school collected all kind of papers for quality assurance assessment, which was the big obstacle. How is it possible for everyone to provide evident for all that one does? If I were to collect all the evidences that I teach I will not find time to prepare my lesson. It is for me a real obstacle." (CONF1: 287-292)

Professional autonomy restriction is regarded as undermining teacher commitment.

"When I work, I don't like to be controlled and being forced from my work autonomy ... Most of this comes from the administrators. They like to set up rules and regulations to control. I don't like it

and don't want to follow it (rules and regulations). Or, if I have to, I would do it half-heartedly." (CONM4: 136-145)

Collegial conflict is regarded as one of the important obstacles for collaborative work.

"I don't like colleagues who do not have courage to confront with me. I am ready to take it if it's my faults, but if it's not I would have explained and clear it up. I felt very annoy to work with this kind of people. It certainly affects our work." (DIVM5: 279-284)

On the other hand, those who preferred administrative work perceive superiors' support, opportunities for involvement, and financial security and benefits as their TC reinforcements, whilst view micro politic, insecurity, and policy change as their TC obstacles.

Superiors' support is essential for teachers who are pursuing administrative work.

"One of the important factors for my success is being trust and support by my superior. He gave me the opportunities to work (administration). He had personal contact with us. During xxx mandate, we were not left alone with our work. Although we were small number at that time, we were very proud of it" (DISM2: 127-135)

Teachers who were interested in the administration perceived involvement opportunities as important for their sense of commitment.

"The school gave me the opportunity to involve in xxx issue. This issue has gradually begun to take shape in the school learning and teaching as well as activities. That was the time when I felt highly committed." (CONM3: 169-171)

Financial security and benefits is one of the main factors contributing to teacher commitment.

"(I decided to commit myself to this school) as the work system is secure. I mean, I am satisfy with my income ... I feel that school give me a lot of things ... yes, it gives me a good society, and the opportunities for self development such as my personality, learning, and good income for a better quality of life and standard of living." (DIVF2: 111-147)

Micro-politics, insecurity and beneficial conflict had become the negative source of commitment as reported by one teacher.

"... Benefit is part of it. It's like a political game. Sometime, they try to build balance between groups. This has become the cause for decreasing commitment in both old and new teachers." (CONM2: 318-321)

A teacher explained how policy change affected his teaching career.

"I don't want to mention the name of those who change our school work systems. This is a thorough change. I can not follow and works are increasing intense ... Administration system is changed. There are a lot of regulations and codes of punishment ... I am not a man who like to rules. It seems something is binding me up and weighs me down." (DIVM5: 371-381)

In order to encounter with changes, some teachers felt discontented and began to compare with their past experiences. They felt frustrated with the present condition and become conservative. The veterans in this study perceived their junior colleagues as poor in their professional value, disagree with new administrative systems, and felt the need to strengthen the school organisational culture.

A senior teacher criticised young colleagues as benefits oriented and not dedicated.

"The new generation does not follow our traditional culture, although they seem to be well trained and educated ... They are not committed, some tend to leave, other stay and plan for their further study. Unlike my group, the seniors are always there, no study leave, always dedicate for their students ... this new teachers are cultivating new ideas for their business. There are different new ideas (business minded) merging here." (CONM6: 211-216)

They criticise present work system and compare it with past experience.

"I've been here over twenty years. I have seen people work more seriously than today. Although the principal then was strict, we were happy. Previously we would overlook some small things. Today, since we have been in the system, we seem to be bothered with every detail. This breeds for more parties and more injustice done (CONM5: 94-99) ... I mean when the system is settled teachers have no opportunity but to be involved. During this period, teachers were not allowed to talk. They have to listen without questioning. The principal (school administrator) only listens to the co-administrators and if you have any problem you have to inform your immediate superior." (CONM5: 205-208)

By contrast, young teachers also criticise senior teachers for being conservative.

"Sometime, senior teachers ... fixed to the old school image. They are resentful that in the past they were like this, lived this way, and earned this much but it is not the same today. They are against the school system. The new generation would accept it (present system) because they have no such old picture. Like me and many of the young teachers, we try to establish our family but the senior teachers would say it is not the same, it was this way and not that way." (STAM4: 324-340)

Nevertheless, the TC evaluation indicated that the majority of the diversified and conservative teachers perceived their personal TC level as high and stable (11 out of 13 teachers) and identified professional factors (professional values, psychic rewards, academic culture and supportive environment) as contribute to their commitment. By contrast, they viewed the school TC level as moderate (10 out of 13 teachers) and identified organisational factors (policy change, paperwork overloaded, micro-politics and beneficial conflicts) as obstructive to their commitment.

This indicates that although the diversified teachers did not quite satisfy their work conditions they continued to have high commitment level. It is obvious that being conservative they were able to maintain their professional value and psychic rewards, as a consequence, they conserve their professional identity and job satisfaction. This sense of satisfaction is at the core of their professionalism. That is, teachers tend to value professional factors as the core aspects of their career and view organisational factors as the peripheral aspects which contribute to their professional aspects. This concept is manifested by a senior teacher who confirmed her professional identity as:

"I do not teach for the sake of money. I work with my heart. I work here as part of this school not as an employee." (CONF1: 181-184)

She continued to identify psychic reward as her main professional satisfaction.

"It (teaching student) is something most promising for me in my life, not money. It is the source of my joy and my challenges. It challenges me how to conquer these little hearts of children. My wish is how to keep them in the magic of my teaching." (CONF1: 280-284)

At this stage, we can see how teacher career trajectories are varied. Most likely, the way teachers perceive and react to the crises in their careers is substantial for the analysis. In order

to focus on the critical incidents, the study identified three types of crises: the painful beginning, the mid-career crisis, and the late-career bitterness. The critical incidents analysis helps us to understand; what are the causal factors affecting teacher commitment and how do teachers react to cope with these factors. This section analyses three crises incidents: the painful beginning, mid-career crisis, and the late-career bitterness, as the means to understand the changing nature of teacher commitment.

First, the analysis looks at 'the painful beginning' and teacher commitment. Teachers who experience painful beginning identify career ambiguity and grade level/subject mismatch as the important factors affecting the sense of their commitment. In this case, Penny is taken as the case study for this particular analysis. Penny is a primary teacher who had a tentative attitude at the beginning of her career. She did not want to study education. She took it, because she had no other better choices. After her graduation, she had to become a teacher. Anyhow, she was employed by the school to be a primary teacher. In addition, she was assigned to teach a subject that was not suitable for her.

"I was hesitating at that time, I did not teach the suitable subject. I did not feel confident to teach. Until the fifth year, I was changed to teach xxx subject. Then, I began (real) teaching and researched on it. Yes, it is my matched subject. I love it so much. As I love this subject, I also love to teach." (DIVF2: 57-61)

Under this suppressive condition, she was trying to change but this was not granted. She was struggling with her undesirable assignment and had been suffering for five years. She began to look for the alternative works for a better career fulfilment.

"I tried to apply for a new job. It seems after five years, I am quite old to begin a new career. But, if I continue to be a teacher somewhere else, this school is already one of the best ... some of my colleagues asked me to stay on and said, five years is too old to begin a new job." (DIVF2: 257-263)

Fortunately, after five years she was allowed to change her teaching subject. Helped by her new head of department, she felt confident and became successful in her career. This change had turned her from being an unfulfilled employee to a happy and meaningful professional teacher.

"As soon as I taught this subject, I searched and found that it was my subject. I felt in love with it and very happy to teach ... I am grateful to the department head who coached and supported me a lot ... I taught this subject and children were successful. I felt very good about the feedback and enjoy being successful." (DIVF2: 60-65; 99-101)

In addition, she felt assimilated into the teaching profession and the school, where family atmosphere and security contributed to her commitment.

"After seven years, I felt absorbed into this career. I felt I would be fit for this career. I gradually felt better and fall in love with this school. By this time I felt in love with this place. It's like you feel at ease to go anywhere in the school. As time goes, I can get along with my colleagues." (DIVF2: 45-46; 269-272)

Since then, she continued to have high image about herself and her profession. Now, Penny is happy with her career and described herself as having high and stable commitment. She loves to teach this subject and continue to enjoy her success. She has been teaching at the school for thirteen years, and wishes to continue with her profession until she retires.

The second case is characterised as 'the mid-career crises'. Mid-career crisis is not a consistent phenomenon in the literature of career life (Levinson, 1978). Usually, this phenomenon has a close link with psychological mid-life crisis and identifies organisational, political, economic, and family contexts as the prominent causes associated to it. In the mid-career crisis analysis, Paul's mid-career crisis is taken as the case study. Paul is a primary teacher. He has been teaching for thirty-two years, five years in the previous school and twenty-seven years in this school. Since he did not get educational qualifications at the beginning of his career, he was occupied with part-time study whilst responsible for full time teaching. However, Paul managed to get his degree from a famous university in Bangkok and enjoy his work as a teacher. He identified the first ten years of his career as having fun, as he said:

"In the early period of my career, I enjoyed working and felt committed within the family atmosphere and trust worthy friendship." (CONM2: 235-236)

During this supportive work environment, Paul was socialised into the professional culture, which he described as worthwhile, and in love with.

"My initial feeling was that this work is not bad at all. It's a good job and worth doing."(CONM2: 114-115)

While he was enjoying his career, some problems occurred almost at the same time and pushed him into crisis. He encountered both family and work problems.

"During these years, I felt like, all the problems pressed on me. My wife had an operation in the hospital. I was assigned to be a class teacher of two classrooms (laughing... a naughty one). My brother had a car accident. And, my student had got a fire accident in the science laboratory. I was sued by the boy's parents. I don't know why all these problems occurred to me almost simultaneously. It was heavy and confusing time for me." (CONM2: 276-282)

This crisis caused him to become restless and worry about a lot of things that had happened to his family and work. He said that, this incident had haunted him for three years. He became nervous and lost confidence for years. He could not concentrate on his work as he was struggling to cope with these problems. During the crisis, Paul turned to God and prayed for help.

"That was the time when I turned toward god for help. For example, when I and my students leave for excursion, I would pray and make petition to god for safety. I felt the needs of secret power and helps." (CONM2: 288-289)

In his crisis, he struggled very hard to cope with his problems. He identified superior supports and peers' concerns as the important factors for his survival. After three years, things gradually improved. He regained his confidence again and was promoted to be a department head. In this position, he involved actively in the department administration as well as teaching. He thought, after his mid-career crisis, he would be able to overcome all the barriers. At present, he enjoys his career and confirms with confidence that his commitment is high and stable.

The third case is characterised as 'the late-career crises'. Some teachers may gradually develop their career and progress continuously from the beginning till the late stage of their careers. However, as they become senior teachers, then something (such as, changed policy, education reform, and political agenda) is changed they find themselves out of place or unable to adjust to the changes. This had been the case of Ian. Ian is a senior teacher. He has been working for

thirty years in this school. He began as a primary teacher. Being a new teacher, he took first few years learning from his senior colleagues and became assimilated into this career. He identified supportive environment as an important condition contributed to his career success.

"I think supportive environment contributes to my professional happiness and success. It composed of many factors. At that time, teachers, students and parents accepted me. There were not so many teachers like today. Primary students were cheerful and I was close to them. Whatever I did was good and successful. Colleagues were very helpful. I was a new teacher learning. They coached and trained ... I learned and assimilated (profession) from them. I think, all these make up a warm atmosphere." (CONM7: 52-55)

After five years, Ian was promoted as a classroom teacher. Since then, he continued to enjoy his successful teaching for twenty years. He was promoted to be a grade level co-ordinator, a department head and an academic affair head consecutively. Then, at the peak of his career, he was demoted from his administrative post. He was shocked and confused about the sudden change. He did not understand why he has been demoted from his position.

"I was shocked. I was not prepared and could not accept the change. I thought about a lot of things ... may be I am worthless, did something wrong, or being ill-treated. I was very confused trying to find reasons for this." (CONM7: 100-103)

In disappointment, he tried to blame the school, but his commitment was so great that he could not hate the school and it was his commitment that gave him endurance.

"I try to hate the school but I can't. As I can not blame anything, I turn to blame myself. I don't understand why I am so committed to the school. Then, I try to decrease my commitment. I don't know whether I am right to do that." (CON7: 220-222)

In this case, it is obvious that Ian would have left the school if he hadn't been committed to the school. It is those particular values that hold him through the nights of crisis. He identifies this value as:

"If there is no commitment there is no happiness. Yes, if you are not committed you just do what is your duty. You do just what you are hired for and stop when the time is over...For me, commitment refers to the life that goes on day and night. It concerns about what is going to be tomorrow and think of it all the time. I don't mean that I work both night and day but my mind does." (CONM7: 129-136)

As Ian is so much identified with this value, he tried to share it through all possible means.

"To promote commitment, I try to share the (school) history. I recall some (previous teachers') models and try to transfer them. Or..., when we read the stories of the past we feel absorbed with them. I mean, when we read the past events and we feel committed and we collected them. Then, we write or talk to share them." (CONM7: 244-247)

Although Ian's commitment was quite unstable, at the time of the interview, he wished he would be able to recover from his resentment and regain his confidence soon. Ian continues to strengthen his professional value and shares it with the school community. He said, although he is not sure whether his sharing would benefit others but this contributes to strengthen him.

Although those crises took shape in different forms, times and sources, teachers were suffering the same course: become frustrated, feel worthless, lose of personal and career confidence and unmotivated to work. However, the analysis indicates that these teachers tend to identify personal disposal, professional value, superiors' support, and family atmosphere (or personal care and concerns) as the supportive factors carry them along their crises. Most likely, these teachers overcome their crises through: hold firm to professional values, get colleagues' encouragement, and receive superiors' supports. As a result, they were able to dispose of their crises in a positive way. This implies that during the period of crisis, teacher commitment may be affected by the change of circumstances, as the consequence their substantial identity were challenged. However, professional value and social conditions are regarded as the essential factors maintaining their professional identity and teacher commitment.

As summarised in Table 7.4.3a and Table 7.4.3b, teachers at this career stage are progressing in their career paths. In a supportive condition, teachers continue to develop and find fulfilment in their career and have their teacher commitment established. However, during the course of career development, some changes may affect their core values and withdraw them into a stage of career crisis and reassessment (beginning, mid-career and late-career crises).

Some may find this condition as the obstacles to slow down their career development. Others find it hard to cope with and develop negative mechanism for self-defence. These teachers tend to compare and fix to past experience, develop negative work attitudes and become conservative. These negative attitudes can become an important mechanism in obstructing their professional development and teacher commitment. However, teachers identify the sense of moral purposes, superiors' support and supportive work conditions as the important factors contributing to maintain teacher commitment in the time of crisis.

Schools should provide teachers with the opportunities for professional development and to be aware of the changes that will obstruct their professional achievement. However, changes in education are unavoidable, teachers should be encouraged to participate actively in the school strategic plan and be involved throughout the changing process. On the other hand, administrators should facilitate the school environment, where family atmosphere is the source of mutual understanding and work co-ordinating for the common goals. Teachers should be empowered to participate actively on changes; and work collaboratively to cope with changes.

Table 7.4.3a: Career characteristics in the diversification phase

Career stage	Critical periods	Career attitude	Career needs
Diversification	Beginning crisis Mid-career crisis Late-career crisis	Progression/ Reassessment	Growth & development opportunities

Table 7.4.3b: Teacher commitment perceptions in the diversification phase

TC status	TC perception	TC reinforcements	TC obstacles	TC copings	TC enrichment
Established commitment	In and beyond classroom	Professional value Intrinsic reward Academic culture Superior supports	Policy change Paperwork overloaded Professional conflict Micro politic	Discuss with colleagues/ Superiors Prayer/ Conformity Manipulation	Family atmosphere Superior supports CPD Prof-value promotion

7.4.4 Teacher Commitment in disengagement phase

The evidence from many Western studies (e.g. Sikes, 1985; Fessler and Christensen, 1992; Huberman, 1993) represent the final phase of teachers' career lives as disengagement and characterised by decreased in enthusiasm, retreat from active involvement, disaffection and preparation for career exit. By contrast, this study showed that within Thai culture, the senior teachers in this study were recognised by the community as venerated and veteran professionals. As a consequence, they tend to occupy important roles and positions and remained active and enthusiastic in the school. The common concerns among all the senior teachers were health problems and welfare after their retirement. This could be a period of contentment and happiness, for some, as they recalled their pleasant and successful memories. For others, it could be a bitter experience to be distant from their goals and thus become disappointed.

In this study, three participants, two male and one female teachers (DISF1, DISM2, and DISM3), are classified by their work experience as in the disengagement phase (34-40 years). They are characterised as having high school attachment, health concerns and emphasis on financial security and welfare especially after retirement. However, it should be noted that, Thai culture has provided a special role for these senior teachers. In spite of being advanced in age, they appear to remain active, and happy to engage in school activities. Family culture of Thai society tends to respect senior members and expects them to play a leading role in the community. Senior teachers also provide professional role models and are often the co-ordinators of other teachers' work in the school.

Sometimes, however, senior teachers would like to retreat from their work.

"It's happened sometime ... when I was very stress with my work, I thought I would like to take a rest, I don't want to go (and work) anymore." (DISF1: 204-205)

Health problems were the main obstacles for teaching.

"This is the lowest period in my teacher commitment. During these two years, I have been suffering from health problem ... my voice is fainted, I have no voice ... it obstructs with my teaching" (DISM3: 106-117)

One of the main concerns for senior teachers was the financial security and welfare, especially after retirement.

"I am very happy being here. My financial status, my job and everything is secured ... even after retirement you got money, it's secure." (DISF1: 192-198)

A senior teacher expressed how she felt attached to the school.

"I have been here (the school) for more than thirty years, it is a home ... I am very much attached to it especially when I am going to be retired. It's natural to think of this and that...I doubt whether the younger generations will love the school as much as I do." (DISF1: 165, 187-188)

In relation to TC characteristic, teachers at this stage tend to extend their commitment perception across the school community. They regard all of the school constituencies such as student, parent, colleague, and administrator as important for their commitment. However, they continue to value teacher commitment as important for their professional value and psychic rewards.

School community was regarded as the important source of teacher commitment.

"I commit to all of them; school director, colleagues, students, and even janitors ... if any of them left, I would feel sorry and wish they would stay on." (DISF1: 120-124)

In relation to TC evaluation, two of the disengaged teachers (DISF1 and DISM3) in this study perceived their personal TC levels as high and stable, whilst viewed the school TC level as high but unstable due to the policy change and professional value conflict. Another teacher (DISM2) perceived his personal and school TC level as moderate and unstable. The disengaged teachers identified the diversification phase as their TC peak year due to the superiors' support and promotion. They viewed conservative and disengagement phase as their TC bottom year due to policy change, demotion and health problems.

The analysis indicates that personal disposition and professional identity of the disengaged teachers as an important indicator to explain and predict teacher commitment at the end of their career. It is obvious that teachers who emphasise commitment to teaching, employed positive disposal, perceived high and stable TC level, and developed a serene career ending. By

contrast, those who emphasis commitment to school and employed negative disposal perceived their commitment as moderate and unstable and may end up with a bitter and unsatisfied career end. Although both kinds of teachers are encountering the same problems they tend to dispose of their obstacles in different ways. The highly committed teacher would conform and manipulate with TC obstacle while the moderate committed teachers tend to rebel against the problems.

The highly committed would emphasise on commitment to teaching:

"It begins from how you love it (teaching) ... Next, we must be good teacher and be able to transfer knowledge to students with dedication without beneficial interest."(DISM3: 41-64)

On the other hand, the moderate committed would focus on the commitment to school:

"I would refer teacher commitment to three relation aspects. The first aspect is regarding teacher and the institution. Wherever we stay and feel good, good beginning, I believe, earned 60-70 percent (commitment). The second aspect is the relationship with administrator. It's difficult to separate administrators and the institution ... The third aspect is the relation with your pupils including their parents. This image contributes to the school." (DISM2: 47-61)

The committed teachers view and cope with the problems in a positive manner:

"Most likely, most of the school directors want to change for the better. They demand teachers to work on their curriculum, sometime with haste, repetition, and changes. Besides, we are still responsible for our teaching and the rest. Many teachers are stressful and worrying about their teaching ... I told my colleagues to be compromised with the changes as change is unavoidable but we should know how to choose and what is the best for our application." (DISF1: 280-286)

By contrast, the moderate committed teachers would look at the problems in a negative way and feel disappointed.

"It (sense of commitment) is in recession and mostly caused by the administrators. Many of these administrators want to develop teachers but somehow they push too hard and is not relevant to the reality ... I understand that the administrator is looking for success. They want to change things fast but it may not be very fast. At the same time, what important here is the administrators' speech. They deliver a kind of destructive words that hurt the teachers."(DISM2: 95-108)

As summarised in Table 7.4.4a and Table 7.4.4b, although the disengaged teachers showed some signs of decline in commitment, they remained active and willing to be involved in the school. Within Thai culture, they are respected for their seniority and are expected to be the professional models, counsellors and co-ordinators in the schools. Teachers at this career stage are concerned for the wider scope across the school. This finding differs from that of Huberman (1993) who identified the final phase as being characterised by "disengagement". The Thai teachers remain deeply attached to the school and sensitive for any kind of change that would affect the school. However, the common concerns of senior teachers are the needs for job security and welfare. They are fixing themselves in a particular role and look for security and welfare after the retirement.

Although there were only three disengaged teachers in this study, the data reviewed two kinds of career ending attitudes: career contentment and career discontentment. The contented teachers perceived changes and disposed of it in a positive way, whilst the discontented teacher emphasised on the negative aspects of change and became frustrated. The positive teachers identified prayer, conformity and manipulation as the means to cope with changes, whereas, the negative teachers identified rebellion as the means to cope with their problems. Senior teachers should be provided with an appropriate role in the school. Professional experience and specialisation of senior teachers should be acknowledged and used for the benefits of the school. More particularly in Thai culture, senior teachers are recognised as professional body to lead, supervise, mentor and provide counselling to the other teachers in the school. They should be recognised as the social co-ordinators that build up school communal harmony and family atmosphere. On the other hand, schools should take particular concerns for senior teachers' health and welfare and provide a career exit program for their retirement. This kind of recognition and welfare policy would be a source of morale for the school community and build up professional solidarity among teachers.

Table 7.4.4a: Career characteristics in the disengagement phase

Career stage	Critical periods	Career attitude	Career needs
Unenthusiastic & retreating	Disengagement & Conservative phases	Bitterness/ Serenity	Security & welfare

Table 7.4.4b: Teacher commitment perceptions in the disengagement phase

TC status	TC perception	TC reinforcements	TC obstacle	TC copings	TC enrichments
Final commitment	Across school community	Security & benefits Collegial collaboration Psychic reward Involvement opportunity	Policy change Paperwork overloaded Professional conflict Micro politic	Prayer/ conformity Manipulation Resistance	CPD Collegial collaboration Welfare & security

In summary, the findings of teacher commitment in career life indicate that teachers in this study seem to develop their career lives according to the general trends proposed by Huberman (1993). That is, they tend to identify themselves as survival and discovery in the beginning phase, develop career confidence and independence in the stabilisation phase, pursue career progression and career reassessment in the diversification phase, but remain enthusiastic in the disengagement phase. It is the indicator that explains teachers' career stages and gives meanings to their professional existence and closely relate with teacher identity. Teachers tend to hold on to certain substantive identity or professional values and use situated identity to adapt themselves to the work in a changed environment (Nias, 1989; Ball and Goodson, 1985; Ball, 1972).

Teacher commitment tends to emerge in the beginning phase of teaching career. Intentional career entry and supportive environment workplace is perceived by the new teachers as essential for career adjustment and initial commitment. In another words, the initial teacher commitment depends primarily on the matching between the substantial self possessed by new teachers and the work environment that contribute to realise and nourish it. By contrast, the

substantial self of new teachers may never be realised if they find themselves lost in the poor working conditions. It would be hard for these teachers to acquire the necessary stimulation or psychic rewards and fulfilment in their careers. In such situation, new teachers tend to be frustrated and leave their career, if they could not find meaning within their career. This stage is regarded as the critical period (Sikes, 1985) for new teachers who must make a decision whether teaching is their career or they will look for the alternative careers.

Teachers who experience initial commitment achieved definite commitment as they develop their pedagogical confidence, establish personal teaching style and decide to take teaching as their profession. In this condition, they develop performance efficacy and boast job satisfaction. They value professionalism as central to their career and looked at the school academic norms as their work standard. As a result, they sought to be involved in all the related activities. They perceive professional development and collegial collaboration as important for their professional growth. They view superior supports and work facility as the means to increase their work efficiency. However, changing policy, paperwork overload, collegial conflict, and unfairness were perceived as the threat to their professional practices and obstruct their professional development.

As teachers continued to progress in their career, they establish a firm commitment on their profession and their school. Many teachers continued to enjoy the achievement of their students and maintain this success. Others sought to participate in the school administration. However, in the course of career progression, some organisational changes had challenged their professional value (or substantial self) and affected their core professional practices (Rosenholtz and Simpson, 1990). In this condition, teacher identity is put into confusion. Many of these teachers are obstructed by the changes and reassessed their professional standing. Those who can reconcile their situational self with their substantial self are able to adapt to the changes. Others, who find it hard to adjust to their situational self, left the job or become conservative.

The disengagement phase for Thai teachers is different from those of the western counterparts. Thai culture value senior teachers and give respect to them. They are accepted by society to be

the social models and take leading roles in the community. Some teachers at this stage may show some signs of un-enthusiasm. Nevertheless, many of them remain active participants in the school. They share their experience with the younger generation of teachers and offer counselling to those who are in need. However, like that of Huberman's (1993), they seem to dispose of their situational self in two directions: bitterness and serenity. It is essential for the school to understand the nature of teacher commitment and cope with it in a proper way. The beginning phase, especially the first year, is recognised as the critical period for teacher commitment. An appropriate induction program would contribute to increase new teachers' work efficacy and socialises them into the new school culture. As teachers engage confidently in their careers, the appropriate programmes for professional development are needed for their career growth and strengthen their commitment. In addition, the active involvement in the school functions, more particularly with regard to school development and changes would help to sustain their sense of belonging. Promoted as a professional model, senior teachers have a prominent role to maintain cultural norms and academic standard. They are recognised as the glue of the school community and the co-ordinators to facilitate collaborative work. However, school administrators are regarded as the determinant body for the organisational conditions that affecting teacher commitment.

7.5 Summary of Interview Findings

By nature, teacher commitment is regarded as an intrinsic quality of a professional teacher. The committed teachers entered teaching careers with a positive attitude, have passion for teaching, uphold professional value and practice, refer to students as the main source of professional investment and satisfaction and value professional development as at the centre of their careers. The moral nature of schooling leads teachers to devote to the school goals and values, dedicate for quality teaching and care for students. Teacher commitment is complex, dynamic and closely linked with teacher identity. Derived from teacher identity, teacher commitment provides teachers with the meanings, values, and the images of being a teacher. This in turn, makes a strong impact on teacher professional attitudes and practices. However, teacher commitment is a contextual bound process that develops and changes according to personal environment, school culture, and the trajectory of teacher career life.

Teachers tend to establish and develop their commitment as they progress in their professional career. They begin to form initial commitment in the beginning phase, anchor definite commitment in the stabilisation phase, develop established commitment in the diversification phase, and end up with final commitment in the disengagement phase. However, its development could vary depending on the contextual conditions and the way they dispose of their problems and contribute to enrich it. The study indicates that teachers tend to identify positive professional factors as important for their TC reinforcement and perceive organisational factors as the conditioning that may contribute positively or negatively to their professional factors. As a result, they view supportive organisational factors as important for their TC enrichment. In this context, the study indicates that school administrators and senior teachers have an important role to promote collaborative work culture and construct supportive work conditions which cherish professionalism and sustain teacher commitment in the school.

CHAPTER EIGHT
DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this chapter, the research findings of the quantitative analysis (the survey research in Chapter four) and the qualitative analysis (the interview research in Chapter five) are linked in order to investigate the extent to which the results from a single case match the findings from the larger population. This provides one of the means for research validation. The synthesis of these studies includes the discussion of the general findings concerning teacher commitment, the contextual factors affecting teacher commitment and the perceptions of teacher commitment in different career phases. The chapter concludes with a summary of the matching analysis discussion.

8.1 The General Findings of Teacher Commitment

This section is a synthesis of the general findings of teacher commitment from the questionnaire survey and the interview study. The synthesis focuses on the significant issues from both of the studies. The results indicate that most of the main findings from both studies are congruent. However, as the nature of the questionnaire survey is limited by its forced choice rating, which may not really reflect the whole concept of the samples; the interview findings, which provide direct and narrative details, seem to complement and explain the survey results. Nevertheless, the research synthesis contributes to the better understanding of teacher commitment and the contextual factors affecting it.

8.1.1 Reasons for being a teacher

In relation to the reasons for being a teacher, both of the studies (the questionnaire survey and the interview study) suggest that the majority of the SGF teachers embraced teaching because of their love of teaching and children (48.4 % and 68.18 %). Although the questionnaire divides this issue into two choices: love of teaching (35.0 %) and love of children (13.4 %), the interview findings confirmed that teachers tend to combine these two issues. The affective attitude to teaching and children implies that the teachers choose teaching as their preferred choice, which reflects their passion for teaching (Day, 2004; Hargreaves, 1998) and identifies their career identity (Nias, 1989). This kind of positive

career attitude and passionate emotion (See Section 7.2.1) is regarded as one of the important factors contributing to teacher commitment.

Teaching is an emotional career and being passionate about teaching is a significant characteristic of a good teacher. The way teachers teach is based strongly on their relationships with their students. A passionate teacher, is "*associated with enthusiasm, caring, commitment, and hope, which are themselves key characteristics of effectiveness in teaching*" (Day 2004: 12). This kind of affectivity is necessary for teachers because it derives from their personal and professional principles, values and sense of purposes. As a consequence, teachers devote to the school objectives and goals and invest enthusiastically to develop students' achievement and care for their well being beyond their immediate posts. This, in turn, motivates them to acquire continuously for their professional development and the growth of their students.

A passion for teaching, therefore, characterises the way teachers feel about themselves and about their students which contribute to form their professional identity (James-Wilson, 2001). It is this emotional identity that justifies, explains and makes sense of the way teacher embrace teaching careers. This kind of professional identity is categorised by Woods (1983) as the vocational teachers (mostly in primary teachers) and the professional teachers (mostly in secondary teachers). These two categories of attitudes are described as having positive attitude toward teaching, take up teaching as their career choice, identify intrinsic motivation or psychic rewards (refer to the intrinsic psychological rewards; such as making a difference to students' achievement, the development of professional autonomy and participation in decision-making processes as being the reasons for entering teaching) They perceive teaching as the source of their job satisfaction. However, teacher identity is complex and dynamic. It involves personal biography, personal aspirations, values and beliefs. It is bound to the social, political, organisational, personal and work circumstances.

On the other hand, the analysis shows that, by nature, teachers tend to have more than one reason for being a teacher. Although 'love of teaching' was regarded as the most important reason for their careers, teachers reported the following reasons as underpinning their teaching career: 'love of subject', 'social development', 'self identification', 'social status' and 'financial security and benefits'. This finding confirms the recent studies that teachers recognise both professionalism (teachers' rights and obligations to determine and control

their own tasks in the classroom) and professionalization (teachers' status and benefits) as important for their career (Sachs, 2003; Englund, 1996; Helsby and McCulloch, 1996). Further on, the interview analysis (See Section 7.2.1) showed that new teachers with an intentional career entry attitude could adapt and commit to teaching more effectively than tentative teachers. This implies that the initial career attitudes within a teacher's professional identity and career status are perceived as important factors affecting teacher commitment.

8.1.2 Teacher commitment characteristics

With regard to the concepts of teacher commitment, both of the studies regarded teacher commitment as complex and multidimensional. The findings suggested that teacher commitment is mainly composed of three domains: personal [the sense of personal investments in the teaching career (Nias, 1989)], professional [the sense of involvement in the process of instruction, which determines the amount of effort they put into teaching to promote students' learning and well-being (Firestone and Pennell, 1993)] and organisational commitment [a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values <identification>, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation <involvement>, and a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation <loyalty> (Mowday et al., 1982)].

It is obvious from the study that many of these teachers became a teacher because of their personal aspirations to dedicate their lives for teaching children and for the good of society. As argued by Wood et al. (1997; 152) that "*teaching is a matter of values. People teach because they believe in something. They have an image of the good society*". These teachers identified past impressions and previous experiences, especially during their school time, as the sources of their career ambitions. Still during their teaching career, these teachers described themselves as addicted to teaching and school. They could not help, but allowed themselves to be occupied most of their time. They spent their evenings and weekend in reflecting on their works, looking for the new strategies to solve problems and improve teaching. This is the sense of altruism that leads teachers to self-expenditure during and after the school day (Nias1999).

According to the analysis, both parts of the research findings emphasised 'commitment to school' and 'commitment to teaching' as the prominent characteristics of teacher

commitment. The survey findings perceived teacher commitment as 'acceptance of the school goals and values' (51.2 %), whilst the interview findings view it as 'loyalty' to the school (81.81 %). This concept of commitment appears to give a broad definition, which explains teacher commitment as the bond derived from the goals and values, matching personal and professional goals and values with those of the school (Reyes, 1990). This domain of commitment is regarded as important, since it includes the holistic aspects of the school in a general sense.

On the other hand, the interview findings emphasised 'commitment to teaching' as an important concept along with 'commitment to school'. They referred to commitment to teaching as responsible for students' well-being and growth (59.99 %) and love of teaching and children (50.0 %), whilst the survey findings indicate 'devotion' (8.0 %) as the characteristic of professional commitment. This finding confirms the recent study in which teachers tend to have various concepts about teacher commitment (Louis, 1998). The way teachers defined their commitment depends on the commitment concepts they stressed. Nevertheless, researchers tend to distinguish schooling from other kinds of organisation (such as: Cohen, 1999; Firestone and Pennell, 1993; Billingsley and Cross, 1992). In the complex nature of schooling, both professional and organisational commitments are related and affect each other (Tyree, 1996). These commitment dimensions are necessary for teacher performance as they need both technical and managerial domains for successful teaching (Somech and Bogler, 2002).

8.1.3 Sources of teacher commitment

Although teachers referred to various factors as the sources of their commitment, both of the studies agree that the SGF teachers identify 'students' as the most important source of their commitment (34.1 % and 100 %). According to the interview analysis, it was obvious that teachers view students as the main targets of their profession. The main role of teachers was to promote students' learning and support students' well being. As a consequence, students were regarded as the most important source for teachers' motivation, psychic rewards and job satisfaction (Rosenholtz, 1989).

In reality, teachers may identify various sources, such as educational values, school, administrators, colleagues, and subjects, as important for their commitment. However, the interview findings indicate that they perceive these factors as secondary sources, which

contribute to the core commitment source of their profession. That is, all the peripheral commitment sources are regarded as important as long as they are supportive to the professionalism and the ultimate goals of teaching. The work conditions where teachers can dedicate for students' well being and learning achievement (Darling-Hammond, 1988; Devaney and Sikes, 1988).

Teaching is a moral enterprise and professionalism is at the heart of teachers' practises (Sockett, 1993). Teachers commit themselves responsible for the growth of their students. As a consequence, teachers identify students' achievement and professional development as the main sources of their job satisfaction (Dinham and Scott, 1997; Nias, 1989) and regard work conditions, such as, principals' behaviours and colleagues' relationship as supportive or obstructive to their works (Evans, 1992). However, although individualism is the dominant nature of teaching, it is argued that privacy norms put limit to teachers' learning and professional commitment (McLaughlin and Talbert, 1993; Little, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1989). It is the norm of collegial collaboration culture where professional respect and mutual sharing are at the heart of their professional learning and growth (McLaughlin and Talbert, 2001).

8.1.4 The importance of teacher commitment

The findings with regard to the importance of teacher commitment from both parts of the research agree that the SGF teachers regarded professional values (46.5 % and 77.27 %) as the most important goal for their commitment. Teaching is an ethical practice and teachers are obliged by a strong sense of responsibility to do the best for their students (Carr, 2000). Teachers, as professionals, hold on to professional values as the principles of their careers. They are working hard to realise and justify these values. As a consequence, committed teachers are motivated to engage in continuing professional development as a means of fulfilling their professional values. It is the same values that strengthen teachers to fight against the odds and responsible for the needs of their students and of a just society, in spite of the increasing tensions and demands of education reform.

In addition to professional values, teachers also perceive commitment as the means of providing them with intrinsic rewards, work motivation, academic achievement and self-efficacy. The interview analysis indicates that teacher commitment seems to generate a motivated professional development cycle in their careers. That is, the more teachers invest

in a teaching career, the more psychic rewards are earned in return. This kind of motivation is essential as it links to work-efficacy and student achievement (Rosenholtz, 1989). Committed teachers are confident about their instructional practises and believe in the students' capability. They are optimistic at all the challenges encountered and are ready to work co-operatively for the good of their students and school.

8.1.5 Factors affecting teacher commitment

With regard to the factors affecting teacher commitment, the findings of both of the studies emphasise the role of management and leadership, which contributes to or obstructs the professional conditions and result in the perceptions of their commitment positions. The analysis shows that the SGF teachers regarded school management/leadership and professional factors as contributing to teacher commitment. Nevertheless, the studies seemed to have different emphases. The survey findings appeared to give priority to the role of management and leadership (20.5 %), followed by sense of respect (19.1 %) and collegial collaboration (17.2 %) as supportive factors, whilst the interview findings identified collegial collaboration (54.54 %), superiors' support (40.90 %) and security and benefits (40.90 %) as contributing to teacher commitment. Perhaps, the differences from these two findings may result from the immediate innovations (changing towards bi-lingual curricula) in the school of the interview project.

On the other hand, teachers tend to perceive negative organisational conditions as the prominent areas deteriorating professional conditions, which in turn, affect their sense of commitment (See Section 6.2.3). As opposite to the TC reinforcement, the survey analysis emphasised the negative roles of management and leadership (29.4%), education policy change (22.2 %) and collegial conflict (13.8 %). Whilst, the interview analysis regarded education policy changes (59.99 %), micro-politics or unfairness (45.45 %) and professional value conflict (40.90 %) as the important factors obstructing their commitment. Both of the studies seemed to agree that the roles of leadership, such as policy changes, micro-politic, and management; and the negative professional conditions, such as collegial conflict and professional value conflict were the main obstacles for teacher commitment.

By and large, therefore, the analysis showed that administrators played a determinative role in shaping work conditions, in which, teachers may perceive as supportive or obstructive to their sense of commitment. In order to reinforce teacher commitment, it is essential that

professionalism be respected, supportive work conditions are created and maintained; and school structures are organised to facilitate collegial collaboration. By contrast, teachers viewed the negative aspects of the school administration (such as, task oriented work system, policy changes and paper-work overloaded) and the obstructive professional conditions (such as, professional autonomy restriction, collegial conflict and poor work facility) as undermining their sense of commitment. It is essential that schools should be aware of the factors, which undermine professional values and practises. As a response to this, the school administrators were suggested to be the kind of 'people-centred leadership' (Day et al, 2000: 167), who build the community of trust and care that contribute to the professional growth of professional teachers.

8.1.6 Teacher commitment: coping with changes

With regard to TC maintenance analysis, both of the studies agree that the SGF teachers preferred discussion with colleagues (33.7 % and 69.09 %) and compliance (37.4 % and 36.36 %) as the means to deal with the changes which affect the sense of their commitment. As explained in the interview analysis, in the highly power distance and collectivist culture of Thai society, teachers tend to avoid direct enquiry and confrontation with their principals and co-administrators. In the high power distance culture (a society or organisation where power differences are accepted, hierarchy and status ranking are assumed as parts of the administration functions) a compliant attitude is common amongst the subordinate). 'Compliance' tends to be the common solution for coping with innovations and policy changes, which results in a 'just do it' mentality and limits the ability of teachers' agency (Hallinger and Kantamara, 2000). In this situation, discussing with colleagues was regarded as the common outlet to cope with their uncomfortable feelings. However, the interview data shows that this kind of sharing and discussion may be a channel for tension release, but may not help them with their problems. It is essential that the gap between teachers and administrators be bridged to provide healthier problem solving and effective work collaboration.

The interview analysis showed that family atmosphere is regarded as a specific characteristic of Thai culture which builds up social bonds between the community members which can bridge the gap between teachers and administrators. Through this cultural bond, teachers are able to participate in mutual goals and share common responsibilities. In spite of the hierarchical structure, they could feel at ease in discussing

with their senior colleagues and administrators and participating in the school decision-making. Through this family relationship, problems are addressed, work collaboration is strengthened and teacher commitment is nourished. Therefore, it is essential that administrators and the senior staff should be aware of the condition of this cultural bond and work collaboratively to maintain family atmosphere in the school community (Talbert and McLaughlin, 1996).

As illustrated by the interview analysis, although the teachers in this study described themselves as contaminated by the reform agendas, many of them managed to overcome these problems through 'manipulation' (the ability to adapt and control over changes for the benefits of students and school) of the curriculum for the good of their students and the school. These teachers indicate that the principal's leadership as the directions for their practise. This confirms that in a power distance culture, school leadership plays a prominent role in teachers' professional life. Principals do not just shape work conditions in school, they too influence indirectly and reciprocally to affect teachers' work attitudes and practises, and this in turn, affect the outcome of the students and the school as a whole (Hallinger and Heck, 1998).

8.1.7 Maintenance of teacher commitment

In relation to teacher commitment maintenance, the two studies reported different results (as mention in Section 8.1.5: this could be the effects of the immediate innovations in the school where the interview project took place). The questionnaire survey identifies continued professional development (51.5 %) and collegial collaboration (14.8 %) as the important means to maintain and enrich teacher commitment, whereas the interview findings indicate superiors' support (50.0 %) and family atmosphere (45.45 %) as the important means to maintain teacher commitment. That is, the survey analysis emphasised the opportunities for learning and working collaboratively as an important means to maintain and enrich teacher commitment, whilst the interview analysis regarded the supportive work conditions as the TC enrichment factor.

Although the findings from both of the studies appeared to be different, they emphasise the needs of professional development on TC maintenance. That is, the survey analysis indicate continuing professional development as a means to contribute to their professional needs, whilst the interview study identify the supportive work conditions for professional

development. This implies that although teachers regard professional development as the means to maintain teacher commitment, it is essential that teacher concerns be addressed and that supportive work conditions are provided to minimise work uncertainty and role ambiguity (van der Vegt et al. (2001).

In summary, teacher commitment is complex and multidimensional. The committed teachers are characterised as vocational teachers (Hansen, 1995), enthusiasts (Day et al, 2000), with high self-efficacy (Rosenholtz, 1989), idealists (Sockett, 1993) and active learners (Day, 2004). Being a professional teacher base their practises on moral purposes, teachers hold on to professional values and identify students' growth and well being as the main source of job satisfaction and fulfilment. This kind of professional identity leads them to dedicate themselves to their teaching careers. They were enthusiastic to meet the needs of their students. As a consequence, professional development was at the heart of their career. Students were regarded as the core source of their commitment, rewards and job satisfaction. However, teacher commitment is complex, multidimensional and dynamic, and links closely with teacher identity. In order to understand teacher commitment better, it is essential to examine personal and professional identities of teachers and the factors affecting them in the nature of their career phases.

8.2 Teacher Commitment and Changes

Although teacher commitment is believed to be one of the important qualities for a good teacher, it is not always stable and is bound to change over time. Teacher commitment is a process of development throughout the course of a teacher's career and is influenced by personal, organisational and work environments. To understand teacher commitment, it is important to study how teacher commitment changes. In this section, the nature of changes in the perceptions of teacher commitment will be examined and discussed.

8.2.1 Teacher commitment positions and changes

With regard to teacher commitment evaluation, both of the quantitative and qualitative studies agreed that the majority of the SGF teachers perceived their personal commitment as being different from their collective commitment. That is, teachers tended to perceive personal commitment as high whilst evaluate collective commitment as moderate (See Sections 6.3.1 and 7.3.1). The interview analysis explains this phenomenon

as a result of different professional identities amongst teachers. This implies that teachers tend to uphold some values as the principles of their profession. The same values are used as the norms to judge their colleagues' attitudes and behaviours. As a consequence, they judge and distinguish their group from the others (such as: student oriented versus financial benefits oriented) who have different professional identity (Nias, 1989). The differences in values resulted in the lower perceptions of the collective commitment in the study (See Section 7.3.1).

In relation to the factors affecting TC positions, both of the studies agree that professional factors, such as 'sense of respect', collegial collaboration and superiors' support were regarded as the supportive factors for teacher commitment, whilst, explicit organisational or managerial factors, such as change policy, micro-politics and bureaucracy were perceived as the obstructive factors. However, in this case, the questionnaire analysis seemed to include wider aspects of the factors affecting teacher commitment positions, which will be elaborated further.

According to the analysis of the factors affecting TC position (See Table 6.3.1); the findings indicate that teachers' personal TC positions are influenced by the following factors. Including are the social conditions of the school, the kind of professional identity teachers are, the sources of their commitment, the departments they belong, the working conditions, the goals of teacher commitment and by the ability to maintain their commitment.

That is, committed teachers tend to perceive personal and collective commitment in the same manner, embrace teaching because of their love of teaching, view commitment as meaningful for professional value, and refer to students as an important source of commitment. They identify management and a sense of respect as the main factors, which obstruct, as well as, support teacher commitment, and view continued professional development as a means to maintain their commitment. This implies that the committed teachers are those who accept school goals and values. They describe their identities as vocational teachers, enthusiastic for teaching children and value professionalism. As a consequence, they identify sense of respect and superiors' support as the important conditions of their work, where continued professional development is at the heart of their profession.

On the other hand, low committed teachers tend to perceive personal TC position as low whilst view collective commitment as moderate or high. They identify love of subject as the reason for teaching. Work motivation and self-identity are referred to as the important goals of their commitment. They look at educational values as the source of their commitment, identify personal values as the main factors obstructing or supporting teacher commitment, and prefer political involvement as the means to maintain their sense of commitment. That is, the low committed teachers are those, whose level of devotion to the school is poor. They are motivated by the ability to achieve academic goals. They are interested in something outside the classroom rather than their students. As a consequence, they are not highly attached to teaching, and place their interests in the political and financial benefits. However, this could be hard in the scarce resources like schools, especially in the unstable conditions of the current education reform (Firestone and Pennell, 1993).

The analysis showed that collective commitment or social value (C = 0.56) was the most important factor which influenced teacher commitment. This phenomenon results from the nature of the collectivist culture (a society or organization where common norms and interests are accepted and regarded as above individuals' interests and goals). Teachers in this culture tend to regard group norms and collective attitudes as important for personal acceptance and practices. As a consequence, they perceive personal and collective goals and values in the same way. By contrast, those who had a low position for their personal commitment perceive social value as different from their own and thus encountering value conflict.

In relation to the reasons for embracing teaching, the analysis implied that teachers who love teaching tend to perceive their personal commitment level as higher than those who love their subject only. This finding is congruent to the degrees of commitment argued by Woods (1981, 1983) that vocational teachers tend to reach the highest strength in teacher commitment. By contrast, as explained by Nias (1981), the academic oriented and career-continuance teachers are regarded as weaker in teacher commitment as they draw their work satisfaction and achievement mainly from academic progression, financial security and benefits. This is particularly difficult in the current educational conditions where the national curriculum is restricted and unstable.

As argued by Rosenholtz (1989), the highly committed teachers look at students as the source of their psychic rewards and professional fulfilment. Due to the limitation of educational resources, teachers could hardly receive any extrinsic rewards for their professional dedication. The only available sources of rewards, which can balance their heavy responsibilities, are the intrinsic rewards received from their students. This kind of reward is important and worthwhile because it fulfils their professional values and determines their professional success. In addition, the interview analysis also indicate that the highly committed teachers tend to regard management, sense of respect, and continued professional development as the important means to maintain and enrich their sense of commitment.

8.2.2 Teacher commitment in different career phases

With regard to teacher commitment in different career phases, both of the studies agreed that career phases had significant influence over teacher commitment. Teachers' previous experiences and the working conditions were addressed as the prominent factors affecting teacher commitment perceptions in different career phases. However, within the on-going development of teacher commitment, cultural and managerial factors were perceived as the determinant factors in explaining the preoccupation of teacher commitment perceptions in different career phases. Nevertheless, professional identity and personal dispositions remain essential in coping with career changes, and therefore, teacher commitment.

According to the survey analysis (See Section 6.3.2), teacher commitment in different career phases was affected by their previous positive and negative experiences, the supportive and obstructive work conditions, the school social values and the sources of teacher commitment. On the other hand, the interview analysis focused on the linkage between the nature of a teacher's career life and teachers' commitment. The studies showed that teacher commitment was a continuing process in the life of a teacher. Teachers developed their sense of teacher commitment throughout the courses of their careers, which were conditioned by their work environment, the interactions between teachers' professional values and the school social values. However, it was the sense of purpose and professional values that pushed them forward to overcome the obstacles; the psychic rewards which motivated their sense of efficacy, the needs for professional development and the enthusiasm to work collaboratively for the good of their students.

By nature, teacher commitment is at the heart of teacher career development. Teachers tend to develop their commitment from an initial commitment to a final stage of commitment. The trajectory of teacher commitment relates closely with personal and professional identities, and is subjected to change over time. That is, like their identities, although teachers try to maintain the sense of their commitment during the course of their careers, they are affected by the changing conditions of work and continue to negotiate for the meaningful investments in their professional practises. In this context, the maintenance of teacher commitment may depend on the way teachers perceive their environment, their ability to dispose of their problems and develop their professional capacity.

The beginning teachers are mainly concerned about their career survival and adjusting to fit into the new social environment and job responsibilities (See Section 7.4.1). Organisational and collegial supports are the main need as described by the new teachers (Rosenholtz and Simpson, 1990). The forming of the 'initial commitment' of the beginning teachers depends on their entry motives and the work conditions provided by their colleagues and the school community. In this condition, it is the personal identity of teachers that directs them to commit to teaching career and forms their initial teacher commitment (Nias, 1981; Woods, 1983). However, as argued by Reynolds (1996), the developments of teacher identities in the beginning phase depend heavily on the interaction between the personal identities of teachers and the positive and negative work environment around them. In particular, school culture (family atmosphere), organisational provisions (such as, induction program and clear directive work system), collegial supports, and professional conditions (such as, grade level and subject matching) are regarded as the main influences.

As teachers established in their careers, they develop a 'definite commitment' (See Section 7.4.2). That is, teachers tend to have confidence in their profession, develop an independent teaching style, and welcome new challenges and ready to learn new knowledge. At the same time, they felt being accepted and being included in the professional community (Huberman, 1993). At this stage, the stabilised teachers tend to realise their substantive identity better and teacher identities become clearer for them as they focus on the roles of a professional teacher. However, in spite of their stabilised position, teachers identified policy changes, paper work overloaded, unfairness and collegial conflict as the threats to their sense of commitment. In the changing context of schooling, situated identity plays a

profound role in adapting to the unstable and demanding education reform. This is a condition, in which, teachers continue to interact and negotiate with the school culture, managerial functions, professional conditions and working circumstances (van Den Berg, 2002).

Being advanced in their careers, the diversified teachers become progressed in their career paths and involve broader educational purposes in their careers (See Section 7.4.3). These are the teachers who expand the boundary of their professional identity and find meanings in the wider involvement with the school community and professional development (Sachs, 2003). These teachers have achieved the stage of 'mature commitment'. Others find it hard to cope with the increasing work tensions and reconcile with educational changes. They develop self-defensive mechanism to cope with the increasing demands of education reform. These teachers tend to be stagnant with their profession, maintain the concepts of a conservative identity and perceive changes as threaten their substantive identities. Imposed by the authority, they develop the 'just do it' mentality and find less meaning in their professional practises (Hallinger and Kantamara, 2000). As a consequence, they lose meanings in their professional practices and become stress, guilty and dissatisfaction. Many of these teachers have to reassess the sense of their purpose and become unstable in their sense of commitment.

The final stage of teacher career life is characterised as disengagement phase or the career wind-down in the life of a teacher (See Section 7.4.4). Advanced in age, senior teachers seem to be distant from their junior colleagues as well as students and concern for their health and welfare. However, this is also the harvest season, when senior teachers would recall and evaluate their success and failures across career. For some senior teachers, the 'final commitment' appear to be the period of joy and serenity as their career lives reveal personal and professional fulfilment and satisfaction. For others, this could be the bitter period as their career lives were deviant from their expectations and still away from personal goals and aspirations. Some even feel resentful with present circumstances and wish to leave as soon as possible. In fact, the final commitment is the stage, when teachers review and justify their personal and professional identities. Those, who do not justify with their performance, feel guilty and worthlessness, those who are satisfied with their conducts find self-satisfaction and self-fulfilment (Fessler and Christensen, 1992).

By nature, as teachers are inevitably subjected to career phases and life cycle, teacher commitment is an on-going process in the career life of teacher. In a supportive work condition, teachers tend to mobilise from an initial commitment toward a more mature commitment. However, this phenomenon may be interrupted and push teachers into reassessment periods that lead to a professional readjustment or career leave. Teacher commitment is a continued interaction with personal, professional and organisational circumstances. In order to cope with the new demands changes, teachers develop situated identities. Nevertheless, school leadership and school culture are identified as the important factors that may threaten and support their sense of commitment. As a consequence, they demand a sense of respect for their professionalism and view continued professional development and supportive work environment as the important sources for teacher commitment maintenance.

In summary, committed teachers are characterised as having a love of teaching, preferring students as the core source of their commitment, upholding professional values as the principles of their practices, valuing professionalism and viewing professional development as being at the centre of their careers. These attributions are essential, as they provide meanings, values and motivations for teaching careers. Teacher commitment is at the heart of effective teaching, as it is the source of teacher efficacy, professional development, work motivation, job satisfaction and professional fulfilment. However, teachers tend to perceive negative organisational factors as the conditions which influence professional factors and result in supporting or undermining teacher commitment.

Teacher commitment is also associated closely with teacher career life cycles. As teachers progress in their career, they develop toward definite and mature commitment; otherwise, they reassess and negotiate or leave their careers. Central to career development, teachers value learning opportunities and supportive work environment as the important means to maintain and enrich the sense of their commitment. Nevertheless, within the current demands and the unstable policy of education reform, the trajectory of teacher commitment development can be deteriorated by the changes of their work conditions, professional and personal circumstances, where school leaders and organisational culture are the determinant factors. Nevertheless, committed teachers are not passive but regard themselves as moral agents for the well-being and growth of students.

CHAPTER NINE
CONCLUSIONS

As the result of the aims of this research, the summary of the research findings are brought forth with regard to the concepts of teacher commitment according to the Thai private school teachers and their perceptions of the significant factors affecting it. Later, the originality of this study focusing on Thai cultural contexts, in which teacher identity is formed and teacher agency on teacher commitment is activated is discussed. It is clear that teacher commitment is a necessary quality of a 'good' professional teacher. Committed teachers find meanings in their profession through upholding moral purposes and committing to their professional practices. This study identified committed teachers as individuals who love teaching and are enthusiastic in caring for students' well being and being responsible for students' development, as well as devotion to the school goals and values. The ultimate goals of their commitment are central to effective teaching and the ability to make changes in students' learning lives. Therefore, it is essential that teacher commitment is recognised, maintained and reinforced to sustain the core quality of professional teachers and school development.

Responding to the research questions (See Section 1.3), the results from this study are summarised in the following.

1. Positive initial career attitudes of teachers, especially 'having a love of teaching and children', which derived from their vocational and professional identities, are essential for establishing and developing teacher commitment throughout the course of teaching career.
2. The teachers in this study perceived teacher commitment as a complex and multidimensional construct. They identified it according to their understandings in three interrelated domains: personal, professional and organisational commitment.
3. Although teachers perceived various school elements as the sources of their commitment, students were the most important source for teacher commitment; as teachers are mainly a moral agent for students' well-being and growth, and psychic rewards are the main motivation for their job satisfaction and fulfilment.

4. School culture and leadership have the key roles in constructing work conditions in the school. Teachers identify collegial collaboration and professional development as contributing to their professionalism whilst perceive negative organisational factors as the important obstacles for professional practices, and in turn may support or undermine teacher commitment.
5. Within the constraints of Thai culture, teachers tend to be compliant to the policy changes. However, family atmosphere was recognised as the strategy to bridge the gap between teachers and administrative body and enable teacher agency. This contributes to mutual understanding, supportive work condition, co-operative and collaborative works in the school community.
6. Within the highly demanding expectations and uncertainties of school reform, collaborative work culture, supportive work condition and continued professional development were identified as the important means, which contribute to maintain teacher commitment and its development. Additionally, the 'family democratic culture' is essential to empower teacher agency and enable them to connect and adapt to change in a meaningful way.
7. Teacher commitment was an on-going process in the career lives of teachers. In supportive work conditions, teachers tend to develop from the 'initial commitment' to the 'final commitment'. Nevertheless, in reality, teachers could encounter the 'painful beginning', 'mid-career crisis' and 'late-career crisis', which resulted in negative effects on their commitment. Therefore, it is essential to understand this phenomenon in the developing lives of teachers and ever awareness of the circumstances affecting them.
8. The study implies that teacher commitment is an important quality of good teachers and associated closely with teacher identity, work motivation, teacher performance, students' achievement, professional fulfilment and job satisfaction. Committed teachers are those, who tend to accept school goals and values, have a passion for teaching, value professionalism and place continued professional development as at the centre of their careers. Therefore, it is essential that teachers' professionalism is respected and supported work conditions are provided to sustain it and contribute to its development.

In the preceding chapters, the complex and multidimensional concepts of teacher commitment and the personal, professional and organisational factors affecting it have been discussed. This chapter examines the moderating role of Thai society on teacher identity and the effects of this on teacher commitment in Thai schools, especially, during the current school reform. Teaching is a value-led profession (Woods et al, 1997) and professionalism (teachers' rights and obligations to determine and control their own tasks in the classroom) is at its heart (Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996). Based on this assumption, I argue that teachers value professionalism as the most important source of meanings for their identities, and which justifies their commitment. However, teacher identity is a complex concept and subject to specific socio-cultural contexts, an on-going negotiation of meanings and adaptation to change.

This research indicates that within the context of Thai schools, as in those in many other countries, school leadership and organisational culture play a key role in enhancing or determining teacher agency (the ability to influence ones own work and the people concerned). These in turn contribute to supporting or undermining teachers' professional values and their sense of commitment. Perhaps more importantly, it also reveals that the broader social culture provides a specific context for teacher identity and affects its agency on teacher commitment. Thus, it is not possible to draw exact comparisons between teachers' commitment in different cultures concerning reform and its effects without taking into account the effects of the broader cultural identity on individual agency. In order to understand the complicated and dynamic nature of teacher commitment, this study has focused on a Thai 'cultural model of agency' (implicit frameworks of ideas and practices about how to construct the actions of the self, others, and the relationships amongst those actions) and the prominent factors affecting it.

9.1 Thai Teacher Identity: Rationale for Teacher Commitment

Teaching is inevitably committed to educational purposes (Hargreaves, 1995). Teachers hold on to professional values as principles which inform their working lives. Many teachers are drawn to school, mainly, because they love teaching, identify with their subjects and see themselves able to contribute to social development through educating children. As a consequence, teachers feel themselves to be responsible for students' achievement, committed to teaching, as well as, devoted to the school's educational goals and values. That

is, the moral nature of schooling commits teachers to their students, professional values and the school goals. This, in turn, provides meaning and justification to teachers' identities and practices.

The committed teachers in this study entered teaching with aspirations to care and be responsible for the growth of children (See Section 7.2.1). These teachers recalled the sources of their professional aspirations in their childhood, especially, within their families (such as, from a teaching family) and school experiences (such as, good impressions of model teachers and identification with particular subjects). Individual and collective biographies played an important role in forming teachers' beliefs and values. These positive identities (vocational and professional) are significant in that they are based mainly on moral values and provide solid ground for professional practices. Teachers with positive identities centre on establishing and maintaining personal relationships with students, responsible for students' learning, and answerability and care for students' personal well-being and growth.

Thai society places a special status on and venerates teachers. They are believed to be agents of morality and knowledge for social development through educating children. Students are socialised into these values and experience them at school. Within the high power distance culture (a society or organisation where power differences are accepted, hierarchy and status ranking are assumed as parts of the administration functions. As a consequence, a compliant attitude is common amongst the subordinates), they are highly respected, particularly by their students. This cultural attitude shapes their relationships. Students are supposed to obey and respect their teachers. Teachers are obliged to be responsible for students' achievement and development. On the other hand, influenced by collectivism (defined by tight bonds between people, relationships are firmly structured and individual needs are subservient to collective needs) and feminine cultures (where harmony and relationships are cared for), family relationships appear to be a prevailing nature in school. Teachers are also recognised as second parents in relating to their students. As a consequence, many of them assume the role of mother or father in taking care of their students' well-being, and integrate both teaching and parenting roles in their careers (See Section 7.2.2). Thus, this cultural value contributes to their professional identities and practices.

Within complex and unpredictable classroom contexts, teachers employ professionalism as the means of realising and maintaining their professional values. This quality, therefore,

provides meaning to their practices and confirms their identities. Teachers justify themselves not only through professional knowledge and skills, but mainly by their sense of moral purposes that are associated with the social and personal development of students and their ability to make emotional connections between learning and students. As a consequence, teachers value intrinsic or psychic rewards (the rewards as a result of good relationships with students, receiving good responses from students and the ability to make changes in students' achievement) as the key sources of their job motivation, job satisfaction and job fulfilment. This professional value is deeply held by teachers and provides justification for their sense of commitment.

Teaching is not just a technical practice, but the investment of teachers' selves, both personal and professional identities, in their work. They invest the values they believe in their teaching. According to this study, the committed schoolteacher is characterised as: having a love of teaching, upholding professional values and refer to students as the key sources of their commitment (See Section 7.2.2). These characteristics are the important qualities of identity that give meanings to the personal and professional commitment of teachers, which is the outcome of affective motifs and moral purposes. This "*positive sense of identity with subject, relationships and roles is important to maintaining self-esteem or self efficacy, commitment to and a passion for teaching*" (Day, 2004: 56).

Like teacher identity, teacher commitment is an on-going negotiation, in which professional development and teaching effectiveness is at the centre. Teachers indicate the highly inconsistent and changing demands of education reform as the main source which undermine their professionalism and which result in the deterioration of their commitment. This study indicates that teachers tend to perceive organisational factors, such as managerial and leadership styles, sense of respect and collegial relations, as the main influences affecting their professional identities, which in turn, support or undermine their sense of commitment (See Section 7.2.3). Congruent with Beijaard (1995), teachers tend to perceive professional identities as positive when the school focuses on student-centred, facilitates collegial collaboration, enriches job responsibilities and encourages participation in school development. They identify inadequate teaching, poor work conditions and disapproving school organisation as negative factors.

Thai schools are characterised as highly centralised and authoritative, in which large power distance culture is dominated. Embedded within hierarchical social structure, principal and senior staff are mandated as the official authority to implement central policies, make-decisions and control. Teachers are expected to comply and work in line with administrative frameworks. Rules and regulations are the basic norms for school operations. As a consequence, this culture tends to limit teachers' professional autonomy and subject it to bureaucratic work systems. Teacher's motivation has declined as teaching has become less meaningful (See Section 7.3.1). Extremely imposed education reform has employed school leaders as the key means of changing school policies and practices. In this situation, teacher identity is restricted by authoritative administration which itself subject to the changing demands of school reform.

However, in spite of the large power distance culture, this study confirms that teachers are not passive. The findings indicate that although overwhelmed by changing policies, some committed teachers were able to exert their sense of agency to cope with the changing conditions of work (For example, DISF1: 288-293 in Section 7.3.2). As a consequence, they continued to make meaning of their practices and make connections with their school constituencies. In this condition, the study suggests that the strength of teacher' agency depends mainly on the perceived ability to exercise agency, and that the supportive culture provided by the school leadership and the school community enhances this (See Section 7.3.2). In order to understand the role of agency in teacher commitment, the effects of the school organisational culture and its related factors will be discussed.

9.2 Teacher Identity: Coping with Change

The previous section clearly indicates that teacher identity is the indicator which informs teachers' professional values and provides meaning for their commitments. However, the nature of identity is complex, dynamic and depends on socio-cultural situation and biographical contexts for its agency. The new policy for education reform in Thailand has changed teachers' work conditions and undermined their professional values and practices. This has resulted in weakening teacher identity and deteriorating teacher commitment (See Section 7.3.1). In this situation, teacher agency is even more essential to cope with change in a creative and meaningful way. However, the research shows that the unique nature of Thai culture contributes to the construction of a particular 'model of agency', in which teacher

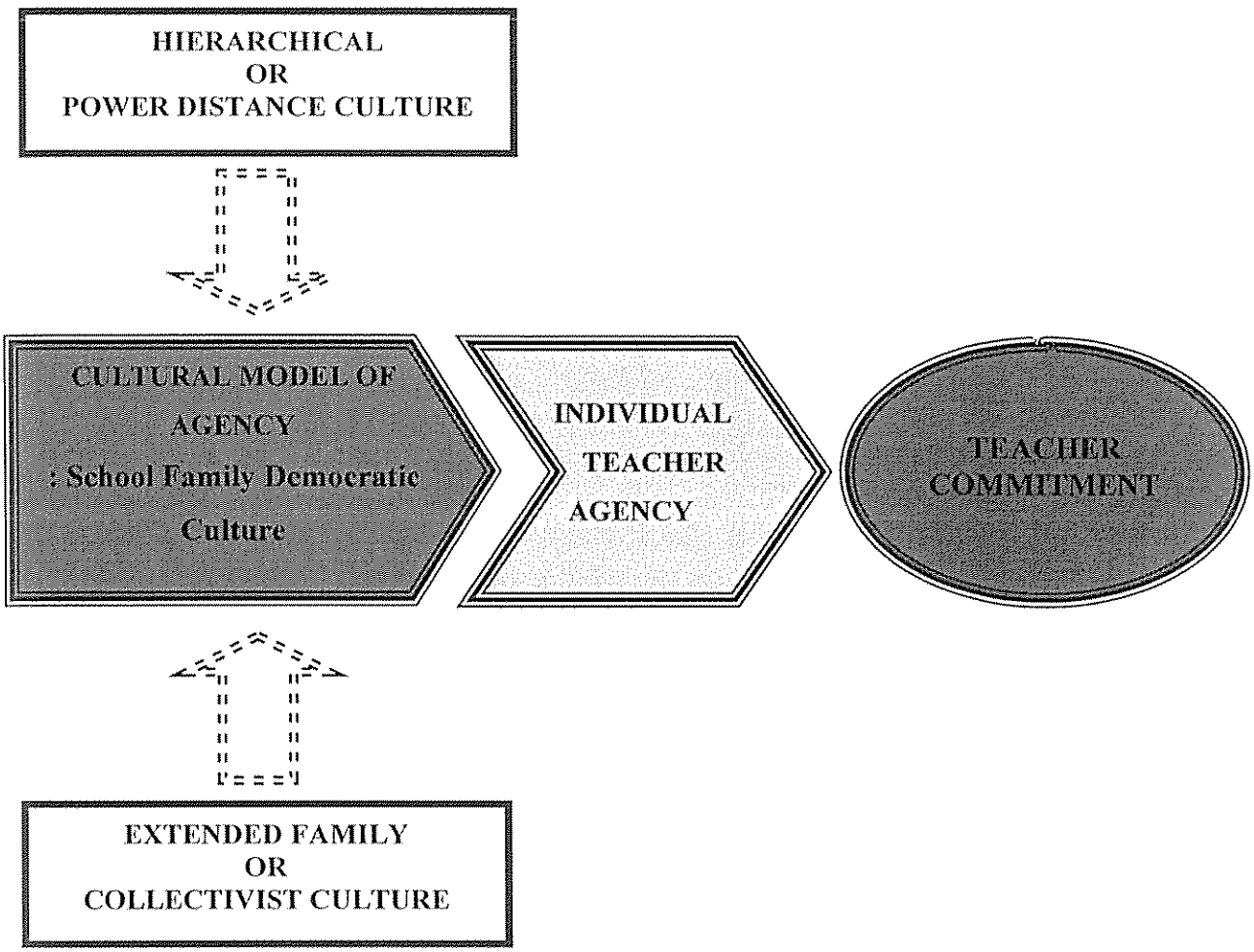
agency is activated. Implanted within collectivist nature, this agential ability depends mostly on the school culture, in which both school leadership and community relationships are the keys.

9.2.1 Teacher agency and Thai culture

"*Culture is a way of constructing reality and different cultures are simply alternative constructions of realities*" (Prosser, 1999: xii). Culture is a key factor that influences how individuals view, behave, feel and express their practices in relation to their environment. Individuals are socialised into a particular culture and form beliefs, values and norms of their lives. Such patterns serve as the basic identity for individuals' way of life and motivate them to behave in accordance to it. This in turn forms a framework, in which individuals think and act, and determine their relationships and role taking in different circumstances in making meanings, appraising circumstances and coping with problems (Manstead et al, 2004). Thus, different cultures construct different 'models of agency' in which individuals' agency may be activated.

Thai culture is rooted in a nature of extended family, in which people are recognised by their hierarchical status (vertical relationships) and their social relationships (Horizontal relationships). Teachers relate to and influence each other through their positions and roles, as well as, personal and social relationships in the school. These two forces are influencing each other and are vital for their personal and professional identities. As a consequence, the ability to exercise teacher agency depends on the provision of this cultural framework. Figure 9.1 illustrates the nature of Thai cultural model of agency, which is the interaction between power distance and collectivist cultures. The compatibility of these cultures enable teachers to act collectively and individually according to their professional standings and result in maintaining their commitment. That is, Thai teachers feel confident in expressing their personal and professional identities, when they perceive the integrated relationships in the school. It is through the work conditions where formal (e.g. managerial goals) and informal objectives (e.g. professional goals) are agreed and supportive, that teacher agency is empowered and sustained. In this condition, the family democratic nature is preferred as a cultural model, in which teacher agency can be activated.

Figure 9.1: Influences on Thai Cultural Agency and Commitment



In contrast to Western culture, Thai culture is characterised as collectivist as well as hierarchical, in which interdependent self and group-oriented is the nature. Embedded within this culture, teachers refer to community and authority for meanings and actions. Tradition, norms and regulations are recognised as the patterns to be followed. Agents are active in being involved with each other to meet common expectations and acceptance. As a consequence, they perceive, react and cope with a particular circumstance in a selective way. That is, through hierarchical collectivist nature, teachers tend to identify themselves with the school community and authority for their sense of agencies. Within this cultural framework, teachers feel confident in expressing their personal and professional self and act according to them in a meaningful way.

Within the hierarchical social structure, the collectivist nature needs to be led and supported by the authority. Without which, the school community may lose the sense of their direction and divide into different groups of interest. Such balkanised culture tends to focus on political power to compete for promotion, resources, status and influences in the school. This leads to role ambiguity amongst teachers and result in conflict and fragmented relationships in the school community, and thus limited teachers' agency and their commitment. On the other hand, the school collectivist nature is inevitably influenced by the relationships between school administrators and teachers. This relationship is essential in that it contributes to strengthen or weaken the model of agency. Through authoritative leadership, school administrators tend to dominate the life and work of the school community, in which teacher professionalism is controlled and their sense of agency is limited.

The research indicates that teachers identified 'family democratic leadership' as a condition which enhanced school community relationships and empowered their agencies (See Section 7.3.2). Led by this, they are socialised into common objectives and values for their professions. Through shared visions and missions, they are motivated to accept school goals and participate co-operatively towards common objectives. Reinforced by mutual understanding and trust, they are encouraged to share their problems and needs, and work collaboratively for the good of their students and the school. On the contrary, through authoritative leadership, teachers are subject to comply with orders and controls and unable to exercise their professionalism. This kind of relationship weakens the collective agential ability and limits the sense of personal agency on teacher commitment. Thus, teacher's agential power bases on the sense of purpose, solidarity and relationships amongst school community, on which school leadership is the key. In this way, Thai culture contributes to the 'model of agency' for teacher commitment.

Evidence (See Section 7.3.1) indicates that the high power distance of Thai culture is considered to be the most significant factor, which limits teacher agency. Such authority and subordinate relationships contribute to build gaps between administrators and teachers. Associated with power and benefits, it often leads to conflicts of interest and results in fragmented relationships in the school community. As a consequence, they tend to refer to authority for their decisions and practices, and unable to exercise their agencies. They link with each other to bargain for power, and compete for personal and group benefits. In this context, teachers' model of agency is deteriorated. They are unable to negotiate for their

identity and justify their commitment. They are bound to be passive to change, comply with new policies (power distance) or develop a 'just do it' mentality, whilst deferring to authority for their actions or developing a 'wait and see' mentality in their works. Additionally, the nature of femininity which favours social harmony and group relationships tend to reinforce tolerance of behaviours and emotional controls. In this situation, teacher agency is suppressed and vulnerable to stress and burnout.

As a consequence, teachers in this study tended to comply with policy changes and used informal consultations with colleagues as the means to cope with their problems. Nevertheless, they themselves testified that these strategies were not applicable and could not really solve their problems (See Section 7.3.2). In this context, teachers continue to suppress their feelings and be vulnerable to changing conditions. This position is unhealthy and unproductive for them, for their students and for the school as a whole. Within the current reform agendas, the existing Thai culture is regarded as irrelevant and insufficient to cope with educational uncertainty and the changing demands of society. Restricted by these cultures, they tend to have limited agency with regard to responding to the policy changes. Later, they were uncritically subject to external agencies (such as, public accountability, managerial effectiveness and school corporate goals) for their practices. In order to cope effectively with education reform, the current Thai cultural influences on agency needed to be changed.

9.2.2 Teacher agency and change management

In order to understand teacher agency and change, a post-structural approach (the assumption that teachers' identity formation is a result of their social interaction and self-presentation, in which emotions have a key role, Zembylas, 2003) is employed as the theoretical framework. This perspective does not accept the assumptions of a stable, unified or essential 'teacher self' (such as the idea that the teacher is the expert or that the teacher is self made) and the concept of traditional dichotomies (such as private and public identities, emotion and reason, or body and mind) of teacher identity. Instead, this approach recognises the multiple meanings of teacher identity "*as it comes to be constituted through social interactions, performances and daily negotiations within a school culture that privileges emotional self-discipline and autonomy*" (Zembylas, 2003a: 109).

This approach acknowledges the active role of personal and collective emotions in identity construction. Through the understanding of power relations and 'situatedness of teachers', this leads us to a greater understanding of the complex and dynamic nature of teacher identity and agency. It is the discourse of teachers' emotions in which teachers are empowered to expand the sense of their agency and overcome feelings of personal inadequacy and powerlessness in teaching. These discursive practices help teachers to cope with their emotional needs, transform their professional quality and react to changes in a meaningful way.

In spite of the cultural constraints, some teachers in this study regained their professional confidence through the sense of their moral purposes:

"*This is my life and my ideal...I work with my heart and not as employee. This continues to make me fight against the odds and value my profession.*" *(CONF1: 245-250)* "*I committed to form children to be good citizens...we meant to be teachers, not employee. I always struggle for this.*" *(CONM4:81-84, 115-118)*, pondering (prayer) and reflecting on their emotions:

"*Sometime, I feel things have become injustice and unacceptable (for my profession), I used to pray and ponder on it and understand it better or get new insights about how to tackle it.*" *(CONM5: 228-246)* and shared with their colleagues and family members for encouragements and supports:

"*When I was in trouble, I used to consult and share with some trustworthy senior teachers for enlightenment... when I was feeling stress and got struck with problems. I used to talk to him (husband) and got good attention from him. He seemed to be neutral and gave me useful advice.*" *(STAF1: 366-378)*.

It is clear that educational and moral purposes have played a great role in maintaining the sense of commitment in teachers. Motivated by these values, they were encouraged to evaluate the changing policies and provide the right decisions for their practices. In relation to this, they also took extra time to reflect on their work experience and feelings, find new insights and solutions for their problems. In addition, they shared their worries and stress with some of the trustworthy persons, such as family members, close friends and senior teachers. Thus, they had courage to manipulate the changing demands and overcame the odds which undermined their professionalism.

Remarkably, Thai teachers tend to be courteous and selective in expressing and sharing their emotions and ideas with people. Influenced by feminine culture, they are sensitive to sustaining social harmony and maintaining community relationships. Conditioned by high power distance culture, the fragmented relationships tend to deprive them from trusting each others and become barrier to their communications. However, senior members in the community have a special place in school and trusted to occupy the roles of advisors and counsellors for the younger or junior teachers. Being the respected veterans, they assume a role of mediators who bridge gaps between members of school community, strengthen social bond, and contribute to work co-operation amongst them.

9.2.3 Towards a new activist culture

In order to cope creatively with change, this study suggests 'family democratic culture' as a model of agency for Thai teachers, in which family atmosphere (the social relations in which people respect each other as family members and value personal and collective concerns for common responsibility) and people-centred leadership are the key creative strategies which reinforce teacher agency and maintain teacher commitment in times of change (See Section 7.3.2). This cultural perspective is derived from other aspects of Thai culture where the hierarchical structure is softened and the school community becomes integrated. In this context, Thai family relationships strengthen and contribute to notions of distributed leadership in the school community. Such family relationships contribute to enhance mutual understanding, social acceptance, trust and care, collective and personal influence as well as shared responsibilities amongst teachers. As a consequence, the high power distance gaps between administrators and teachers may be bridged. Teacher professionalism is strengthened and their senses of agencies are activated. Teachers regain professional confidence, self-esteem and professionalism in their work, and are motivated to work collaboratively for the good of their students and the school may be strengthened.

The new cultural framework has parallels with that proposed by Sachs (2001), which suggests that, in order to enhance teacher agency, schools should move from managerial professionalism (professional conditions where external accountability and managerial goals are prevailed) to an emphasis on a 'democratic professionalism' (professional conditions where co-operative, collaborative actions between teachers and the school constituencies is the norm). This approach emphasises the core values of learning opportunities, active participation, collegial collaboration, work co-operation and activism (an emphasis on

collaborative, co-operative action between teachers and other educational stakeholders). That is, through 'family democratic' approach, teachers are able to reflect and learn from their practices, share experiences with each other and work co-operatively and collaboratively for professional development. This new culture leads teachers toward an activist teacher identity.

Within this culture, evidence shows that, people-centred leadership is the significant factor that contributes to build up family democratic culture and enhances teachers' agencies on their commitments.

"For me, being accepted by the principal is essential for my commitment. It was during xxx leadership that we felt being trusted and supported. He gave us the opportunities to work for the school. He used to talk to us and involved with us in our work. He did not leave us alone in our work." (DISM2: 162-166)

"This principal was quite different from the others. He is a hard working model for us. He is sincere and dedicated for the school, teachers and students. He has taught us how to work and to provide opportunities for development. We own him a lot in our careers." (DISF1: 167-184)

"At that time, we were working together like brothers. If there were some mistakes, they (senior teachers) warned us and were ready to give advice or consultations. We felt, we were really a family and not superior-inferior relationships. We were having a common responsibility." (CONM2: 161-169)

"I think the Brothers (administrators) are the most important persons for our unity and sense of devotion. ... if they can win teachers' hearts, we would be ready to do anything, even to scarify our lives for school.." (CONM3: 374-392)

In order to establish the new cultural paradigm, authoritative leadership should be moved to a transformational nature, through which the school community would be inspired to work together in pursuit of the better features of schooling (critical, reflective, educative and ethical), culture and practice. It is through this leadership that family atmosphere is maintained, on which 'shared culture' is built with school effectiveness at the centre. Through corporate culture, teachers are encouraged to build shared-visions for school effectiveness; participate in decision-making, especially with regard to their areas of

responsibility, and work collaboratively to improve their professional practices. Such corporate culture is essential for teachers' agency and their sense of commitment.

Thus, one of the successful characteristics of the transformational paradigm is people-centred leadership. This leadership style is essential for community bond building and work co-operatively as well as collaboratively for professional development and school improvement. It is based on human optimistic assumptions and gives priority to personal values and interpersonal relationships. People are believed to have untapped potential for growth from which they can choose their own behaviours. Thus, the leader can hold high expectations of them. Individuals are respected as human beings and relate to each other through civility, politeness, courtesy, caring and encouragement of vigorous discussion and dissent. The leaders trust others to behave in concert with their worthiness, responsibility, personal choice and ability. The actions of the leader are intentionally supportive, caring, and encouraging in policies, practices, programmes and instruction. Underpinned by these premises, teachers were able to work confidently and collaboratively toward the same goals through a shared vision. In this model, the formal and informal leaderships bind together through the same norms and values. The school community is facilitated to trust, to share, and to work with each other towards the mutual objectives and goals. The formal and informal leaderships will support each other and contribute to the school community as a whole.

Teaching is a professional practice and commitment is at the heart of teachers' career and students' achievement. In order to develop and maintain teacher commitment, it is essential that teacher professionalism is respected and teacher commitment is supported, on which school leadership is the key and school culture is the norm. It would not be sufficient to manage teachers without regarding them as professionals. Evidences in this study (See Section 7.3) indicate that education reform has become the main obstacle for teacher commitment and school leadership has been employed as the main factor to achieve its purposes. Dominated by a business and managerial paradigm of education reform, many school administrators tend to implement this in the school life. Nevertheless, this study confirmed that the new paradigm was not appropriate for schooling and diminished teachers' professionalism and undermined their sense of commitment. As a consequence, these schools were caught in educational dilemmas (employee versus professional, student-centred versus prescriptive curriculum, managerial versus educational values) and unable to achieve their educational purposes.

Teacher commitment is a continued negotiation for professional justification and adaptation to connect for its meanings. Within the current education reform, the role of TC is increasingly significant and challenging, and relies on teacher agency for its quality. However, teacher agency is complex and depends on the cultural model of agency for its actions, in which school community and leadership is the key. Therefore, it is essential that school should provide teachers with a supportive culture, where change is identified as the process of active engagement and creative collaboration. The school is characterised as a professional community, in which commitment to change and organisational learning is the key for innovation achievement and school improvement. This implies that teachers' expertise should be respected and onsite-learning is regarded as important for professional knowledge and skills. The role of leaders is to inspire change, stimulate involvement and support innovation process rather than to control and direct.

Although teachers try to develop and maintain their sense of commitment, it is bound to be affected by personal, professional and organisational factors. In order to sustain and reinforce teacher commitment, the following suggestions are proposed in response to the research questions.

1. A positive initial career attitude is the first step towards teacher commitment. It is clear that previous experience and personal identity have significant influences on teacher commitment. Schools and colleagues should pay attention to applicants' biography, career attitudes and professional aspirations as the important criteria for teacher selection. These criteria would contribute to recruiting candidates who have a passion for teaching and intend to commit themselves to teaching career.
2. Appropriate induction programmes are the 'scaffolding' for teacher commitment. The beginning phase is regarded as the critical period for teacher commitment as new teachers depend on their colleagues and work environment for their career survival and discovery. It is essential that schools should provide them with appropriate inductive programmes and mentor systems, which socialise them into the new social environment and guide them to establish in their work. An appropriate induction would contribute to their job adjustment and facilitate the sense of their teacher commitment.

3. Career plateaus and career crises should be recognised as the signs which communicate decline in teacher commitment. It is assumed that committed teachers are characterised as enthusiastic and motivated to engage with professional development and teaching. In this situation, schools should pay attention to teachers' problems and encourage teachers to cope with their difficulties. Professional crises either caused by personal, professional or organisational sources should be acknowledged and coped with in a proper way.
4. Collegial collaboration should be established as the norm for professional practices and contribute to enrich teacher commitment. This kind of professional culture will flourish in the school, where principals value professionalism and encourage teacher development. In order to enhance collaborative culture, principals should focus on developing clarity of mission, cultural cohesion through shared norms, values and beliefs, and reward systems that reinforce those cultural values. It is through participation in constructing school visions that teachers become responsible for the common goals and values, which in turn, enhance collective and personal commitments.
5. Teacher agency is the essential source for teacher commitment. Under imposed changed policy and bureaucratic work systems, teachers' agencies have become suppressed and teaching has become meaningless. School leadership has a key role in mediating changes and shape supportive culture, in which teachers are able to extend their sense of agencies and cope with work uncertainty in a creative way; the kind of professional culture where a family democratic culture and transformational leadership prevail.
6. Both teacher professionalism (professional behaviour) and professionalization (professional status) are recognised as important for the success of a teaching career and contribute to teacher commitment. Within the complex nature of classrooms, teachers demand professional respect to cope with the uncertainty of teaching and to make discretionary judgements on behalf of their students. In relation to school internal and external constituencies, teachers require professional acceptance, social status, financial security and welfare as the means to support their professionalism.
7. It is essential to take into account the underpinning culture in order to understand teachers and their commitment. The Thai cultural influence on agency should be recognised as the framework, in which limitation or enhancement of teacher identity and its agency is constructed and activated. It is through change in this culture that

teachers may be able to cope actively with imposed change in productive and meaningful ways.

9.3 Final Remarks

It is clear from the study that teacher commitment is a core quality of a professional teacher which involves not only psychological and professional aspects but also the social components. It would have been helpful to include the various opinions from all the school's constituencies, especially those who are directly related to teachers (such as school administrators, parents and students) in order to produce the best result of the research. However, due to the time limitation (as mentioned in Chapter Four, page 34), this study focused mainly on the teachers' perspectives on teacher commitment, the factors affecting it and the ways teachers react to these influences, as they are the key to understanding this concept and its changes.

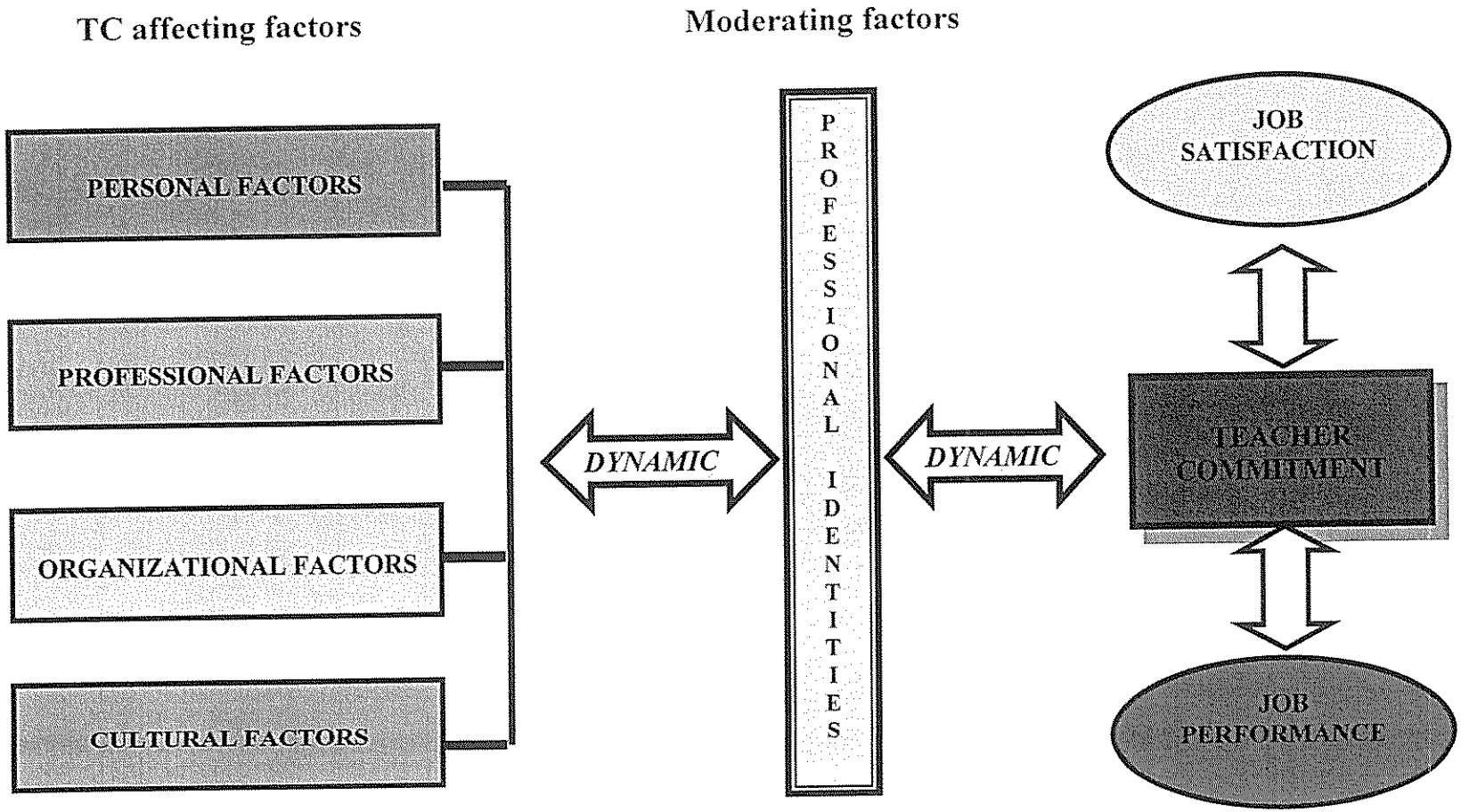
Through their personal identity, committed teachers are led to invest themselves in teaching and to engage to care for students. Based on moral purpose, teaching is not just a technical task but a moral practice, in which the student is the main source of motivation, on the other hand professionalism is the principal for practice, and continued professional development is at its centre. To understand its complex nature, the study examined personal and professional identities and the contexts which relate to them. Teacher commitment is dynamic and bound to be changed over time. Although teachers try to maintain their sense of commitment, it is constructed and reconstructed by their personal, professional, organisational and cultural environments, which are moderated by their identity as shown in Figure 9.2 below.

Teaching is a values-led endeavour, in which teachers invest personal and professional selves to realise moral purposes and achieve professional values. As a result, teacher commitment is the main source for intrinsic rewards, work motivation, job satisfactions and job fulfilment. Through the lens of their identities, teachers perceive, make meaning and justify their sense of commitment and the factors affecting it. However, teacher identity is culturally embedded; a continuing site of interaction to connect, and an on-going negotiation to maintain teachers' status quo. It is through the sense of teacher agency that they adapt to change meaningfully and justify the sense of their commitment.

Within the imposed demands of education reform, teacher professionalism is vulnerable to changing policies which may result in career inadequacy, professional worthlessness, decrease in teaching efficacy and deteriorating self-esteem. In order to cope with these radical changes, teacher agency is essential in providing new professional standings to adapt to the mobilising contexts of change. However, the ability to maintain teacher commitment depends mainly on the supportive culture of the school, where school leadership and community relationships is the determining key and professional development is the core. Therefore, it is essential that policy makers, school principals and senior staff understand the sensitive nature of teacher identity and teacher commitment, and contribute to form a supportive school culture where models of agency are activated and sustained within changing cultures. Through activist identity, professionalism is respected, collegial collaboration and community learning are the centre of professional development and school improvement.

Within unavoidable educational changes, it is essential that schools act as efficient mediators, where change policies contribute to professional development, and create the conditions in which teachers continue to make connection with their professional meanings and justify their practices in and through their careers. *"Good teaching is a complex job that makes exacting demands upon the heart and soul as well as the mind which few other jobs can claim to do"* (Day, 2004: 59). It is the moral purposes and the passion for teaching that calls committed teachers to dedicate their whole selves to teaching and to school goals. Teacher commitment is necessary for the sense of self-efficacy, effective teaching, and school achievement. It is through this quality that professionalism activates, directs and maintains. Within the changing policies, the role of teacher commitment is increasingly needed to stand 'against the odds' of professionalism, to encounter new challenges, to sustain personal relationships with students in creative learning and to work collaboratively with colleagues for professional and school development.

Figure 9.2: Factors Affecting Teacher Commitment



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APPENDICE

APPENDIX A: Overview of Saint Gabriel Foundation Schools

APPENDIX B: Research Instruments

APPENDIX C: Statistics of the Questionnaire Analysis

APPENDIX A: *Overview of Saint Gabriel Foundation Schools*

Saint Gabriel Foundation Schools are the private schools according to the National Education Act 1999 (Office of National Education Commission, 1999) and the Private School Act 1992 (Office of Private Education Commission, 1992), under the jurisdiction of the Office of Private Education Commission: OPEC, Minister of Education. Saint Gabriel Foundation: SGF, Thailand had founded 11 basic education schools, which are conducting education from pre-primary or primary to secondary educational level. These schools are located and served in difference provinces of Thailand. The schools' location, founded years and sizes are shown in Table below:

Table: Saint Gabriel Foundation schools' locations, founded year, number of teachers and students according to the academic year, 2002.

School Names	Locations	Founded	Number of teachers	Number of students
1. Assumption College	Bangkok	1885	448	6,502
2. Saint Gabriel's College	Bangkok	1920	254	4,521
3. Montfort College	Chiengmai	1932	366	4,535
4. Assumption College Sriracha	Chonburi	1944	254	4,026
5. Saint Louis College	Chachoensao	1948	223	3,566
6. Assumption College Lampang	Lampang	1958	265	4,306
7. Assumption College Thonburi	Bangkok	1961	254	4,767
8. Assumption College Rayong	Rayong	1963	175	2,542
9. Assumption College Ubonrachthani	Ubonrachathani	1965	133	1,573
10. Assumption College Nakornrajasima	Nakornrajasima	1967	141	2,074
11. Assumption College Samutprakan	Samutprakan	1979	204	3,674
Total			2,672	41,711

Source: Saint Gabriel Foundation Yearly Report, 2002

Saint Gabriel Foundation schools like any other private school, according to the state policy, are accepted and encouraged to conduct educational service as the state educational partnership. As it states in the National Education Scheme 1992 (ONEC, 1992: section 3, article 18) that: "*To Promote the private sector's increased involvement in providing educational services at all levels, and to increased their flexibility and autonomy in*

administration and management, which the state provides technical support and resources, and ensures convenient operation and accreditation." (p. 22)

Saint Gabriel Foundation schools belong to the Brothers of Saint Gabriel, a Christian religious congregation for education founded by Saint Louis Mary De Montfort. The schools are categorized into non-profit catholic schools according to the Gravissimum Educationis (Declaration on Christian Education Gravissimum Educationis, 1977). The schools adopt Catholic values, which created Christian climate where fraternal relationship prevailed. In addition, the schools also take the characteristics of Saint Gabriel education as their educational practice principles. In this context, Saint Gabriel Foundation schools stand for the following educational philosophy, objectives and policy: (Commission on Education, Saint Gabriel Foundation, 1995)

Saint Gabriel Educational Philosophy:

1. The purpose of man's existence is to know the truth, to love and to search for it, which is the source of life and all knowledge.
2. The belief that a man justifies himself and his existence by the nobility of his work. This is expressed by the school motto: LABOR OMNIA VINCIT.

Saint Gabriel Foundation schools aim at the following objectives:

1. Preparing pupils, through the acquisition of knowledge and skills related there unto primary and secondary levels, which will be a good foundation for their future quest for more knowledge in the concept of life-long education.
2. Inculcating in the pupils minds right attitudes, right precepts of religion and moral principles, which will help guide them in their world of reality, in order that they may be able to make decisions with intelligence and wisdom, and know how to solve conflicts and problems through peaceful means, as responsible members of society and the world at large.

To realize the educational objectives, Saint Gabriel Foundation Schools have established the following policy:

1. The development of the whole man-the physical, intellectual, emotional, mental and moral development.
2. The inculcation of respect for three institutions of the nation: Religion, Country, and King; a democratic way of life.

3. Academic excellence through hard work an practical appreciation, the fluency of languages, the ability to grasp mathematics and science, which will enable pupils to have logical thinking, self-disciplines and broadmindedness.
4. The emphasis on the practice and fostering Christian values: respect for others as persons, creativity and interiority for the common good of society of which they are members.

Within this mission framework, Saint Gabriel Foundation schools have constructed their educational strategic plans that are composed of the following vision and mission:

Saint Gabriel Education Vision

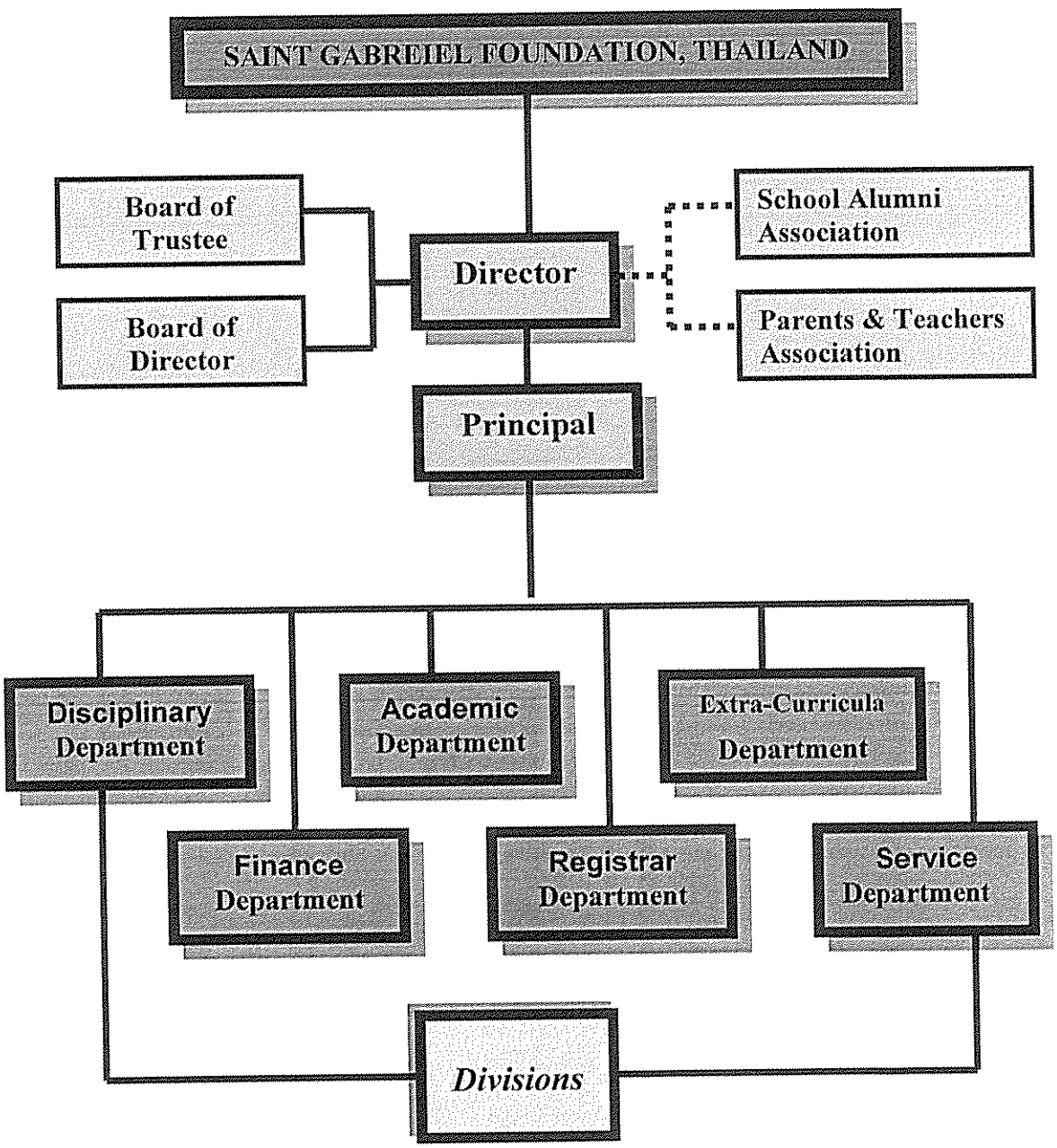
"*A people fully developed and fully alive to its own dignity as part of humanity.*"

Saint Gabriel Education Mission

1. In collaboration with all concerned, and by living the exemplary Christ's life of service, education in Gabrielite schools creates the atmosphere of love and freedom so as to enhance the students' total development making them 'men for others'.
2. Education in Gabrielite schools gives first priority to the poor and the educationally underprivileged.

Saint Gabriel Foundation schools have adopted participative management as the method of their educational administration. The schools are administrating through the school board of trustee and the school board of director. The school director is mandated to be the top executive person of the school. He administrates the school through the school board of director, with the cooperation of his principal and heads of departments namely; Registrar, Finance, Academic, Disciplinary, Extra-Curricular, and Service, as shown in Figure below:

Figure: Saint Gabriel Foundation School administration chart



Source: Commission on Education (1997), Saint Gabriel Foundation, Thailand.

This school administration chart shows that Saint Gabriel Foundation schools are operating under the Foundation's philosophy, objectives and policy in the form of boards and committees. The school directors and principals play the role of the high administrators of the school, the department heads are the middle administrators, and each department is divided into divisions and have the division head as the immediate administrators who responsible for different tasks in various units.

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APPENDIX B: *Research Instruments*

(B1) Teacher Commitment Questionnaire Survey

Introduction: This questionnaire survey is a partial instrument for the Ph.D. thesis. It composed of two parts: the personal information of respondent and the teacher commitment questionnaire survey. On each part, the instruction will be given. The data collected will be strictly used for the research purpose only. The respondents are anonymous.

Please note that there is no right or wrong answer. All your answers and information are unique and worthwhile for this research. Thank you for your sincere collaboration.

Part One: Respondent Personal Information

Instruction: Please marks (/) in the bracket in front of the choice given and/or fills in the boxes according to the facts about you.

1. Gender ( ) male ( ) female
2. Age [ ] years old
3. Education earned ( ) below bachelor degree
   ( ) bachelor degree
   ( ) higher than bachelor degree
4. Monthly incomes ( ) less than 8,000 Baht
   (Salary and benefits earned) ( ) 8,000 – 15,000 Baht
   ( ) 15,000 – 20,000 Baht
   ( ) 20,000 – 30,000 Baht
   ( ) more than 30,000 Baht
5. I have been teaching for [ ]
6. I have been teaching in this school for [ ] years
5. I am teaching in Grade-level [ ]
8. I belong to the [ ] department.
9. Marital status ( ) single ( ) married
   ( ) divorce ( ) widowhood

Part two: Teacher Commitment Questionnaire

Instruction: Please answer all the questions by ranking the given choices that represent you, from the most important choice to the least. Then, put the numbers to identify them (1= the most important, 2= the second important, and so forth). You can provide your own choices beside the given choices. At the end of each item, please explain or give the reasons for your most preferable choice.

1. What are the most important reasons for being a teacher? Please place in rank order and explain your position.

   .....a) love for teaching

   .....b) love for children

   .....c) love for subject

   .....d) self-identification

   .....e) social development

   .....f) security and benefits

   .....g) enjoy long holiday

   .....h) others, please identify.....

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

2. What are the most important characteristics that explain the sense of your teacher commitment? Please place in rank order and explain your position.

   .....a) loyalty

   .....b) involvement

   .....c) identification

   .....d) devotion / working longer hours

   .....e) membership

   .....f) acceptance of goals and values

   .....g) responsible to all students' needs

   .....h) others, please identify.....

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

3. How does teacher commitment important to you? Please place in rank order and explain your position.

.....a) work motivation

.....b) professional values

.....c) benefits and honour

.....d) academic development

.....e) self-identity

.....f) self-efficacy

.....g) others, please identify.....

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

4. What are the sources of your teacher commitment? Please place in rank order and explain your position.

.....a) students

.....b) teachings

.....c) colleagues

.....d) institution

.....e) social values

.....f) educational values

.....g) personal values

.....h) others, please identify.....

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

5. With regard to No. 4, what is the level of your teacher commitment now? Please mark (/) in front of the given choices and explain your position.

.....a) high and stable

.....b) high but fluctuated

.....c) moderate and stable

.....d) moderate but fluctuated

.....e) rather low

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

6. In general, how do you evaluate the level of teacher commitment in your school? Please mark (/) in front of the given choices and explain your position.

.....a) high and stable

.....b) high but fluctuated

.....c) moderate and stable

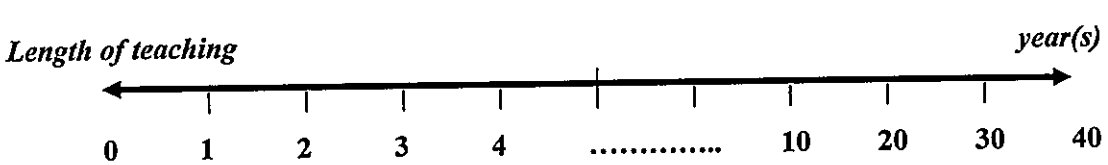
.....d) moderate but fluctuated

.....e) rather low

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

7. When were the peak and the lowest levels of your commitment?

Please mark (X) on the career line to identify the peak and the lowest level of your commitment. Then, fill answers in the given boxes and explain your positions.



The peak year of your commitment ☐

The year of the lowest commitment ☐

8. What are the most important obstacles for your sense of teacher commitment? Please place in rank order and explain your position.

    .....a) educational policy

    .....b) management/leadership

    .....c) sense of respect

    .....d) collaboration

    .....e) development opportunity

    .....f) work conditions

    .....g) student behaviours

    .....h) rewards and benefits

    .....i) school objectives

    .....j) personal values

    .....k) others, please identify.....

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

9. What are the most important factors that reinforce your sense of teacher commitment? Please place in rank order and explain your position.

    .....a) educational policy

    .....b) management/leadership

    .....c) sense of respect

    .....d) collaboration

    .....e) development opportunity

    .....f) work conditions

    .....g) student behaviours

    .....h) rewards and benefits

    .....i) personal values

    .....j) others, please identify.....

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

10. How do you react to the factors obstruct to your sense of teacher commitment? Please place in rank order and explain your position.

    .....a) conform to it

    .....b) rebel against it

    .....c) discuss with colleague for solutions

    .....d) manipulate to fit my ways

    .....e) withdrawal

    .....f) try to overcome it through hard work

    .....g) others, please identify.....

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

11. What did you do to reinforce your sense of teacher commitment? Please place in rank order and explain your position.

    .....a) continued professional development

    .....b) collegial collaboration

    .....c) political involvement

    .....d) classroom research

    .....e) participative management

    .....f) avocations activities

    .....g) others, please identify.....

Please explain your position: .....
.....
.....
.....

(B2) Teacher Commitment Interview

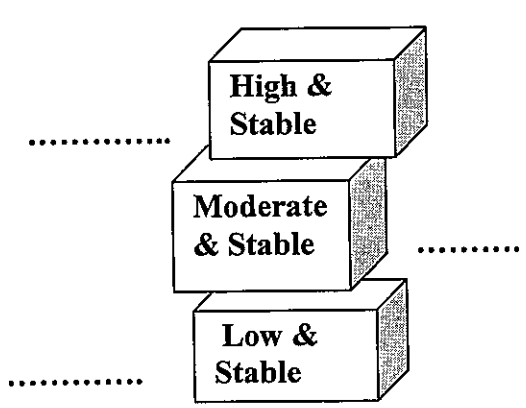
Interviewee's Personal Information

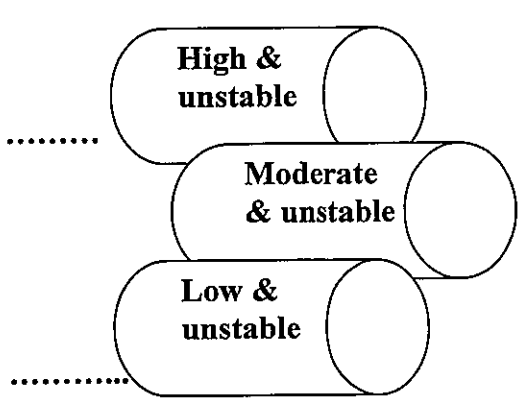
1. Name .....
2. Gender ( ) male ( ) female
3. Age ..... years old
4. Education earned ( ) below bachelor degree
   ( ) bachelor degree
   ( ) higher than bachelor degree
5. Teaching experience ..... years
6. Teaching experience in this school .....years
7. Grade-level ( ) primary ( ) secondary
8. Department belonged .....
9. Marital status ( ) single ( ) married
   ( ) divorce ( ) widowhood

##########

Measure 1 (Personal TC levels)

Please evaluate your personal teacher commitment level at the moment.





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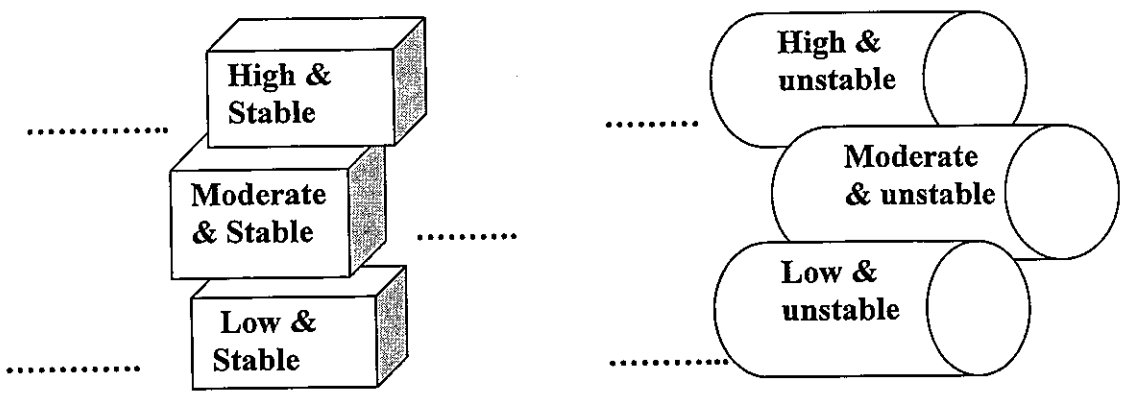
Measure 2 (School or Collective TC levels)

Please evaluate your school teacher commitment level at the moment.



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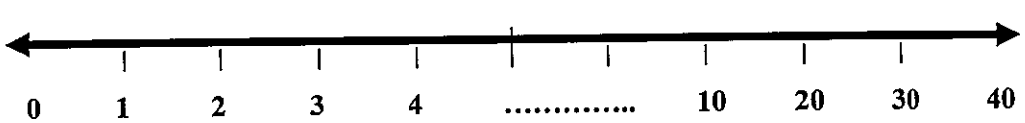
Measure 3 (The peak and bottom of critical periods)

Please identify the year when you felt the highest and the lowest levels of your teacher commitment?

Mark (X) on the career line to identify the peak and the lowest level of your commitment. Then, fill your answers in the given boxes below.

Year(s) of teaching



The happiest year of your career ☐

The critical year of your career ☐

##########

Teacher Commitment Interview Schedules

1. What are the important reasons led you to teaching career and how do these affect your career? When did you feel established and committed to this career?
2. From your understanding, how would you define the concepts of 'teacher commitment', what are the important sources for your commitment and how do it mean to you and your career?
3. How do you evaluate your personal commitment levels and the school as the whole? (Measures 1 and 2), and what are the important factors affecting your personal and school teacher commitment levels?
4. When did you experience the peak and the bottom level of your 'teacher commitment'? (Measure 3) What were the important reasons (or factors) affecting these experiences? How do these experiences affect you and your career life?
5. What are the important factors that undermine your sense of commitment? How did you react to cope with these?
6. What are the important factors that reinforce your 'teacher commitment'? How do these factors reinforcing your sense of commitment?
7. What did you do to sustain your teacher commitment and the school as the community?

APPENDIX C: *Statistics of the Questionnaire Analysis*

Appendix C 1

Appendix C1.1: Reasons of being a teacher frequency table

reason1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	love for teaching	172	25.7	35.0	35.0
	love for children	66	9.9	13.4	48.4
	love for subject	133	19.9	27.0	75.4
	self-identity	15	2.2	3.0	78.5
	social development	79	11.8	16.1	94.5
	security and benefits	12	1.8	2.4	97.0
	long holiday	2	.3	.4	97.4
	social status	13	1.9	2.6	100.0
	Total	492	73.5	100.0	
Missing	.00	177	26.5		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.2: Teacher commitment characteristics frequency table

characteristic1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	loyalty	45	6.7	9.0	9.0
	involvement	51	7.6	10.2	19.3
	identification	30	4.5	6.0	25.3
	devotion	40	6.0	8.0	33.3
	membership	52	7.8	10.4	43.8
	accept goal & value	255	38.1	51.2	95.0
	responsible for student	25	3.7	5.0	100.0
	Total	498	74.4	100.0	
Missing	others	171	25.6		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.3: Teacher commitment sources frequencies table

source1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	student	170	25.4	34.1	34.1
	teaching	55	8.2	11.0	45.1
	colleague	15	2.2	3.0	48.1
	institution	83	12.4	16.6	64.7
	social value	15	2.2	3.0	67.7
	educational value	126	18.8	25.3	93.0
	personal value	35	5.2	7.0	100.0
	Total	499	74.6	100.0	
Missing	.00	170	25.4		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.4: The importance of teacher commitment frequencies table

importance1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	work motivation	52	7.8	10.7	10.7
	professional value	227	33.9	46.5	57.2
	benefits and honor	18	2.7	3.7	60.9
	academic achievement	71	10.6	14.5	75.4
	self-identity	50	7.5	10.2	85.7
	self-efficacy	70	10.5	14.3	100.0
	Total	488	72.9	100.0	
Missing	.00	181	27.1		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.5: Personal commitment levels frequencies table

personal level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	high and stable	128	19.1	25.2	25.2
	high but unstable	139	20.8	27.4	52.6
	moderate and stable	167	25.0	32.9	85.4
	moderate but unstable	66	9.9	13.0	98.4
	rather low	8	1.2	1.6	100.0
	Total	508	75.9	100.0	
Missing	.00	161	24.1		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.6: School commitment levels frequencies table

school level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	high and stable	95	14.2	19.0	19.0
	high but unstable	104	15.5	20.8	39.7
	moderate and stable	191	28.6	38.1	77.8
	moderate but unstable	88	13.2	17.6	95.4
	rather low	23	3.4	4.6	100.0
	Total	501	74.9	100.0	
Missing	.00	168	25.1		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.7: Teacher commitment peak year frequencies table

peak year

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	begining	155	23.2	36.4	36.4
	stabilization	204	30.5	47.9	84.3
	diversification	48	7.2	11.3	95.5
	conservative	9	1.3	2.1	97.7
	disengagement	10	1.5	2.3	100.0
	Total	426	63.7	100.0	
Missing	.00	243	36.3		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.8: Teacher commitment bottom year frequencies table

bottom year

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	begining	161	24.1	41.8	41.8
	stabilization	111	16.6	28.8	70.6
	diversification	75	11.2	19.5	90.1
	conservative	27	4.0	7.0	97.1
	disengagement	11	1.6	2.9	100.0
	Total	385	57.5	100.0	
Missing	.00	284	42.5		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.9: Factors reinforcing teacher commitment frequency table

reinforcment1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	educatinal policy	60	9.0	12.2	12.2
	management/leadership	101	15.1	20.5	32.7
	sense of respect	94	14.1	19.1	51.7
	collegial collaboration	85	12.7	17.2	69.0
	development oppotunity	54	8.1	11.0	79.9
	personal value	44	6.6	8.9	88.8
	student behavior	48	7.2	9.7	98.6
	reward and benefits	7	1.0	1.4	100.0
	Total	493	73.7	100.0	
Missing	.00	176	26.3		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.10: Factors obstructing teacher commitment frequency table

obstacle1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	educational policy	108	16.1	22.2	22.2
	management/leadership	143	21.4	29.4	51.5
	sense of respect	40	6.0	8.2	59.8
	collegial collaboration	67	10.0	13.8	73.5
	development oppotunity	24	3.6	4.9	78.4
	personal value	37	5.5	7.6	86.0
	student behavior	47	7.0	9.7	95.7
	reward and benefits	21	3.1	4.3	100.0
	Total	487	72.8	100.0	
Missing	.00	181	27.1		
	System	1	.1		
	Total	182	27.2		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.11: Teacher commitment: cope with changes frequency table

reaction1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	conform with	182	27.2	37.4	37.4
	rebel against	34	5.1	7.0	44.4
	discuss with colleague	164	24.5	33.7	78.0
	manipulation	16	2.4	3.3	81.3
	withdrawal	20	3.0	4.1	85.4
	hard working	71	10.6	14.6	100.0
	Total	487	72.8	100.0	
Missing	.00	182	27.2		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 1.12: Maintenance of teacher commitment frequency table

enrichment1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	continued professional development	251	37.5	51.5	51.5
	collegial collaboration	72	10.8	14.8	66.3
	political involvement	25	3.7	5.1	71.5
	classroom research	37	5.5	7.6	79.1
	participative management	42	6.3	8.6	87.7
	avocational activities	60	9.0	12.3	100.0
	Total	487	72.8	100.0	
Missing	.00	182	27.2		
Total		669	100.0		

Appendix C 2

Appendix C 2.1: Personal level * Department belonged

personal level * department belonged Crosstabulation

			department belonged								
			Thai language	matheme tics	foriegn language	arts	science	social studies	career and technology	health and physical education	Total
personal level	high and stable	Count	21	26	15	5	20	22	8	4	121
		% within personal level	17.4%	21.5%	12.4%	4.1%	16.5%	18.2%	6.6%	3.3%	100.0%
	high but unstable	Count	26	22	28	8	26	13	7	2	132
		% within personal level	19.7%	16.7%	21.2%	6.1%	19.7%	9.8%	5.3%	1.5%	100.0%
	moderate and stable	Count	30	25	32	9	28	11	17	8	160
		% within personal level	18.8%	15.6%	20.0%	5.6%	17.5%	6.9%	10.6%	5.0%	100.0%
	moderate but unstable	Count	8	9	11	4	10	11	7	1	61
		% within personal level	13.1%	14.8%	18.0%	6.6%	16.4%	18.0%	11.5%	1.6%	100.0%
	rather low	Count		3		2			3		8
		% within personal level		37.5%		25.0%			37.5%		100.0%
Total		Count	85	85	86	28	84	57	42	15	482
		% within personal level	17.6%	17.6%	17.8%	5.8%	17.4%	11.8%	8.7%	3.1%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.013[a]	28	.028
Likelihood Ratio	43.550	28	.031
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.219	1	.270
N of Valid Cases	482		

a. 13 cells (32.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .25.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.289	.028
N of Valid Cases		482	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 2.2: Personal TC level * Reason of being a teacher

Crosstab

			reason1								
			love for teaching	love for children	love for subject	self-identity	social development	security and benefits	long holiday	social status	Total
personal level	high and stable	Count	57	21	26	1	13		1	1	120
		% within personal	47.5%	17.5%	21.7%	.8%	10.8%		.8%	.8%	100.0%
	high but unstable	Count	35	26	33	7	26	1		1	129
		% within personal	27.1%	20.2%	25.6%	5.4%	20.2%	.8%		.8%	100.0%
	moderate and stal	Count	52	8	49	5	21	9		9	153
		% within personal	34.0%	5.2%	32.0%	3.3%	13.7%	5.9%		5.9%	100.0%
	moderate but unst	Count	17	6	16	1	15	2		2	59
		% within personal	28.8%	10.2%	27.1%	1.7%	25.4%	3.4%		3.4%	100.0%
	rather low	Count	1		4		1		1		7
		% within personal	14.3%		57.1%		14.3%		14.3%		100.0%
Total		Count	162	61	128	14	76	12	2	13	468
		% within personal	34.6%	13.0%	27.4%	3.0%	16.2%	2.6%	.4%	2.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	95.730[a]	28	.000
Likelihood Ratio	74.848	28	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	18.613	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	468		

a. 24 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.412	.000
N of Valid Cases		468	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 2.3: Personal TC level * TC sources

Crosstab

			source1							Total
			student	teaching	colleague	institution	social value	educational value	personal value	
personal level	high and stable	Count	40	7	5	25	2	29	11	119
		% within personal lev	33.6%	5.9%	4.2%	21.0%	1.7%	24.4%	9.2%	100.0%
	high but unstable	Count	55	14	1	15	2	37	7	131
		% within personal lev	42.0%	10.7%	.8%	11.5%	1.5%	28.2%	5.3%	100.0%
	moderate and stable	Count	55	24	3	32	6	29	8	157
		% within personal lev	35.0%	15.3%	1.9%	20.4%	3.8%	18.5%	5.1%	100.0%
	moderate but unstab	Count	16	7	4	4	4	22	4	61
		% within personal lev	26.2%	11.5%	6.6%	6.6%	6.6%	36.1%	6.6%	100.0%
	rather low	Count			1			5	2	8
		% within personal lev			12.5%			62.5%	25.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	166	52	14	76	14	122	32	476
		% within personal lev	34.9%	10.9%	2.9%	16.0%	2.9%	25.6%	6.7%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	52.502[a]	24	.001
Likelihood Ratio	54.543	24	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.055	1	.304
N of Valid Cases	476		

a. 16 cells (45.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .24.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.315	.001
N of Valid Cases		476	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 2.4: Personal TC level * Importance of TC

Crosstab

			importance1						
			work motivation	professional value	benefits and honor	academic achievement	self-identity	self-efficacy	Total
personal level	high and stable	Count	8	68	3	16	9	16	120
		% within personal level	6.7%	56.7%	2.5%	13.3%	7.5%	13.3%	100.0%
	high but unstable	Count	14	56	2	18	18	16	124
		% within personal level	11.3%	45.2%	1.6%	14.5%	14.5%	12.9%	100.0%
	moderate and stable	Count	19	69	2	26	12	30	158
		% within personal level	12.0%	43.7%	1.3%	16.5%	7.6%	19.0%	100.0%
	moderate but unstable	Count	7	21	6	9	5	8	56
		% within personal level	12.5%	37.5%	10.7%	16.1%	8.9%	14.3%	100.0%
	rather low	Count	2	1		1	2		6
		% within personal level	33.3%	16.7%		16.7%	33.3%		100.0%
Total		Count	50	215	13	70	46	70	464
		% within personal level	10.8%	46.3%	2.8%	15.1%	9.9%	15.1%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	36.189[a]	20	.015
Likelihood Ratio	30.405	20	.064
Linear-by-Linear Association	.667	1	.414
N of Valid Cases	464		

a. 10 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .17.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.269	.015
N of Valid Cases		464	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 2.5: Personal TC level * School TC levels

Crosstab

			school level					
			high and stable	high but unstable	moderate and stable	moderate but unstable	rather low	Total
personal level	high and stable	Count	60	18	32	12	1	123
		% within personal level	48.8%	14.6%	26.0%	9.8%	.8%	100.0%
	high but unstable	Count	14	49	29	31	8	131
		% within personal level	10.7%	37.4%	22.1%	23.7%	6.1%	100.0%
	moderate and stable	Count	16	19	110	15	1	161
		% within personal level	9.9%	11.8%	68.3%	9.3%	.6%	100.0%
	moderate but unstable	Count	3	8	14	27	8	60
		% within personal level	5.0%	13.3%	23.3%	45.0%	13.3%	100.0%
	rather low	Count		3	3	1		7
		% within personal level		42.9%	42.9%	14.3%		100.0%
Total		Count	93	97	188	86	18	482
		% within personal level	19.3%	20.1%	39.0%	17.8%	3.7%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	222.055[a]	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	197.740	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	65.642	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	482		

a. 8 cells (32.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .26.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.562	.000
N of Valid Cases		482	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 2.6: Personal TC level * TC obstacles

Crosstab

			obstacle1								
			educational policy	management/leadership	sense of respect	collegial collaboration	development oppotunity	personal value	student behavior	reward and benefits	Total
personal level	high and stable	Count	25	26	10	18	8	8	14	7	116
		% within personal l	21.6%	22.4%	8.6%	15.5%	6.9%	6.9%	12.1%	6.0%	100.0%
	high but unstable	Count	34	52	8	15	4	7	9	2	131
		% within personal l	26.0%	39.7%	6.1%	11.5%	3.1%	5.3%	6.9%	1.5%	100.0%
	moderate and stab	Count	32	42	13	23	9	10	18	7	154
		% within personal l	20.8%	27.3%	8.4%	14.9%	5.8%	6.5%	11.7%	4.5%	100.0%
	moderate but unst	Count	12	20	7	8		6	2	4	59
		% within personal l	20.3%	33.9%	11.9%	13.6%		10.2%	3.4%	6.8%	100.0%
	rather low	Count	1		1	1		3	1		7
		% within personal l	14.3%		14.3%	14.3%		42.9%	14.3%		100.0%
Total		Count	104	140	39	65	21	34	44	20	467
		% within personal l	22.3%	30.0%	8.4%	13.9%	4.5%	7.3%	9.4%	4.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42.028[a]	28	.043
Likelihood Ratio	41.707	28	.046
Linear-by-Linear Association	.004	1	.949
N of Valid Cases	467		

a. 13 cells (32.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .30.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.287	.043
N of Valid Cases		467	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 2.7: Personal TC level * TC reinforcements

Crosstab

			reinforcment1								Total
			educatinal policy	manage ment/lead ership	sense of respect	collegial collaborat ion	developm ent oppotunity	personal value	student behavior	reward and benefits	
personal level	high and stable	Count	15	21	27	18	17	9	10	1	118
		% within personal l	12.7%	17.8%	22.9%	15.3%	14.4%	7.6%	8.5%	.8%	100.0%
	high but unstable	Count	14	30	20	16	13	16	18	2	129
		% within personal l	10.9%	23.3%	15.5%	12.4%	10.1%	12.4%	14.0%	1.6%	100.0%
	moderate and stab	Count	13	29	36	36	20	9	11	2	156
		% within personal l	8.3%	18.6%	23.1%	23.1%	12.8%	5.8%	7.1%	1.3%	100.0%
	moderate but unsta	Count	10	15	10	11	3	3	5	1	58
		% within personal l	17.2%	25.9%	17.2%	19.0%	5.2%	5.2%	8.6%	1.7%	100.0%
	rather low	Count		1		2	1	3		1	8
		% within personal l		12.5%		25.0%	12.5%	37.5%		12.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	52	96	93	83	54	40	44	7	469
		% within personal l	11.1%	20.5%	19.8%	17.7%	11.5%	8.5%	9.4%	1.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	43.462[a]	28	.031
Likelihood Ratio	39.158	28	.078
Linear-by-Linear Association	.059	1	.808
N of Valid Cases	469		

a. 13 cells (32.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .12.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.291	.031
N of Valid Cases		469	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 2.8: Personal TC level * TC enrichments

Crosstab

			enrichment1						
			continued professional development	collegial collaboration	political involvement	classroom research	participative management	avocational activities	Total
personal level	high and stable	Count	69	19	5	9	11	9	122
		% within personal level	56.6%	15.6%	4.1%	7.4%	9.0%	7.4%	100.0%
	high but unstable	Count	72	12	7	9	10	13	123
		% within personal level	58.5%	9.8%	5.7%	7.3%	8.1%	10.6%	100.0%
	moderate and stable	Count	74	22	4	11	18	24	153
		% within personal level	48.4%	14.4%	2.6%	7.2%	11.8%	15.7%	100.0%
	moderate but unstable	Count	26	14	2	4	3	11	60
		% within personal level	43.3%	23.3%	3.3%	6.7%	5.0%	18.3%	100.0%
	rather low	Count	2		2	1		2	7
		% within personal level	28.6%		28.6%	14.3%		28.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	243	67	20	34	42	59	465
		% within personal level	52.3%	14.4%	4.3%	7.3%	9.0%	12.7%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31.773[a]	20	.046
Likelihood Ratio	27.893	20	.112
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.273	1	.012
N of Valid Cases	465		

a. 8 cells (26.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .30.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.253	.046
N of Valid Cases		465	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 3

Appendix C 3.1: Work experience * TC sources

Crosstab

			source1							
			student	teaching	colleague	institution	social value	educational value	personal value	Total
work experience	begining	Count	23	7	6	12	3	27	5	83
		% within work experience	27.7%	8.4%	7.2%	14.5%	3.6%	32.5%	6.0%	100.0%
	stabilization	Count	64	16	3	32	6	39	18	178
		% within work experience	36.0%	9.0%	1.7%	18.0%	3.4%	21.9%	10.1%	100.0%
	diversification	Count	61	25	5	31	6	45	5	178
		% within work experience	34.3%	14.0%	2.8%	17.4%	3.4%	25.3%	2.8%	100.0%
	conservative	Count	19	4		8		8	5	44
		% within work experience	43.2%	9.1%		18.2%		18.2%	11.4%	100.0%
	disengagement	Count	1	1	1			7	2	12
		% within work experience	8.3%	8.3%	8.3%			58.3%	16.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	168	53	15	83	15	126	35	495
		% within work experience	33.9%	10.7%	3.0%	16.8%	3.0%	25.5%	7.1%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.592[a]	24	.030
Likelihood Ratio	42.122	24	.013
Linear-by-Linear Association	.261	1	.609
N of Valid Cases	495		

a. 13 cells (37.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .36.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.269	.030
N of Valid Cases		495	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 3.2: Work experience * School TC levels

Crosstab

			school level					
			high and stable	high but unstable	moderate and stable	moderate but unstable	rather low	Total
work experience	begining	Count	11	11	37	18	4	81
		% within work experience	13.6%	13.6%	45.7%	22.2%	4.9%	100.0%
	stabilization	Count	29	50	62	32	5	178
		% within work experience	16.3%	28.1%	34.8%	18.0%	2.8%	100.0%
	diversification	Count	37	36	69	28	10	180
		% within work experience	20.6%	20.0%	38.3%	15.6%	5.6%	100.0%
	conservative	Count	14	4	18	6	2	44
		% within work experience	31.8%	9.1%	40.9%	13.6%	4.5%	100.0%
	disengagement	Count	1	2	4	4	2	13
		% within work experience	7.7%	15.4%	30.8%	30.8%	15.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	92	103	190	88	23	496
		% within work experience	18.5%	20.8%	38.3%	17.7%	4.6%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.607[a]	16	.046
Likelihood Ratio	25.520	16	.061
Linear-by-Linear Association	.543	1	.461
N of Valid Cases	496		

a. 7 cells (28.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .60.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.226	.046
N of Valid Cases		496	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 3.3: Work experience * TC peak year

Crosstab

			peak year					
			begining	stabilization	diversification	conservative	disengagement	Total
work experience	begining	Count	46	8	1	1	4	60
		% within work experience	76.7%	13.3%	1.7%	1.7%	6.7%	100.0%
	stabilization	Count	88	70	2	1		161
		% within work experience	54.7%	43.5%	1.2%	.6%		100.0%
	diversification	Count	17	98	27	5	5	152
		% within work experience	11.2%	64.5%	17.8%	3.3%	3.3%	100.0%
	conservative	Count	1	21	15		1	38
		% within work experience	2.6%	55.3%	39.5%		2.6%	100.0%
	disengagement	Count	2	3	3	2		10
		% within work experience	20.0%	30.0%	30.0%	20.0%		100.0%
Total		Count	154	200	48	9	10	421
		% within work experience	36.6%	47.5%	11.4%	2.1%	2.4%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	187.893[a]	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	197.806	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	73.621	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	421		

a. 14 cells (56.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .21.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.556	.000
N of Valid Cases		421	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 3.4: Work experience * TC bottom year

Crosstab

			bottom year					
			begining	stabilization	diversification	conservative	disengagement	Total
work experience	begining	Count	39	5	1	2	2	49
		% within work experience	79.6%	10.2%	2.0%	4.1%	4.1%	100.0%
	stabilization	Count	78	65	2	6	1	152
		% within work experience	51.3%	42.8%	1.3%	3.9%	.7%	100.0%
	diversification	Count	38	35	49	11	4	137
		% within work experience	27.7%	25.5%	35.8%	8.0%	2.9%	100.0%
	conservative	Count	4	6	16	7	1	34
		% within work experience	11.8%	17.6%	47.1%	20.6%	2.9%	100.0%
	disengagement	Count	2		3	1	3	9
		% within work experience	22.2%		33.3%	11.1%	33.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	161	111	71	27	11	381
		% within work experience	42.3%	29.1%	18.6%	7.1%	2.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	167.455[a]	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	163.655	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	77.945	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	381		

a. 11 cells (44.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .26.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.553	.000
N of Valid Cases		381	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 3.5: Work experience * TC Obstacles

Crosstab

			obstacle1								
			educational policy	management/leadership	sense of respect	collegial collaboration	development oppotunity	personal value	student behavior	reward and benefits	Total
work experience	begining	Count	10	12	8	18	7	6	13	3	77
		% within work experienc	13.0%	15.6%	10.4%	23.4%	9.1%	7.8%	16.9%	3.9%	100.0%
	stabilization	Count	42	50	16	27	8	11	14	10	178
		% within work experienc	23.6%	28.1%	9.0%	15.2%	4.5%	6.2%	7.9%	5.6%	100.0%
	diversification	Count	38	63	15	12	7	16	15	6	172
		% within work experienc	22.1%	36.6%	8.7%	7.0%	4.1%	9.3%	8.7%	3.5%	100.0%
	conservative	Count	16	12		9	2	3	1	1	44
		% within work experienc	36.4%	27.3%		20.5%	4.5%	6.8%	2.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	disengagement	Count	2	3	1			1	4	1	12
		% within work experienc	16.7%	25.0%	8.3%			8.3%	33.3%	8.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	108	140	40	66	24	37	47	21	483
		% within work experienc	22.4%	29.0%	8.3%	13.7%	5.0%	7.7%	9.7%	4.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	55.033[a]	28	.002
Likelihood Ratio	58.849	28	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.709	1	.017
N of Valid Cases	483		

a. 15 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .52.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.320	.002
N of Valid Cases		483	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix C 3.6: Work experience * TC reinforcements

Crosstab

			reinforcment1								
			educatinal policy	management/leadership	sense of respect	collegial collaboration	development oppotunity	personal value	student behavior	reward and benefits	Total
work experience	begining	Count	5	10	18	14	8	10	15	2	82
		% within work experie	6.1%	12.2%	22.0%	17.1%	9.8%	12.2%	18.3%	2.4%	100.0%
	stabilization	Count	18	36	36	23	24	16	20	2	175
		% within work experie	10.3%	20.6%	20.6%	13.1%	13.7%	9.1%	11.4%	1.1%	100.0%
	diversification	Count	27	47	22	31	20	15	9	3	174
		% within work experie	15.5%	27.0%	12.6%	17.8%	11.5%	8.6%	5.2%	1.7%	100.0%
	conservative	Count	9	7	8	15	2	2	2		45
		% within work experie	20.0%	15.6%	17.8%	33.3%	4.4%	4.4%	4.4%		100.0%
	disengagemer	Count	1		8	1		1	1		12
		% within work experie	8.3%		66.7%	8.3%		8.3%	8.3%		100.0%
Total		Count	60	100	92	84	54	44	47	7	488
		% within work experie	12.3%	20.5%	18.9%	17.2%	11.1%	9.0%	9.6%	1.4%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	64.007[a]	28	.000
Likelihood Ratio	62.588	28	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.232	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	488		

a. 15 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .17.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Contingency Coefficient	.341	.000
N of Valid Cases		488	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.