

PROFESSIONALIZATION, BUREAUCRATIZATION
AND CONFLICT
IN SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELLORS

by

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among professionalization, bureaucratization and conflict for secondary school counsellors in Winnipeg. The two principle constructs were derived especially for this study on the basis of a thorough perusal of relevant educational and administrative literature. Measures of these two constructs were created and made up part of a questionnaire.

The hypothesis that professional orientation and bureaucratic orientation are dependent variables for secondary school counsellors was supported. The hypothesis that conflict is positively correlated with degree of professionalism was not supported, although the relationship was in the expected direction. Counsellors with high professional scores tended to have high conflict scores. Also, the hypothesis that conflict is negatively correlated with degree of bureaucratic orientation was not supported, although the relationship was in the expected direction.

The data indicated that, while professionalism increased with experience, bureaucratization decreased with age, experience, and level of education. Conflict increased with age. Conclusions and recommendations about counsellor professionalization and bureaucratization were drawn.

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CHAPTER I

Background of the Study

This study grew out of a concern with the idea that professionalization is a militant process, operating in a manner which increases inter-personal conflict in bureaucratic work settings, and that bureaucratization is a pacifying process, operating in a manner which decreases inter-personal conflict in bureaucratic work settings.

Conflict is usually thought of as a negative factor in interpersonal relations, and therefore, it was considered of great importance to discover if professionalization and bureaucratization, two concepts of central importance to the organization of human endeavour, are antithetical and contain within them some conceptual rationale for interpersonal conflict.

The professional employee in a bureaucratic work setting is at risk if his orientation to his work leads him to expectations and behaviors not approved of by his employers or not understood by his co-workers. If the professional employee understood the possible relationships among professionalization, bureaucratization, and conflict, he would be better prepared to deal with this component of his working environment.

The Research Questions

Counsellors receive professional training in universities and work in schools which are managed bureaucratically to some degree.

Counsellors quality as professional employees in a bureaucratic work setting. It is possible that, for school counsellors who have been trained in universities, professionalization and bureaucratization are parts of dependent systems. As professionalization increases bureaucratization would decrease, producing an inverse relationship. This possibility was investigated in this study.

If conflict increases with professionalization and decreases with bureaucratization, the antithetical nature of professionalization and bureaucratization would be demonstrated. This study investigated this further possibility.

The research questions were:

1. Are professionalization and bureaucratization dependent variables for counsellors in secondary schools?
2. Does the rate of conflict increase with an increase in professionalization?
3. Does the rate of conflict decrease with an increase in bureaucratization?

Organization of the Study

Chapter II contains a review of the literature related to the present investigation. Much of the review of the literature is devoted to a definition of what is implied by the terms 'professionalization' and 'bureaucratization.' These are treated as psychological constructs.

Appendix A contains a list of counselling behaviors which

comprise a professional orientation to counselling and a list of counselling behaviors which comprise a bureaucratic orientation to counselling. These lists of behaviors are operationalized definitions of the constructs under investigation.

The review of the literature also contains material used to generate a list of conflict situations in which counsellors may find themselves.

A questionnaire was designed based upon the lists of behaviors in Appendix A, the conflict material, and a need for descriptive information. This questionnaire can be found in Appendix B.

Chapter III presents the methodology employed in this study and includes the hypotheses used to test the research questions.

Chapter IV contains an analysis of the results, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Bureaucratization

Bureaucracy

A vast literature exists on the general topic of bureaucracy (Punch, 1969). Much of the general theory of bureaucracy can be traced to Max Weber and The Theory of Social and Economic Organizations, or his Essays in Sociology, works translated into English in the forties.

According to many writers (Anderson, 1966; Bogue, 1969; Caplow, 1976; Etzioni, 1964; Gray and Starke, 1977; Gue, 1977; Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973) most organizations are not pure Weberian Bureaucracies. There are degrees to which bureaucratic principles apply to organizations. They write of bureaucratization as a process, and show how to find evidence of the extent to which an organization is bureaucratic.

Bureaucratization and the Significance of Subjective Evidence

Punch (1969) suggested that since all schools may be seen as bureaucracies, it is the extent of their bureaucratization which is important. For measurement, this implies continuously distributed rather than discontinuous variables. It implies also that the term "bureaucracy" is of less use than the terms "bureaucratic" and "bureaucratization."

Punch (1969) relied on the symbolic interactionist viewpoint of Blumer (1962) - the exploration of any behavior must take into account the actor's perception of the situation - to suggest that what is important is the teacher's own assessment of bureaucratization levels in schools, and not, in actual fact, how bureaucratic the school is. The interest is not in how bureaucratic the school really is, but in how bureaucratic the people who work there think it is.

This allows the admission of subjective evidence and allows for the development of a measurement device employing Likert Scales, and other means of gathering opinion.

Another pertinent effect of this point on the design of this thesis is that the primary concern is defining the bureaucratic orientation and the professional orientation, as modes of thinking, feeling, and behaving, and not with defining bureaucracy or professionalism in absolute terms. Also, the extent to which a person has a bureaucratic orientation, or a professional orientation, is a continuous variable.

Before these orientations are presented and defined, it is necessary to present a discussion of bureaucratic characteristics, professional characteristics, and other related matters.

Bureaucratic Characteristics

Punch (1969) suggested that there is some confusion about the precise number of characteristics of a bureaucracy. He mentioned

twenty-six as the upper limit, and six as the comfortable and reasonable limit. These characteristics are: hierarchy of authority, specialization, rules for role incumbents, procedural specifications, impersonality, and technical competence.

The following material is adapted from Etzioni's (1964) presentation of Weber's features of bureaucratic structure and covers much the same ground as the characteristics listed above, but in more detail.

1. "A continuous organization of functions bound by rules.
Rational organization is the antithesis of ad hoc, temporary, unstable relationships; hence the stress on continuity. Rules save effort by obviating the need for deriving a new solution for every problem and case. They facilitate standardization and equality in the treatment of many cases.

These advantages are impossible if each client is treated as a unique case, as an individual.

2. "A specific sphere of competence. This involves:
 - a) a sphere of obligations to perform functions which have been marked off as part of a systematic division of labour
 - b) the provision of the incumbent with the necessary authority to carry out these functions
 - c) that the necessary means of compulsion are clearly defined and their use is subject to definite conditions"

Thus a systematic division of labour, rights, and power is essential for rational organizations. Not only must each participant know his job and have the means to carry it out, which includes first of all the ability to command others, but he must also know the limits of his job, rights, and power so as not to overstep the boundaries between his role and those of others and thus undermine the whole structure.

3. "The organization of offices follows the principle of hierarchy; that is, each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one."

In this way, no office is left uncontrolled. Compliance cannot be left to chance; it has to be systematically checked and reinforced.

4. "The rules which regulate the conduct of an office may be technical rules or norms. In both cases, if their application is to be fully rational, specialized training is necessary. It is thus normally true that only a person who has demonstrated an adequate technical training is qualified to be a member of the administrative staff..."

Weber conceived of the administrative staff as people who had worked their way up through the ranks. They would have knowledge through practical experience of the jobs over which they had supervisory authority.

5. "It is a matter of principle that the members of the administration should be completely separated from ownership of the means of production..."

6. "A complete absence of appropriation of his official positions by the incumbent" is required.

The resources of the organization have to be free of any outside control and the positions cannot be monopolized by any incumbent. They have to be free to be allocated and re-allocated according to the needs of the organization.

Another way of saying this is the employee goes where they send him and does what he is told.

7. "Administrative acts, decisions, and rules are formulated and recorded in writing..."

Weber stressed the need to maintain a systematic interpretation of norms and enforcement of rules, which cannot be maintained through oral communication (p. 54-54).

Anderson (1966) explained the effect of rules on members of the organization, and on the functioning of the organization. Specifically, "authority becomes embodied in a set of rules" (p. 11). Rules become "the bearer of authority" for the organization, and it is through their functioning that an organization controls and directs the actions of its participants in the accomplishment of a common goals.

The specific type of authority necessary to bureaucratic

functioning is called rational-legal authority.

"Rational-legal" authority is a system of general rules which circumscribe the conduct of members of the organization in their official functions. In a sense the rules are universalistic and impersonal and apply to all the persons who fall within the categories outlined by the rules. Here there is a complete separation of the official's function from his personal life. His authority and administrative control only extends to matters pertaining to the office which he occupies. Even there he is limited to a sphere of competence and his jurisdiction is carefully defined (p. 10).

Furthermore, participants in the organization are assigned particular roles that are functionally specified and impersonalized. Authority is delegated to organizational roles and not to the individual fulfilling the role (p. 12).

In the words of Talcott Parsons:

"... this form of institutionalization involves a kind of abstraction of a part of the human individual from the concrete whole which is in a certain sense 'unreal' and hence can only be maintained by continual discipline (p. 12).

The impersonality of bureaucracies stems from "the rules."

By reducing the necessity for frequent contact between the administrator and subordinate, rules assert an influence over the conduct of participants in place of the personal authority of direct supervision. Rules allow the administrator to call upon the organizational authority residing in them so that he does not personally have to legitimate this authority to subordinates. On the other hand, they provide a means whereby members can accept the organization's claim to authority without personally submitting to administrators whom they view as their professional equals (p. 19).

The administrator is simply explicating the authority vested in the rules. The subordinate is simply obeying the authority residing in the rules. Both persons become agents with the rules acting as the real bearer of authority (p. 19).

Anderson (1966) discussed other consequences of the reliance on rules. Legalism, the attitude of just doing one's duty, following

the rules, allows one to abdicate his own responsibility for the consequences of his "rule-bound" behavior. Rules also allow people to avoid responsibility in those cases where there is no precedent that suggests the proper course of action. Responsibility is shifted upwards to higher levels of the hierarchy where the decision has to be made. The discrepancy between responsibility and authority encourages people to do the safe thing and not stick out their necks and take a chance. It is because of this that Anderson (1966) suggested that a teacher concerned about his career will minimize his responsibility when there is any possibility of incurring the displeasure of his superiors.

Anderson (1966) also discussed the boundary function of rules:

Another purpose that rules serve is that of a boundary function ... the way to control an individual's behavior within an organization is to specify the value and factual premises on which he must base his decisions. His "scope of influence" and "scope of discretion" can be determined by the types of premises which are left to his discretion as compared to those which are specified for him. Consequently, the degree of discretion permitted members of an organization in carrying out their functions can be regulated by broadening or narrowing the rules bounding their behavior (p. 25).

Professionalization

Professional Characteristics

Gue (1977, pp. 102-107) presented the topic of professionalism and analyzed it in the educational context. He cited Greenwood (1957) and Hrynyks (1966) as making useful contributions.

Greenwood (1957), stated that all professions seem to possess:

1. systematic theory
2. authority
3. community sanction
4. ethical codes
5. a culture

Systematic Theory

The knowledge component of a profession may be considered to include skills backed by a fund of internally consistent esoteric knowledge called a body of theory. To qualify for the ranks of the professions, this body of theory must be unique to the profession. Preparation for the profession thus consists of intellectual study and acquisition of the technical skills emanating from that study.

Authority

The authority of a professional lies in his expertise, in his knowledge. He is granted authority to perform by virtue of being granted a license to do so by his professional colleagues. The right to grant a license to practice is granted by virtue of community sanction.

Community Sanction

The community both requires and sanctions professions. The community confers upon the profession whatever powers and privileges the profession possesses, such as control of education of its members, and of their license to practice... Because professions possess an esoteric body of knowledge, they reserve to themselves the right to judge the competence of their colleagues, and the community allows them this privilege.

Ethical Codes

So far the concept of professionalism hinges upon knowledge and

the respect for that knowledge held by people who do not possess it. Community sanction is embodied in the law of the land. In order to maintain the community's respect, and thereby protect the status quo, professions have ethical codes.

Since a profession has a monopoly on a type of service to humanity, the possibility exists for the abuse of privilege. In order to help prevent such abuses, and also to help to define them, professions have formal and informal codes of ethics and standards of conduct. A formal code of ethics is a statement of broad principles and ideals to which an individual subscribes upon entering a profession.

A code of ethics usually includes a description of and guidelines for the client-professional relationship and the colleague-colleague relationship. The client-professional relationship is usually characterized by objectivity and confidentiality. The colleague-colleague relationship is usually characterized by cooperation and mutual support.

Professional Culture

The professional culture of a professional is the same as a professional ethos, the key elements being a special language, values and norms, symbols, kinship, formal and informal organizations, political organization, dwellings, and economics.

Gue (1977, pp. 107-108) also presents Hrynyk's (1966) analysis of the concept of a profession. There are five distinguishing dimensions:

1. knowledge
2. service
3. core organization
4. colleague-professional

5. client autonomy

Knowledge dimension. The work performed by a professional person is essentially intellectual in character and is based on an estoteric, theoretical body of knowledge.

Service dimension. This dimension is characterized by a claim, early in the development of a profession, to a unique mission in society.

Core-organizational dimension. In the process of establishing itself, it is apparently inevitable that the profession will organize, but the 'organization' should not be confused with the 'profession.' The organization becomes the enforcer of standards of conduct, codes of ethics and attempts to control licensing and admittance to the profession.

Colleague-professional dimension. The notion of collegueship stresses the occupational unity of the practitioners and affiliation with the profession leads to a concern about who one's colleagues are.

Client-autonomy dimension. This dimension of professionalism is characterized by the fact that members of a profession become involved in sets of relationships with their clients which do not appear to be duplicated in other occupational groups. The professional applies his unique skills which require the use of individual judgement and discretion. This involves him in fiduciary relationships of trust and faith, placing a responsibility on him that leads him to demand autonomy in decisions related to the practice of his profession. (What is fiduciary in the relationship is the client's health and well-being, and his protection).

Hrynyk's material presents the process of professionalization as opposed to a definition of a profession. Gue (1977), in reference to the professionalization of the teacher, clearly conceives of professionalization as a developmental process:

Being a professional is, after all, a state of mind, the result of enculturation or socialization into a profession. Being a professional has to be demonstrated by preferential behavior in decision making situations with a number of alternatives open (p. 116).

Authority

It would seem that authority—the right, the power, and the ability to act—is central to both bureaucratic and professional functioning. The major difference lies in the fact that bureaucratic authority emerges from the rules, and from officially designated responsibilities attached to specific roles or positions in a hierarchy. The organization is supposed to be designed so that the power to make the decision is granted to the person who has the responsibility for the decision, according to his role. The boundary function implicit in rational legal authority also delimits the incumbents sphere of influence and responsibility. On the other hand, the authority of a professional arises from the officially sanctioned possession of an esoteric body of knowledge comprising his expertise. His use of his expertise is limited by formal and informal codes of ethics, but within those limitations, he is autonomous.

In addition, and most pertinently, it can be seen that bureaucratic authority is, ideally, impersonal. But professional authority is personalized authority because the professional is personally responsible for his decisions, and he is also expected to protect his client.

An earlier statement was that bureaucracies do not work if each client is treated like an individual. The professional is bound by his ethics to treat each client as an individual case. To

this extent then, bureaucratization and professionalization are antithetical.

Weber's bureaucratic model held that people holding superordinate positions would have to have technical competence to do so, and the suggestion was that they would be competent to perform all the subordinate roles they supervised (Etzioni, 1964).

However, modern organizations employ specialists in the middle ranks to perform tasks that supervisors have only partial knowledge of, due to the complexity and vastness of both modern organizations and contemporary knowledge. Professionals, specialists, and experts are employed by organizations with bureaucratic structures. Since the basis for authority in bureaucratic structures differs from the basis of professional authority, it is necessary to explore various formulations illustrating sources of authority.

Sources of Authority

Sergiovanni and Carver (1973, pp. 156-157) present the formulations of Guba (1960), Peabody (1962), and French and Raven (1968).

Guba's (1960) Role and Person Dimensions of Authority suggests that the administrator has authority derived from two sources - the role and person dimensions of the administrative social system - both of which he can utilize to effect goal achievement. The role-based authority is independent of the individual; it is based on the position held in the hierarchy. Subordinates obey because "he's the

Boss." Sergiovanni and Carver continue:

Each school executive is a unique individual. Experience, training, personality, and personal appearance are variables which differentiate between and among school executives. The extent to which subordinates react positively to attempts at movement toward goal achievement initiated by a particular administrator is related to this personal dimension. Obviously, for any given subordinate, personal characteristics of the administrator may have a positive or a negative force. Whether or not the executive deliberately utilizes the person dimension does not negate its existence. It is somewhat ironic therefore that the true bureaucrat who works so hard at de-personalizing role performance (and authority) presents a personal image of a faceless, colorless, cold fish. This practice in turn, has negative implications for his effectiveness; his authority is diminished rather than increased. Schematically, the administrator's sources of authority are depicted in Figure 1 (p. 157).

FIGURE 1

Role and Person Dimensions of Authority

(Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973)

The administrator has

actuating force

(authority)

which derives from

Role Dimension

(monothetic)

Delegated status

and authority

Person Dimension

(idiographic)

Achieved prestige

and authority

which enables him to influence the

behavior of

subordinates

toward

goals of

the school

Because the true bureaucrat is impersonal, and because of the content of the previous discussion of rational-legal authority, consider the process of bureaucratization as a nomothetic process. Because of the personalized authority base of the professional, consider professionalization as an idiographic process.

Sergiovanni and Carver (1973, p. 160) presented Peabody's (1962) formal and functional authority bases.

Formal authority bases are comprised of legitimacy, position, and the sanctions inherent in the office...

Formal authority bases are subclassified as legitimacy and position bases...

Authority of legitimacy - the potential capacity to effect movement toward goal achievement accruing from acceptance by subordinates of legally constituted order. (The principal relies on the school code)

Authority of position - the potential capacity to effect movement toward goal achievement accruing from position and its inherent sanctions and rewards. (The principal relies on delegated authority.)

Functional authority bases are comprised of professional competence, experience, and human relations skill, which support or compete with formal authority.

Functional authority bases are subclassified as competence and person bases.

Authority of competence - potential capacity to effect movement toward goal achievement accruing from knowledge and skill gained through training or experience. (The principal knows more about schedule-making than the teachers.)

Authority of person - potential capacity to effect movement toward goal achievement accruing from personal characteristics or mystique. (charisma) (The principal has a way with teachers)

Discussion of Guba's (1960) and Peabody's (1962) Sources of Authority

According to Peabody there are four authority bases: authority of legitimacy, authority of position, authority of competence, and authority of person.

These authority bases operate together, although at different times one may be more in effect than others.

According to Guba there are two bases of authority: the role or nomothetic dimension; and the person or idiographic dimension.

The bureaucratic model emphasizes authority of legitimacy and authority of position, or formal authority. These are basically the same as Guba's role dimension. The bureaucratic model subsumes authority of competence in authority of position. (A supervisor would not be a supervisor unless he could do a subordinate's job.)

The professional model emphasizes authority of competence and authority of person, or functional authority, and subsumes legitimacy and position in the competence base, by virtue of knowledge, licensing procedures and so on. The functional authority base is basically the same as Guba's personal dimension.

It would be safe to say that formal authority is nomothetic and bureaucratic while functional authority is idiographic and professional.

Sergiovanni and Carver (1973) presented French and Raven's (1968) five bases of social power.

French and Raven consider authority by first asking the question, "What power makes people obey superiors?" Power and authority are the same thing (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973).

The types of power are:

Reward - subordinates perceive that the school executive can withhold, permit, or increase rewards.

Coercive - subordinates perceive that the school executive can distribute punishment (e.g. dismissal, undesirable assignments). Coercion at one extreme would involve physical force.

Legitimate - subordinates perceive that the school executive, by virtue of his position and status within a duly constituted hierarchy, has the right to behave the way he behaves, and expect what he expects.

Referent - subordinates perceive the school executive as a desirable and appropriate human model and want to be mutually perceived, thus his demands are accepted.

Expert - subordinates perceive the school executive to possess relevant expertise (p. 163).

Reward, coercive, and legitimate powers are essentially bureaucratic powers. Referent (like authority of person) and expert powers are essentially professional. Table 1 contains a comparison of terms discussed so far.

TABLE 1

COMPARISON OF TERMS

bureaucratic	professional
nomothetic	idiographic
formal authority (legitimate and position)	functional authority (competence and person)
reward, coercive, and legitimate powers	referent and expert powers

Orientations

On the Nature of "Orientation"

Abbott (1973) with the help of Likert (1961) defined an individual's cognitive orientation towards his job as:

Dimensions of the individual's intellectual understanding; his concept of his job - what he thinks he is supposed to do and how he is supposed to do it - and his concept of the organization and its objectives (p. 369).

That is, an individual's cognitive orientation represents his perceptual response to the organization's codified behavior system. This perceptual response is influenced by attitudes and values.

At the same time that an individual is coming to a rational understanding of his position in an organization, he is also developing feelings and attitudes regarding that position. Thus, as he achieves a cognitive orientation to roles, he is also acquiring affective responses to roles. To the extent to which an employee's cognitive orientation permits him to behave

in ways that fit reasonably well with his idealized role definitions, the experience will be perceived as individually satisfying, his attitudes will be generally positive, he will generally be supportive of the organization, and his behavior will be expected to contribute most directly to the accomplishment of the organization's goals.

On the other hand, to the extent that an employee is required to alter radically his own role definitions to conform to organization demands, thus being required to behave in ways which deny the fulfillment of his own organizationally relevant needs, the experience will be perceived as individually dissatisfying, his attitude will be generally negative, he will generally be non-supportive of the organization and his behavior will be expected to contribute less than maximally to the accomplishment of the organization's goals (pp. 370-371).

The Bureaucratic-employee and the Professional-employee Orientations

Corwin (1965) wished to investigate the relationship between conflict and the bureaucratic and professional orientations. He created a model based on three organizational characteristics, standardization, specialization, and authority, and compared the differences in approaches to these characteristics based on bureaucratic and professional principles. Table 2 reproduces his model (p. 7).

TABLE 2

CONTRASTS IN THE BUREAUCRATIC AND PROFESSIONAL
EMPLOYEE PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

organizational characteristics	bureaucratic	professional
<u>Standardization</u>		
routine of work	stress on uniformity of client's problems	stress on uniqueness of client's problems
continuity of procedure	stress on records and files	stress on research and change
specificity of rules	rules stated as universals; and specific	rules stated as alternatives; and diffuse
<u>Specialization</u>		
basis of division of labour	stress on efficiency of techniques; task orientation	stress on achievement of goals; client orientation
basis of skill	skill based primarily on practice	skill based primarily on monopoly of knowledge
<u>Authority</u>		
responsibility for decision-making	decisions concerning application of rules to routine problems	decisions concerning policy in professional matters and unique problems
basis of authority	rules sanctioned by the public	rules sanctioned by legally sanctioned professions
	loyalty to the organization and to superiors	loyalty to professional associations and clients
	authority from office (position)	authority from personal competence

Corwin (1965) reported that people with high professional-employee orientations and low bureaucratic-employee orientations had the highest rate of conflict. People with low professional and high bureaucratic orientations had the lowest rate of conflict. Also, schools whose staff had the highest mean professional orientation had the highest mean rate of conflict.

Corwin (1965) reported that total professional scale scores of the sample were not significantly correlated with total bureaucratic scale scores, and that, therefore, these orientations are parts of independent systems. However, when employees have high professional and low bureaucratic orientations they have higher rates of conflict than any other combination.

Corwin (1965) conceptualized conflict as "the rate of open or heated discussions or major incidents per interview" (p. 11). He compared rate of conflict with a "global tension" measure in the questionnaire which asked how much tension existed between each of thirteen types of role partners in each school (e.g., teacher-administrator role, teacher-teacher role). The alternatives ranged from severe to none. There was a direct Spearman rank order correlation of .82 between the total number of incidents reported per interview and this global measure of tension and a correlation of .93 when "open and heated discussions" were included. When the rate of open or heated discussions or major incidents per interview involving teachers and administrators was correlated with global tension, it was .89.

Corwin (1965) concluded that professionalization is a militant process which increases conflict and tension in the organization and that bureaucratization tends to decrease conflict and tension.

He cautioned researchers not to conclude that bureaucratization and professionalization are on opposite ends of a continuum because of the possibility of holding both high rates or low rates of both simultaneously, for example. He also made the point that an individual can have a high professional orientation towards some issues, and not towards others.

Corwin (1965) had this to say about the nature of professional-bureaucratic conflict:

In thinking of organizations, administrators often seem to have had in mind a stereotype implicitly based on the military bureaucracy, which they have attempted to apply wholesale to virtually every type of organization, under the myth that a central office must have authority over every decision throughout the organization. This myth can bridle professionals who have first hand acquaintance of their client's problems and who have specialized training for dealing with them, but who have insufficient authority over the way clients are treated. Conversely, those who are most removed from the operating level are put in the impossible position of being held responsible for the decisions which must be made there. Moreover, these discrepancies among authority, competence, and responsibility have more significance for professional employee organizations (such as schools) than for example, for factories or for prisons. (p. 17)

The Individual and the Organization: Self-actualization

Argyris' (1960) idea about conflict in organizations was that the demands organizations make of the individual are in basic conflict with the individual's desire and need to achieve self-actual-

ization. In structural-functional terms, this means that organizational decision-making structures and rules inhibit optimum satisfaction of individuals (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973).

Bogue (1969) in a discussion of the industrial humanist movement wrote:

...relationships encouraging dependence, submissiveness, conformity, and imposed evaluation must give way to relationships which hold opportunity for development of trust, for independence of action, for risk taking, and self-evaluation (p. 62).

... it is apparent that the concepts of trust, participation and self-actualization are key elements... (p. 64)

One of the most critical indictments of contemporary organizational patterns is that they reduce the opportunity for individuals to achieve psychological success (p. 64).

Such things as chain of command, span of control, task specialization, restrictive management controls, all of which are bureaucratic, operate to reduce opportunities for self-actualization (Argyris, 1960).

It would seem, therefore, that people with high bureaucratic orientations would devalue self-actualization, and that people with high professional orientations would value self-actualization. Self-actualization is idiographic in the sense that it concerns the individual's development of psychological success. It is possible to add the concept of valuing self-actualization to the professional orientation, especially in regard to certain of the helping professions.

This statement will be returned to later in a discussion of what constitutes a professional counselling orientation, and the work of Selfridge and Koik (1976) regarding self-actualization and the counsellor.

A Summary of the Professional and Bureaucratic Orientations

A summary of what constitutes a professional orientation and what constitutes a bureaucratic orientation is presented in Tables 3 and 4.

Previously presented conceptual divisions (Corwin, 1965) have been collapsed into two divisions for easier comparison. These divisions are authority, and the nomothetic-idiographic mode. Nomothetic refers to an appeal to universals and is essentially bureaucratic. Idiographic refers to an appeal to the particular and is essentially professional.

Although some overlap is evident due to the similarity of the phenomena being organized by different writers, the distinction between the professional and bureaucratic orientations is clear.

Tables 3 and 4 summarize the bureaucratic and professional orientations along two dimensions. The authority dimension is based on an organizational premise. The idiographic-nomothetic dimension is based on a value premise.

TABLE 3

THE AUTHORITY DIMENSION OF THE BUREAUCRATIC
AND PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATIONS

Bureaucratic	Professional
1. formal authority legitimate and position (Peabody, 1962)	1. functional authority competence and person
2. reward, coercive and legitimate powers (French and Raven, 1968)	2. referent and expert powers (devalues punishment)
3. authority from office or position, division of labour, role, impersonal (Etzioni, 1964; Guba, 1960)	3. authority from personal competence (Guba, 1960; Corwin, 1965)
4. organizational based rational- legal procedures, rules, im- personal (Anderson, 1966)	4. code of ethics, procedures based on expert knowledge (Greenwood, 1957; Hrynyks, 1966)
5. hierarchical authority, line authority (Etzioni, 1964)	5. autonomy within profes- sional limits (Corwin, 1965; Greenwood, 1957; Gue, 1977)
6. organization (employer) specifies the value and factual premises on which decisions are based (Anderson, 1966)	6. profession values and factual premises encultur- ated and otherwise learned through training (Corwin, 1965; Gue, 1977)
7. stress on records and files (Etzioni, 1964; Corwin, 1965)	7. stress on research and change (Corwin, 1965)
8. organization promotes and develops employees	8. professional organizations control training, licensing procedures (Gue, 1977)
9. skills based on primarily practical experience (Etzioni, 1964)	9. skills based primarily on monopoly of knowledge (Gue, 1977)

TABLE 3 cont'd

Bureaucratic	Professional
10. rules sanctioned by public, law (Etzioni, 1964; Corwin, 1965)	10. rules sanctioned by legally sanctioned pro- fessions (Corwin, 1965)

TABLE 4

THE NOMOTHETIC-IDIOPHIC DIMENSION OF THE
BUREAUCRATIC AND PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATIONS

Bureaucratic	Professional
1. nomothetic (normative) (Guba, 1960)	1. idiographic (individual)
2. devalues self-actualization abstracts part of the individual from the whole which the organi- zation controls through discipline (Argyris, 1960; Bogue, 1969; Parsons, 1947)	2. values self-actualization deals with whole people as individuals
3. stress on uniformity of client's problems (Corwin, 1965)	3. stress on uniqueness of client's problems
4. rules stated as universals and specific; impersonally applied (Corwin, 1965)	4. rules stated as alterna- tives and diffuse, person- alized application taking into account unique circumstances
5. stress on efficiency of tech- niques task orientation (Corwin, 1965)	5. stress on achievement of goals client orientation
6. decisions concerning application of rules to routine problems (Corwin, 1965)	6. decisions concerning policy in professional matters and unique problems
7. loyalty to organization, employers, and to superiors (Corwin, 1965)	7. loyalty to professional organization and to clients
8. goals of the organization held paramount (Corwin, 1965)	8. service dimension, unique mission in society; goals of the profession worked out for individual clients

Counselling Professionalism and Professionalization

In Manitoba, counsellors in secondary schools do not require a professional license to counsel but do require a professional license from the provincial department of education which allows them to teach. Depending upon the interpretation of the grant structure a school board either hires a counsellor as a special category or hires him as a teacher.

Counsellors who have obtained specialized counsellor training in universities may have a better chance of obtaining a counselling position than people who do not have such training. However, the school administration can nominate a member of its teaching staff to the counsellor role without such specialized training (Hassard and Costar, 1977). Counselling as a profession does not have licensing control over high school counsellors, so to this extent, high school counselling is not a true profession.

Counselling does have a code of ethics, and it does have a number of organizations offering professional standards to its members. There is the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association (CGCA), and in Manitoba, there is the School Counsellors' Association of Manitoba (SCAM), which has special area group membership affiliation with the Manitoba Teachers' Society. The CGCA has a relationship with the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA). Tracing the exact nature of that relationship is not pertinent here except to say that the Code of Ethics of the CGCA is

based on the Code of Ethics of the APGA.

The Code of Ethics of the CGCA

What follows is an abridgement of the ethical code and includes those items particularly significant to counsellors in schools and to professionalism.

From Section "A" GENERAL

1. The maintenance of high standards of professional competence is a responsibility shared by all counsellors...
2. The counsellor or other practitioner exerts appropriate influence to foster the development and improvement of the profession and continues his professional growth throughout his career.

The counsellor should therefore actively seek and be engaged in further training through university courses, conferences, workshops, and should attempt to keep abreast of the literature. It may also be an invitation to engage in professionalization as a militant process (Corwin, 1965) depending upon one's interpretation of 'appropriate influence to foster the development and improvement of the profession.'

4. A member is obligated to concern himself with the degree to which guidance activities of non-members with whose work he is acquainted represents competent and ethical behavior...

This is an invitation to engage in processes of evaluation and consultation. It is also an invitation to assume the mantle of an expert in the profession who is capable of assessing the level of

performance of others.

5. A counsellor or practitioner has an obligation to ensure that evaluative information about his clients will be communicated only to those persons who will use the information for professional purposes.

This invites debate in a school over what constitutes confidential information and what constitutes professional purpose, especially in the light of other guidelines which follow.

Section "B" Counselling (CGCA)

1. A counsellor or practitioner's primary obligation is to respect the integrity and promote the welfare of the counsellee or client with whom he is working.
2. The counselling relationship and information resulting therefrom must be kept confidential in a manner consistent with the obligations of the counsellor or practitioner as a professional person.
4. The client should be informed of the conditions under which he may receive counselling assistance at or before the time he enters such a relationship.

When these items are contrasted with the disciplinary imperatives of the school administration and staff who stand in locus parentis to the student body, the suggestion of a possible conflict with the professional responsibilities of the counsellor becomes clear. This puts the onus on the counsellor to clarify the

nature of his relationship with his employer. These points will be discussed further under the heading of role conflict.

8. When a counsellor learns from counselling relationships of conditions which are likely to harm others over whom his institution or agency has responsibility, he is expected to report the condition to the appropriate responsible authority. If the information has been received in confidence, he reveals the identity of his client only when there is clear and imminent danger to an individual or to society and then only to appropriate professional workers or public authorities.
9. The counsellor or practitioner takes into account and shows prudential regard for the social codes and moral expectations of the community within which he works.

The counsellor has to make judgements about what constitutes potential harm to others and develop prudential regard for publicly held value systems. It is possible to know about such value systems only in the most general terms because they are continually evolving and are doing so at different rates in different geographic areas. This suggests that his ability to help a client, respect the integrity, and promote the welfare of his client may be problematic. Sources of conflict can lie in different perceptions of normative value systems and moral conduct, and in differing orientations towards discipline.

Other professional activities of counsellors include conducting or participating in research, and assessment.

The Code of the APGA

The ethical standards of the APGA offer a definition of a profession and a professional organization, and suggest further descriptions of professional behavior.

1. (A profession possesses) a body of specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes known and practiced by its members.
2. This body of specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes is derived through scientific inquiry and scholarly learning.
3. This body of specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes is acquired through professional preparation, preferably on the graduate level, in a college or university as well as through continuous in-service training and personal growth after completion of formal education.
4. This body of specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes, is constantly tested and extended through research and scholarly inquiry.
5. A profession has a literature of its own, even though it may, and indeed must, draw portions of its content from other areas of knowledge.
6. A profession exalts service to the individual and society above personal gain. It possesses a philosophy and a code of ethics.
7. A profession through the voluntary association of its members constantly examines and improves the quality of its profes-

sional preparation and services to the individual and society.

8. Membership in the professional organization and the practice of the profession must be limited to persons meeting stated standards of preparation and competencies.

9. The profession affords a life career and permanent membership as long as services meet professional standards.

10. The public recognizes, has confidence in, and is willing to compensate the members of the profession for their services.

The above material suggests that counsellors should have gone to graduate school. They should continue to develop after their initial training and should develop a personal theory of counselling based on sound principles. It suggests that they read the literature of counselling and that of related fields. They should be members of a professional counselling organization. They should engage in evaluation of counsellor education, and evaluation of counselling in the schools. They should, through individual initiative and the work of their organization, seek control of the licensing procedures under which they must work. Counsellors appointed by the administration of a school should therefore develop an allegiance to counselling professionalism in these ways. In addition, and most pertinently, counselling affords a life career. Counsellors should not therefore wish to become administrators, or if they do, they do so at risk to having a maximal professional orientation to counselling. Shertzer and Stone (1976) discussed the

teacher-counsellor-administrator career ladder, suggesting that counselling serves as an administration training ground.

Section "B" 'Counselling' of the code of ethics of the APGA offers a distinction between the counselling relationship and the administrative relationship:

This section refers to practices involving a counselling relationship with a counsellee or client and is not intended to be applicable to practices involving administrative relationships with the person being helped. A counselling relationship denotes that the person seeking help retain full freedom of choice and decision and that the helping person has no authority or responsibility to approve or disapprove of the choices or decisions of the counsellee or client.

To the extent to which the school counsellor agrees with this distinction he will not assume administrative responsibility, give advice, or approve or disapprove of the client's behavior. Some theories of counselling are more directive than others and it is possible that one's theory of counselling may give one reason to disregard the above distinction. In Manitoba schools the staff has the right, granted by the school act, to discipline, approve, or disapprove of student behavior, and generally guide the decisions and choices of students. Depending upon the counsellor's own theory of, and philosophy of, counselling, there is clearly room for conflict of principles here. It could possibly be, considering that the right to discipline is also the responsibility for discipline, that counselling is not really possible in schools. This points up the importance of clarifying the nature of the counsellor's

relationship with his employer.

Counselling "Defined"

There are many definitions of counselling and statements of what the counsellor does (Barry and Wolfe, 1963; Rothney, 1972; Shertzer and Stone, 1976; Van Hoose and Pietrofesa, 1970). Statements of what the counsellor can do or should do are also popular (Feltham, 1979; Huffman, 1979).

Barry and Wolfe (1963) identified eight ways of thinking about guidance-personnel work - educational-vocational, services, counselling, adjustment, problem-centered, education, developmental, and integrated. They stated that all eight are distinct and justifiable, and one way is no better or worse than any other.

Some authors (Shertzer and Stone, 1976) have argued that counselling and guidance-personnel work are the same thing. Some think of guidance as a constellation of services, of which counselling is one (Hoyt, 1962), and that guidance provides the frame of reference in which counsellors operate.

Some define counselling as the professional activity of student personnel workers, and guidance as comprising support activities, which, when over-emphasized dilute counselling professionalism (Patterson, 1971; Shertzer and Stone, 1976).

Arbuckle (1971), Egan (1973), Patterson (1971) offer definitions of counselling in terms of specific theories. Rothney (1972) discussed behaviorist and client-centered counselling, for example.

Henjum (1969, 1979), Hoyt and Laramore (1974), Super (1974) and Tiedemen (1972) present rationales whereby counselling is career development, or career education, putting everything in a career perspective (...career is like motion, a time-extended working out of self (Tiedemen, 1972, p. 85). Some writers have placed career development as a subsection of the information service (Shertzer and Stone, 1976).

Considering the above, which is a very limited statement of the complexities involved in understanding definitions of counselling, it is interesting to note the suggestion of Corey and Garris (1971):

"Counselling is counselling" (page 117).

In the light of the diversity of viewpoint and the complexities involved in defining the role of the counsellor, defining that role constitutes a major study in itself. The study begins with coming to an understanding of the nature of man, and the nature of the relationship and the importance of the relationship between the individual and society (Arbuckle, 1971; Barry and Wolfe, 1963; Loesch and McDavis, 1978). The definition of counselling then becomes specific and operational, one's operations emerging from one's theoretical premises (Carkuff, 1972).

Both Shertzer and Stone (1976) and Pietrofesa and Vriend (1971) argue that it is a professional responsibility of school counsellors to define their role and job functions, as individuals and through the work of their professional associations, and not let others, and the expectations of others, define counselling for them.

Because the interest here is in counselling professionalization, consider the following (Patterson, 1971):

It has been suggested several times in this volume that counselling is only a part of student personnel work, but it has been indicated that counselling is, or should be, the major service. Counselling is the core of the personnel services provided by the school. Moreover, it is the most highly skilled activity of the professional personnel worker. It is for these reasons that we use the word counsellor to refer to the professional worker in counselling. Hatch and Steffle (1965) state it clearly when they say that, "the primary responsibility of the counsellor is counselling. Additional duties serve as diluting agents and may result in a teacher or an administrator with the title of counsellor. A situation of this kind is a prostitution of the counsellor's abilities and results in a guidance program that is based on an inadequate or imaginary foundation (p. 107).

Because of this, and preceding statements, the counsellor with a professional orientation considers counselling as his primary function and conceives of guidance services and educational services as supportive of his primary function.

In order to facilitate the explication of a professional orientation to counselling, consider the following statement as comprising the basic principles from which the school counsellor can derive a more specific and operational description of his role.

The counsellor engages in helping relationships (Egan, 1973). The school counsellor uses interpersonal skills in a helping relationship in order to help students achieve appropriate, self-selected goals (Shertzer and Stone, 1976). The helping relationship is based on the expert knowledge of counselling theory and practise

(APGA; CGPA). This comprises the counsellor's primary function.

The school counsellor consults with teachers, administrators, parents, and professional personnel in order to facilitate improvement in the basic social and learning environment experienced by the individual student.

The school counsellor engages in guidance activities. Guidance services include information, orientation, student data, placement, and follow up (Hassard and Coster, 1977).

The school counsellor engages in educational activities. These educational services include psychological education, sex education, drug abuse education, and so on. The most important function of educational services offered by counsellors is Career Development.

Consulting, guidance services, and educational services are all considered support services to the counsellor's primary role, which is counselling students (Carmical and Calvin, 1970).

A counsellor's primary obligation is to respect the integrity and promote the welfare of the counsellee with whom he is working (CGCA).

The counsellor does not engage in administrative relationships with his counsellees (APGA). This is so because the successful achievement of appropriate self-selected goals by individual counsellees is predicated on the counsellee owning the problem and the solution to the problem (Henjum, 1979a).

In the above statement, "goal" refers to the resolution of a problem. The word "problem" may have a negative value associated

with it for some people. Consider the following definition of 'problem' (Webster's Dictionary):

- a question proposed for solution or consideration
- a question, matter, situation, or person that is perplexing or difficult
- anything required to be done, or requiring the doing of something.

This is the sense of the word 'problem' used above and there is nothing aspersive about it.

In short, the counsellor does not tell people what to do. The counsellor lets people see what is to be done.

For a discussion of a counselling approach largely supportive of the above statement of principles see Rothney (1972). He suggested that adaptive Counselling is counselling for better self-understanding and better decision-making.

Role Conflict: Counsellor and Administrator

Pressures on the Process of Role Definition

The counsellor is exposed to a variety of pressures on the process of role definition, and these various expectations can conflict with his own, thus producing role conflict. Role-conflict is non-congruence of the expectations and attitudes held for the role. The non-congruence can exist for the role incumbent within

himself, or exist between the role incumbent and others (Abbott, 1973).

Some of the pressures on the process of defining the counselor's role come from administrators. The following statements are from the National Association of School Principals Bulletin.

The overall findings was that guidance counselling as currently performed, is substantially ineffective. Specific findings included the fact that two out of every five parents surveyed felt that counsellors had little effect on their children's development. Counsellors did not appear to exercise a marked influence on student decisions with respect to choice of occupation or post-secondary education. The range of functions normally assigned to guidance departments was found to dilute the resources available for counselling and was wasteful of professional skills. The role and functions of guidance counsellors were not clear, and nearly one of four counsellors was unsure as to whether or not counsellors themselves understood their roles (Koten, 1977, p. 17).

Increasingly, counsellors realize that they are not the only specialists in human behavior in a school. Thus, one important movement is the "giving away" of counsellor functions to the teacher-counsellor and to peer-counsellors (Koten, 1977, p. 20).

The administrator's role is crucial. By virtue of his authority and expertise he is in the best position to determine the direction of the counselling program within his school (Koten, 1977, p. 20).

Guidance is everyone's responsibility (Jenkins, 1977, p. 29).

A teacher-advisor program that includes all professionals in the school building is one solution to the counsellor-student ratio imbalance (Jenkins, 1977, p. 29).

My basic quarrel is with the concept that counsellors should have little or nothing to do with discipline and attendance (Trump, 1977, p. 26).

... the basic function of the personnel program in the school is to help each student to discover and develop to a reasonable degree a set of hobbies or special interests and talents, and

in addition, to select and prepare for one or more career choices before he leaves (Trump, 1977, p. 27).

Role Conflict: The counsellor and the principal

The keynote study on role conflict is by Hart and Prince (1970). They suggested that some general themes serving as guidelines for counsellor practise are: the necessity for counsellor-student confidentiality; the value of counsellor freedom from clerical tasks; the importance of personal adjustment counselling; the difficulties which come with disciplinary assignments; and the value of student self-discovery.

Although the counsellor has a professional and research basis for defining his role and function within the school setting, his freedom to implement the role is often limited by the school administrator who has different role expectations for him... (p. 375)

Disagreement is frequently found on such matters as reinforcing student conformity, performing routine clerical functions, and divulging confidential information. Of course, not all counsellor functions are disputed; many counsellors and principals agree on such counsellor behaviors as showing warmth and concern for individual needs, devoting time and effort to a growth and development process, and relating to students as a helper rather than as an expert (p. 375).

Hart and Prince (1970) cited Kempt (1962) as giving little hope for the counsellor's position when a role conflict develops because a counsellor wishes to behave in ways incongruent with the principal's expectations because the principal is the major influence in determining the function of each staff member, including the

counsellor.

The main areas of conflict exposed in the study were discipline, clerical activities, personal-emotional counselling, confidentiality, counsellor versatility (counsellor as handyman), and sharing faculty duties. Their results indicated either a strong difference, or a discernable trend towards a difference, between principals and counsellors along each of these dimensions. Hart and Prince (1970) suggested that counsellor educators inculcate a certain orientation in their students which is at odds with principal expectations.

Principals thought that clerical duties like class changes, registration, and attendance-checking are appropriate functions of the counsellor. Principals disagreed with the basic principles involved with counsellor-client confidentiality as held by counsellor educators. Non-counselling tasks like faculty duties (supervision) and filling in as a teacher or being a general administrative assistant were seen as appropriate by principals. The principal sees counsellors as academic advisors and not as people who assist students in self-discovery and adjustment. Hart and Prince (1970) concluded that conflict between counsellors and principals is real.

Hassard and Costar (1977) reported that the three most common dimensions of the school counsellor's role are counselling, consulting, and coordinating guidance services. In an investigation of the principal's perception of the ideal counsellor role they report reactions to the counsellor acting as an administrative agent, a

student advocate, a consultant to the principal and teacher, an educational and career planning facilitator, a disciplinarian, and a therapist.

Hassard and Costar (1977) reported that most principals view the counsellor as generalist with competencies to deal with a number of areas, like student data, rather than as a specialist with one exclusive function, counselling.

They tended to favour counsellors serving as administrative agents and consultants. This was based upon their needs for control and leadership, and for information on which to make administrative decisions and evaluations.

Principals and counsellors engaged in role bargaining. The principals held greater sanctions because of their position in the power structure. Counsellors held some degree of influence because of their ability to interpret student needs to both principals and teachers.

Principals perceived counsellors as only one kind of personnel responsible for the delivery of the six traditional guidance services (counselling, information, orientation, student data, placement and follow-up).

Principals did not see counsellors as unique. Counsellors did not hold a monopoly over the provision of guidance services. Principals felt that other means of providing guidance services should be investigated using teachers, counsellors, specialists, and administrators.

Hassard and Costar (1977) conclude:

Principals saw the counsellor's role as largely one of administrative support. Their perspective was most often from the point of view of the institution while that of the counsellors' sprang from the needs of individual students.

.... Principals, because of their obligation to boards and departments of education, tended to be more concerned about the institution, the group and the student body. Counsellors, on the other hand, because of their professional training, had as their main concern, the needs and welfare of individual students. In terms of priority, the principal's primary concern was for the welfare of the institution and his or her secondary concern was for individual students. With counsellors the opposite was true. Thus, conflict in role perception is almost a certainty.

If either the principal or the counsellor is unaware of this inherent role conflict they may personalize it. In such a case, each may resent the other. Where principals do not understand the value of a student advocate, they feel more comfortable psychologically when the counsellor adopts either a role similar to theirs or operates as an administrative support person (p. 199).

Personality Characteristics of Principals and Counsellors

Chenault and Seegars (1962) compared personality characteristics of principals and counsellors. The following is a summary of their findings.

Both counsellors and principals see principals as more competitive and aggressive and less kind, understanding, and reassuring than counsellors.

Counsellors view themselves as more considerate and encouraging than they see their principals.

Principals describe themselves as more businesslike and

competitive than they see their counsellors.

Both counsellors and principals would like to see each other more managerial and autocratic, but counsellors would like principals to be less competitive than the counsellors see them, and principals would like counsellors to be firmer, and less indulgent:

Counsellors see themselves as more big-hearted and reassuring and less assertive and autocratic than they feel principals should be.

Principals want their counsellors to be more assertive and businesslike, but less competitive than themselves.

Principals described themselves as more hostile (less loving) than the self-concept reported by counsellors.

Similarly, counsellors described principals as manifesting more hostility than principals credited to counsellors.

Seventy per cent of the principals indicate that counsellors should be able to give orders, be dominating, forceful, and be able to give advice. Fifty-four per cent of counsellors concurred, although only seven per cent placed their ideal selves in that category.

Counsellors are not what principals want them to be and not what they want to be themselves.

Principals indicate that counsellors should play more of a decision making, leadership role, while counsellors suggest that they, the counsellors, should lean more toward impartial observation and understanding. As such, counsellors do not offer the response

patterns desired by principals.

Chenault and Seegars (1962) infer that these personality differences are in line with the principal's complaint that counsellors do not accept the responsibility necessary for their place in the administrative pattern and the counsellor's complaint that principals are not tolerant of the counselling function.

Personality Characteristics of Counsellors

Shertzter and Stone (1976) reviewed counsellor characteristics. They mentioned Mowner (1951) as saying that personal maturity was the most important characteristic for counsellors but that there was no valid way to assess it.

Selfridge and Kolk (1976) offered evidence that self-actualization as measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory, purported to measure attitudes related to effective personal functioning and positive mental health, correlated highly with Roger's four core conditions of the counselling relationship, as measured by the Relationship Inventory. Generally, it appeared that the higher the degree of self-actualization, the greater the ability to effectively convey the core conditions of facilitative interpersonal relationships.

The counsellor with a professional orientation would therefore value self-actualization in himself and in others, although he may call it by another name, such as self-development, for example.

Shertzter and Stone (1976) cite the Association for Counselor

Education and Supervision as saying that counsellors should have six basic qualities:

belief in each individual
commitment to individual human values
alertness to the world
open-mindedness
understanding of self
professional commitment

Shertzer and Stone (1976) cite Polmantier (1966) in suggesting that two of the ten counsellor characteristics should be:

1. The counsellor exhibits a tolerance for ambiguity and has the ability to face ambiguity without letting it disorganize professional or personal aspects of life.
2. The counsellor is flexible enough to understand and deal with all kinds of human behavior without mustering authority or social pressure to force the client to conform (p. 124).

Summary of Role Conflict and Personality Differences
Between Principals and Counsellors

Concluding a section reviewing how counsellors differ from teachers and administrators, Shertzer and Stone (1976) suggested that differences exist on such traits as friendliness, understanding, respect for and belief in the worth of the individual, attitudes of acceptance, permissiveness, empathy, sense of humour,

common sense, objectivity, and freedom from prejudice.

Arbuckle (1971) has summarized the difference between administrators and counsellors in these words:

The administrator tends to see the counsellor

- a) as an arm of the authority of the school
- b) as one concerned with academic and job advisement
- c) as one who will communicate information about students to him
- d) as one who will help, persuade, or convince the student to adjust to the reality of the school as it exists.

The counsellor, who has learned

- a) that he is to help the student to self-discovery via individual or group counselling
- b) that he must maintain as confidential material communicated to him by the student
- c) that responsibility for self is more important than adjustment to the system, will obviously bump heads with school administrators (p. 43).

From the above material it is apparent that role conflict between administrators and counsellors arises out of a difference in orientations to their work. The counsellor is essentially idiographic, concerned with the individual. The administrator is essentially nomothetic, concerned with the organizational processes of his institution. By virtue of personality characteristics, the counsellor is best suited to engage in helping relationships, while

the administrator is best suited to engage in administrative relationships.

Role Conflict and Counselling Professionalism

Swisher (1970) used Corwin's (1965) concept of professionalization and conflict to study the relationship between a school counsellor's professional behavior and the frequency, intensity, types, and reactions to conflicts reported by teachers, counsellors, and administrators. He constructed a Professional Behavior Index comprised of twelve items.

1. number of years of college completed
2. highest college degree
3. hours devoted to professional reading per week
4. undergraduate grade average
5. activity in professional organizations
6. number of conferences or workshops attended
7. number of professional journal subscriptions
8. number of published books or articles
9. other professional roles
10. salary
11. sex
12. age

The top 27 percent on this index and the bottom 27 percent were compared in terms of frequency, intensity, types, and reactions to conflicts. He found that counsellors with a high professional

orientation on this index had significantly more conflicts than the counsellors with a low professional index. He found no difference in intensity, types, and reaction to conflicts. He did find that conflicts involving scheduling were very common. Other kinds of conflicts involved overlapping authority, control over curriculum, violation of chain of command, the enforcement of school policy, favoritism, school community relations, personality clashes, and the attainment of money and space. He found that the favourite way of dealing with conflicts was to talk them out with the people involved.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Development of the Questionnaire

The design of the questionnaire was based upon the lists of behaviors in Appendix A, the conflict material presented in Chapter I, and a need for descriptive information. The Questionnaire can be found in Appendix B. The questionnaire consists of four sections: an information section, a conflict scale, a bureaucratic scale, and a professional scale.

The Information Section

The information section was comprised of items designed to produce descriptive information about the sample. Questions one through nineteen make up the information section. The variables were sex, marital status, age, years teaching experience, years counselling experience, years of employment in present school, and the number of teachers, administrators, and students in the school, and journals subscribed to and read. Question 18 indicated the counsellors preference for counselling or administrative activities. Question 19 asked respondents to rate the importance of fifteen items to the respondent's guidance counselling program.

The Conflict Scale

The conflict scale consisted of questions 20, 21, 22, and 23,

on pages 5 to 10 of the questionnaire. Question 20 consisted of four statements describing the counsellor's relationship with the teaching staff in descending order from excellent to poor. Values from 1 to 4 were assigned to these statements. Question 21 was concerned with staff resistance to the counsellor's efforts to try something new and was answered either yes or no. Question 22 consisted of five statements describing the counsellor's relationship with the principal, from excellent to totally unsatisfactory, and received values from 1 to 5. These questions were designed to describe in general terms the amount of comfort or discomfort in the relationships.

Question 23 was designed to provide a more specific measurement of the conflict experienced by counsellors. It consisted of twenty-six items which sampled the population of possible conflict situations that a counsellor may experience. A respondent had to rate on a four point scale the frequency of conflict over an item, and the concern the conflict caused, on a four point scale. These two sets of values were totalled giving a frequency of conflict measure and a concern with conflict measure. These measures have a possible range between 26 and 104.

The Professional and Bureaucratic Scales

The professional and bureaucratic scales were combined in question 24. The items on these scales were based on a list of characteristic behaviors of these orientations (Appendix A).

Question 24 consists of twenty-three pairs of statements, one from each scale. The order of each pair was randomly reversed. The respondent was asked to agree or disagree with each statement on an individual basis, so he could agree with both, disagree with both, or agree with one and disagree with the other. A value of 1 was given to each agreement, making a range from 0 to 23 on each scale.

Administration of the Questionnaire

Counsellors agreeing to participate cooperated in the process of making an appointment at our mutual convenience. This first contact was made by telephone. All appointments took place at the counsellor's place of work. The appointment started with a brief conversation to explain what was expected of the respondent. The respondent then filled out the questionnaire in the researcher's presence in order that any issues perceived as confusing or ambivalent could be cleared up. This encouraged the collection of sound data. Afterwards, a discussion of the research problem took place, producing anecdotal information of some consequence. Guidelines for the discussion included finding out if the questions covered the ground sufficiently or if something pertinent had been omitted, and the request that the counsellor recall at which stage of his career, if any, he had experienced more difficulty or less, and the circumstances surrounding such an increase or decrease from the present level. The respondents volunteered information and opinion, some of which is presented in the results section.

The Sample

The population from which the sample was drawn consisted of those secondary school counsellors working in the area of Winnipeg who were able to agree to take part in research without first requiring that permission for the conducting of research be granted by the central administration of the school board.

The criteria for acceptance as part of the sample was as follows. The counsellor had to be working more than half-time as a secondary school counsellor. They had to be counsellors and not teachers 'filling in' temporarily, or teachers given a student advisor responsibility in schools without a guidance office.

The sample consisted of twenty-six full-time counsellors. A sample size between 25 and 30 is considered appropriate for correlational analysis (Nie, et al, 1975).

Analysis of the Data

Statistical analyses were performed using procedures described in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, et al, 1975) and the computer facilities of the University of Manitoba.

Descriptive statistics gained from the information section of the questionnaire are presented in the next chapter.

The professional and bureaucratic scales were analyzed to see if items on the scales discriminated between these variables. The data were studied to see if any component existed in these scales

that operated as a mask to the relationships between these scales.

Frequency of response to items on the conflict scale was studied to determine which conflict situations presented the most difficulty to counsellors and to describe the amount of conflict experienced by the respondents.

Response frequency to items on question 18 was studied in order to isolate a group from the sample who were less interested in counselling and more interested in administration. This group was compared with the remaining subjects on their scores on the professional and bureaucratic and conflict scales.

Spearman and Kendall rank order correlational coefficients were computed between scores on the three scales to find support for the hypotheses. Nie, et al (1975) stated that "there is no fixed rule about selection one over the other" (p. 289), so both Spearman and Kendall rank order correlational coefficients are reported. Rank order correlational coefficients are applicable when the data have ordinal levels of measurement (Nie, et al, 1975). The .05 level of significance was suggested as a suitable level for correlational research in the social sciences (Nie, et al, 1975).

Significant correlational coefficients between the scales and minor variables are presented in the next chapter in order to explore further the relationships among the scales. Chi square was employed to yield comparisons between sub-groups in the sample after the methods of Corwin (1965).

Statement of Hypotheses

1. The professional orientation and the bureaucratic orientation are dependent variables for secondary school counsellors.
2. Rate of conflict is positively correlated with degree of professional orientation.
3. Rate of conflict is negatively correlated with bureaucratic orientation.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSES, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Analysis of Data

The Information Section

Descriptive Statistics

The information section yielded results which were descriptive of the sample of counsellors used in the study. Important statistics describing the sample are presented in Table 5. The counsellors were mature in terms of age and experience. They were not mobile since most had spent considerable time in their present schools. The sample was well-educated in that 9 had B.Ed.s, 15 had one or more Master's degrees, and 2 had Ph.D.s, and together had an average of 6.5 years of post-secondary education. The size of the staff and student population of the schools where the counsellors worked is also presented in Table 5.

The sample may be characterized as mature, experienced, non-mobile, well-educated and urban. Generalizations to relatively inexperienced, mobile and rural populations cannot be made from the data. The sample did not include counsellors with less than four years experience as counsellors. The data cannot be generalized to populations consisting of counsellors who are just beginning.

TABLE 5
STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVE OF THE SAMPLE

variable	max	min	mean	std dev
age	62	28	42.154	9.242
teaching experience	36	5	17.462	8.515
counselling experience	28	4	10.577	5.155
post-secondary education	12	5	6.538	1.630
years in present school	15	1	7.808	4.079
no of administrators	4	2	2.462	0.582
staff size	97	24	44.885	17.429
student population	1500	470	820.500	273.642
no of counsellors in school	3	1	1.769	0.710

N= 26. 9 female, 17 male

The Response to Question 18

Table 6 is a presentation of the response of the sample to a list of counselling related and administration related activities, in terms of whether or not the respondents would like to practise them. Of particular interest are the responses to "school administration" and "tell people what to do." Of the respondents 42.3% checked "school administration" and only 7.7% checked "tell people what to do." These latter did not check off "school administration." Of the 9 people who checked "give advice" only 2 also checked "school administration." The scores on the scales of those who checked "give advice" and "school administration" were compared with those who did not. These comparisons are presented in a later section.

The response to question 18 indicated that the sample generally favored school counselling activities first. Counselling activities in a non-school setting came next, and administration activities came third. This was taken to mean that the majority of the sample had stable career interests in the area of counselling.

TABLE 6

RESPONSE TO QUESTION 18. COUNSELLING RELATED
AND ADMINISTRATION RELATED ACTIVITIES

Item	Per cent positive response
Career counselling	96.2
Personal emotional counselling	92.3
Vocational counselling	88.5
Educational placement	80.8
Family counselling	76.9
Crisis counselling	73.1
Student-advisor	73.1
Assessment	61.6
Testing	57.7
Study habits counselling	57.7
Psychological education	57.7
Death and dying counselling	53.8
Marriage counselling	46.2
Student advocate	46.2
School Administration	42.3
Social work	42.3
Rehabilitation counselling	42.3
Give advice	34.6
Be a Dean of Students	34.6
Psychotherapy	23.1
Counselling the aged	19.2
Tell people what to do	7.7

The Response to Question 19

Question 19 asked respondents to rate the importance of counselling functions to their counselling programs from more important to less important on a three point scale. The averaged ratings of the sample from Question 19 are presented in Table 7. The ratings were not exclusive, and this, along with the effects of averaging, explains the displacement towards 1, or more important. Counsellors tended to rate most of the functions as important or more important.

Individual counselling was rated as more important by all respondents and came first over-all. Career development came fifth. Research was rated second to last, just ahead of clerical tasks. Consulting with teachers and administrators came fourth, and consulting with parents came sixth. The high ratings given to consulting, and the generally harmonious relations with staff and administration reported in questions 20, 21, 22 (see next headings) indicated that these counsellors carried out their consulting responsibilities with a high degree of seriousness and expertise in a generally comfortable atmosphere.

TABLE 7
RESPONSE TO QUESTION 19. AVERAGED RATINGS OF
FUNCTIONS IMPORTANT TO COUNSELLING PROGRAMS

Item	Rating	Importance
Individual counselling	1.00	
Student course selection	1.076	MORE
Post-secondary educational placement	1.269	
Consulting teachers and administrators	1.269	IMPORTANT
Career development	1.308	
Consulting with parents	1.423	
Student appraisal	1.654	
Professional development	1.654	
Evaluation or needs assessment of the program	1.808	IMPORTANT
Public relations	1.962	
Setting up special programs	2.00	
Group counselling	2.154	LESS
Teaching mini-courses	2.346	
Research	2.462	IMPORTANT
Clerical tasks and record keeping	2.885	

The Response to Question 20

Question 20 asked respondents to check the one statement that best described the respondents working relationship with the teaching staff. Of the respondents 69.23% checked the most harmonious statement describing their relationship with the staff which read, "I can talk to every teacher on staff about a matter of concern and get acceptable results." The rest, or 30.77%, checked the second harmonious statement which read, "I can talk to most but not all teachers about a matter of concern and get acceptable results."

The Response to Question 21

Question 21 asked respondents to answer yes or no to the statement, "A constant problem for me is staff resistance to any new idea or program I want to introduce and it takes considerable effort on my part to deal with it." All respondents answered in the negative. Staff resistance was not a problem for these counsellors. In the discussion which followed filling out the questionnaire some counsellors stated that their schools had a system for dealing with all innovations in a manner which involved all concerned parties in their design so staff resistance was never an issue for them.

The Response to Question 22

Question 22 asked respondents to check the one statement which best described their working relationship with the principal. Of the respondents 61.5% checked the most harmonious statement describing their relationship with the principal which read, "I have a very comfortable working relationship with my principal. We enjoy good communication and treat each other with mutual respect and support." Of the remainder, 30.8% checked the second harmonious statement which read, "I have a comfortable working relationship with my principal. It is task oriented and we get things done." and 7.7% checked the third statement which read, "I have an adequate working relationship with my principal, but I am told what to do."

Summary of the Information Section

The sample may be characterized as mature, experienced, non-mobile, well-educated, urban, as working in medium sized schools, as having stable career interests in counselling, and as having harmonious working relations with staff and administration.

The Conflict Scale

The Response to Question 23

Question 23 was made up of 26 items, each of which was a conflict situation. All counsellors reported that the list of items covered the possible range of conflict situations well.

Repondents were asked to rate the frequency of conflict they had experienced with each situation and the concern the conflict caused on a four point scale. All respondents were inclined to rate their concern over an item higher than the frequency of conflict with an item. The scores on the frequency of conflict sub-scale ranged from 28 to 62 with a mean of 44.462. The scores on the concern over conflict sub-scale ranged from 26 to 83 with a mean of 59.962. The generally low conflict scores were congruent with the finding that counsellors enjoyed generally harmonious relations with staff and administration.

The scores on the frequency of conflict sub-scale and scores on the concern with conflict sub-scale were correlated using rank-order correlational coefficients. The relationship was significant at the .001 level (Kendall=0.5401; Spearman=0.6883). It was concluded that these scales can be combined.

When the scores on the sub-scales were combined and averaged those items which were rated highest were identified. These items seem to be centered around meeting other people's expectations. Items and average ratings are presented in Table 8.

The items which were rated lowest were centered around

situations involving administration. These items are presented in Table 9.

The item which caused the least amount of difficulty was, "being accused of practising psychiatry without a license" and received an average combined rating of 1.321. All other items received ratings from 2.115 to 1.865.

TABLE 8
THE CONFLICT SCALE
ITEMS WHICH WERE RATED HIGHEST

Item	Average combined rating
Student/teacher personality conflicts	2.750
Being asked to straighten out a student	2.500
Not being able to meet the expectations of teachers	2.385
Scheduling of student's courses	2.346
Not being able to meet the expectations of students	2.327
Cut backs in personnel or funds due to declining enrollment	2.154

TABLE 9
THE CONFLICT SCALE
ITEMS WHICH WERE RATED LOWEST

Item	Average combined rating
Not giving enough good advice to students	1.808
Use of class time for counselling	1.731
Refusing to accept disciplinary responsibility	1.731
The value of group counselling	1.692
Not accepting the administrator's point of view	1.654
Trying to act like an administrator, assume power you do not have	1.423

The Professional Scale

Question 24 combined items from the Professional Scale and items from the Bureaucratic Scale. These items have been numbered for ease of identification and can be found in Appendix B. In the tables that follow items have been adapted for ease of presentation. Please see Appendix B for complete items.

Analysis of the response to items on the Professional Scale revealed that 21 of the 23 items were accepted by approximately 70% or more of the respondents. The two items which were accepted by less than 70% were concerned with the reading of professional literature and with considering oneself autonomous limited only by professional ethics. These items were considered valid because the reading of professional literature was an item in both Corwin's (1965) and Swisher's (1970) professional scales and is recommended practise by the counselling codes of ethics, and professional autonomy is central to the concept of professionalization since the professional's authority comes from his expertise and his behavior is guided by professional ethics. The significance of responding positively to the item on professional autonomy is presented in a later section.

It was concluded that the Professional Scale was valid. The frequency of positive response to items on the Professional Scale is presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10
POSITIVE RESPONSE TO ITEMS ON
THE PROFESSIONAL SCALE

Item number	Per cent positive response
4, 10, 12, 22, 23	100
1, 13, 16	96
5, 18	92.3
2, 9, 15, 17	88.5
8, 21	84.6
19	80.8
11, 14	76.9
7	73.1
20	69.2
3 (reading professional literature)	57.7 *
6 (professional autonomy)	34.6 *

The Bureaucratic Scale

Question 24 also contained the 23 items making up the Bureaucratic Scale. Item scores on the Bureaucratic Scale were more varied and presented a more complex pattern. It was assumed that the items would be rejected by the counsellors. Thirteen of the items were not accepted by the counsellors at the .05 level of significance (Chi square = 3.841 or more). There were six items accepted at the .05 level of significance. The remaining four items were neither accepted or rejected significantly. However the professional counterparts of these items were accepted by 100%, 100%, 92% and 81% of the sample. Due to this high acceptance of the alternatives it was felt that these items were making a distinction between the professional and bureaucratic orientations and were valid.

The six items which were accepted significantly were accepted by 77% or more of the sample. They represented a component of the Bureaucratic Scale that tended to mask the relationship between the Professional and Bureaucratic Scales since counsellors held these items in common with their professional orientation. The items were:

I believe that since I am but one of many in the school who have knowledge of human behavior, that I am a member of a team of pupil-personnel workers.

acceptance: 100%

I consider myself a pupil-personnel worker.

acceptance: 96%

I am comfortable in the knowledge that the administration of my school evaluates and supervises my activities.

acceptance: 88.5%

I accept responsibility for disciplining students like everyone else on staff.

acceptance: 77%

I think that evaluation of guidance counselling services should be done by my superiors.

acceptance: 77%

I apply school policy in most situations as a matter of course.

acceptance: 77%

These items make up a component that would probably be accepted by most classroom teachers as part of their working environment. They are all bureaucratic however. The term "pupil-personnel worker" is used in the literature to describe the administrative support function of counsellors. Being evaluated by the administration is part of the accepted distribution of authority in a school. Accepting disciplinary responsibility and applying school policy are some of the acceptable demands made of the staff by the administration and are essential to bureaucratic organization in the school.

It was concluded that the Bureaucratic Scale was a valid scale.

It is possible to conceive of the bureaucratized professional employee as accepting the 21 items on the Professional Scale (excluding autonomy and professional literature) that were generally accepted and these six items from the Bureaucratic Scale. For this sample the average acceptance to this scale would be 85% and no item

would be accepted by less than 70% of the sample. These 27 items would describe the bureaucratized professional counsellor very well (see suggestions for further research).

The positive responses to the 23 items of the Bureaucratic Scale are arranged in Table 11. Items have been numbered for ease of presentation and correspond to the numbers given items on the Professional Scale (see Appendix B).

TABLE 11
POSITIVE RESPONSE TO ITEMS ON
THE BUREAUCRATIC SCALE

Item number	Per cent positive response
2	100
9	96
6	88.5
20,21,22	76.9
12	53.8
19	46.2
4	38.5
5	34.6
16	30.8
8,14	26.9
11	23.1
3,7,10,17	19.2
15	15.4
18	11.5
13	7.7
1,23	3.85

Summary: The Conflict, Professional and Bureaucratic Scales

The Conflict, Professional, and Bureaucratic Scales were accepted as valid. Items on the Conflict Scale were given low ratings generally. The area that caused the most conflict was centered around meeting other people's expectations and the area that caused the least conflict centered around administration. Two items on the Professional Scale, reading professional literature and professional autonomy, were not as readily accepted as expected. Six items on the Bureaucratic Scale formed a bureaucratic component held in common with the counsellors' professional orientation. This component could operate as a mask to the relationship between the Bureaucratic and Professional Scales.

Analysis of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

The professional orientation and the bureaucratic orientation are dependent variables for secondary school counsellors.

There was a significant negative relationship between scores on the Professional and Bureaucratic Scales. Kendall correlational rank order coefficient computed for scores on the Professional and Bureaucratic Scales was -0.4169 and was significant at the $.006$ level. Spearman correlational rank order coefficient was -0.5392 and was significant at the $.004$ level. This is support for the hypothesis.

The low coefficients can partially be explained by recalling that the Bureaucratic Scale was found to have a six item component acceptable to counsellors. Despite this component, the relationship was found to be significant. As professionalization increases bureaucratization decreases and vice versa. It was concluded that the professional orientation and the bureaucratic orientation were dependent variables for these counsellors.

Hypothesis 2

Rate of conflict is positively correlated with degree of professionalism.

The rank order correlational coefficients computed between scores on the Conflict and Bureaucratic Scales were not at an acceptable level of significance but they were in the expected direction. Kendall was 0.2430 and was significant at the .109 level. Spearman was 0.3360 and was significant at the .101 level. The acceptable level of significance for this study was taken to be .05.

Chi square was computed for the top third of the conflict scores also being the top third of the professional scores and was found to be significant at the .01 level (Chi square = 10.0). Chi square for bottom thirds was found to be significant at the .01 level (Chi square = 8.50). This was considered mild support for the hypothesis.

The hypothesis that rate of conflict is positively correlated with degree of professionalism was not decisively demonstrated by the data from the sample.

Hypothesis 3

Rate of conflict is negatively correlated with degree of bureaucratic orientation.

Rank order correlational coefficients computed between scores on the Conflict and Bureaucratic Scales were not significant but were in the expected direction. Kendall was -0.2562 and was significant at the $.082$ level. Spearman was -0.3549 and was significant at the $.082$ level. The acceptable level of significance for this study was taken to be $.05$. Chi square computed as in Hypothesis 2 did not yield significant results.

It was concluded that the hypothesis that rate of conflict is negatively correlated with degree of bureaucratic orientation was not demonstrated by the data from this sample.

Table 12 contains the rank order correlational coefficients computed for these hypotheses.

TABLE 12
RANK ORDER CORRELATIONAL COEFFICIENTS
COMPUTED FOR THE HYPOTHESES

Scales correlated	Kendall	Sig.	Spearman	Sig.
Professional Bureaucratic	-0.4169	* .006	-0.5392	*.004
Conflict Professional	0.2430	.109	0.3360	.101
Conflict Bureaucratic	-0.2562	.082	-0.3549	.082

TABLE 13
SIGNIFICANT RANK ORDER CORRELATIONAL
COEFFICIENTS COMPUTED BETWEEN
DESCRIPTIVE VARIABLES AND THE SCALES

Variable and Scale correlated	Kendall	Sig.	Spearman	Sig.
Age Conflict	0.2877	.047	0.4037	.047
Age Bureaucratic	-0.3544	.014	-0.4666	.016
Years counselling Professional	0.3806	.013	0.5148	.007
Years counselling Bureaucratic	-0.3412	.022	-0.4758	.014
Years in present school Professional	0.3486	.021	0.4866	.012
Years in present school Bureaucratic	-0.2913	.047	-0.3803	.05
Degrees held Bureaucratic	-0.3567	.032	-0.4272	.029

Analysis of Variables and the Scales

Professional Autonomy

Chi square was computed to determine if the group who accepted professional autonomy were in the top third of scores on the Professional Scale. Chi square was computed to see if this group was in the top third of scores on the Conflict Scale. In both cases frequency of occurrence was found to be significant at the .02 level (Chi square = 6.0). Counsellors who accepted professional autonomy tended to have a higher degree of professionalism and a higher rate of conflict than those counsellors who did not.

Descriptive Variables and the Scales

Rank order correlational coefficients were computed between variables from the Information Section and the three scales. Only the significant relationships are presented. These correlations indicated that scores on the Professional Scale increased significantly with years of counselling experience and years spent in present school. Scores on the Bureaucratic Scale decreased significantly with an increase in age, years of counselling experience, years in present school, and with degrees held. Conflict Scale scores increased significantly with an increase in age. Table 13 contains the exact figures.

The data indicated that professionalism may be related to job security since counsellors who had experience and had stayed for a time in their present school tended to be more professional. The

degree of bureaucratic orientation decreased with experience, age, and education so it is possible that bureaucratization is related to insecurity and lack of confidence in one's work. The length of the employee's historical relationship with his place of work tends to increase his professional behavior and decrease his bureaucratic behavior probably because the employee has increased knowledge of his working environment. University training decreases bureaucratization but the relationship with professionalization was not significant.

It is possible that counsellors with less than four years experience would tend to be more bureaucratic and less professional than the counsellors in this sample if the observed trends can be projected to the comparatively inexperienced.

Conclusions

Generalizations should not be made from the data to other than mature, non-mobile, experienced, well-educated, urban counsellors who are experiencing harmonious relations with the staff and administration of their schools.

Support was found for the hypothesis that professionalization and bureaucratization are dependent variables for secondary school counsellors. The relationship was found to be such that as one increases the other decreases.

Support was not found for the hypotheses that conflict increases with professionalization and decreases with bureaucratization. It is possible that where conflict is reported to a higher degree than was reported by this sample that these hypotheses would be demonstrated. It is not known what group of counsellors have more conflict than the ones in the sample because the only significant correlation found for conflict was with an increase in age. The suggestion was that younger counsellors would have less conflict than older ones because the bureaucratic orientation would be more attractive to them since lack of desire for independent action would make them less culpable.

It was suggested that the Professional and Bureaucratic Scales contained 27 highly acceptable items to counsellors and that these items would together describe the bureaucratized professional counsellor. The items on this list of acceptable characteristics put the Code of Ethics of school counsellors somewhat in doubt.

The items excluded from the Professional Scale were reading professional literature and professional autonomy. These items are essential to the growth of the counselling profession but do not seem that important to the majority of the counsellors in the sample. The items included in the list of characteristics acceptable to counsellors from the Bureaucratic Scale were accepting responsibility for discipline, accepting and applying school policy as a matter of course, and encouraging superiors to evaluate guidance counselling services. These characteristics put a strain on some definitions of counselling which exclude a disciplinary function and the normative effects of institutional regulations. Professional organizations also tend to discourage the power to evaluate programs being in any but their own hands. The conclusion to be drawn here is that the codes of ethics available to school counsellors do not take into account the reality of the school counsellors working environment or adequately reflect the majority's view as to what is appropriate and acceptable. It would seem that appropriate guidelines come more from classroom teacher codes of ethics and traditional teacher-administrator interactions.

Recommendations

Research should be conducted that replicates this study with samples from populations that are rural, inexperienced, and mobile, and younger.

The Conflict Scale or sampling techniques should be scrutinized in order to find a group of counsellors who are willing to report more conflict than was reported in this sample. It is possible that counsellors are skilled in avoiding conflict however.

The work experience of counsellors should be studied more carefully, especially the length of time spent in the counsellor's present school and the length of time the principal has also been in the school since it was found that experience was related to an increase in professionalization and a decrease in bureaucratization. The question to be asked is what is the relationship between job security and professionalism.

The 27 acceptable characteristics identified in the study should be used in a study to see if a majority of counsellors are bureaucratized professionals. If so, such a finding would be of significance to counsellor educators and to those interested in refining a code of ethics for school counsellors.

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APPENDIX A

List of Counselling Behaviors Which Comprise a Professional
Orientation to Counselling in Schools

1. The counsellor has gone to graduate school for counsellor training. APGA
2. The counsellor has a knowledge of theory and practise of counselling. APGA, SCAM, CGCA
3. The counsellor subscribes to, and spends time reading the professional literature. APGA, SCAM, CGCA; Swisher, 1970.
4. The counsellor has a counselling theory of his own. APGA, CGCA.
5. The counsellor is a member of a counselling organization and is an active member. APGA, CGCA: Swisher, 1970.
6. The counsellor attends conferences, workshops, in-services, in order to develop professionally. APGA, CGCA.
7. The counsellor is committed to counselling as a career. APGA.
8. The counsellor feels counselling organizations should control licensing procedures and evaluate counsellor training programs. APGA
9. The counsellor feels that counsellors should be paid as counsellors and not as teachers. APGA
10. The counsellor feels that counsellors are the ones best prepared to evaluate and design counselling programs in schools. APGA
11. The counsellor is involved in evaluating his own services.
12. The counsellor has knowledge of and applies a counselling code

of ethics.

13. The counsellor believes that counsellors have a unique mission to perform and that counsellors can perform it best. APGA
14. The counsellor believes that he should be a full-time counsellor.
15. The counsellor considers himself autonomous within professional limits. APGA. Corwin, 1965.
16. The counsellor has a working policy concerning confidentiality of client self-disclosure. APGA. Hart and Prince, 1970.
17. The counsellor is familiar with the principles of, and values, self-actualization. Selfridge and Kolk, 1976.
18. The counsellor agrees that his primary responsibility is to respect the integrity and promote the welfare of the counsellee. CGCA
19. The counsellor agrees that each student is a unique individual who has a right to acceptance, self-development, self-direction, and who has the responsibility for making decisions and living with the consequences of those decisions. Shertzer and Stone, 1976.
20. The counsellor considers each counsellee's problems as unique. Corwin, 1965.
21. The counsellor believes that rules have to be applied individually and that unique circumstances make a big difference. Corwin, 1965.
22. The counsellor does not accept discipline as a counsellor's responsibility. Hart and Prince, 1970; Hassard and Costar, 1977.

23. The counsellor does not care for the role of administrative assistant to the principal, clerical duties, attendance checking, or supervision of students. Hart and Prince, 1970; Hassard and Costar, 1977.
24. The counsellor is more loyal to the counsellee and to the profession than to the institution. Corwin, 1965.
25. The counsellor considers counselling to be the primary function of the counsellor, and considers guidance services, consulting, and educational services supports to his primary role.
26. The counsellor accepts functional authority. Peabody, 1962.
27. The counsellor supports research. Corwin, 1965; APGA, CGCA

These twenty-seven items are in substantial agreement with Tables 3 and 4.

List of Counselling Behaviors Which Comprise a Bureaucratic
Orientation to Counselling in Schools

Where possible, the following list comprises a bureaucratic alternative to professional behavior, based on Tables 3 and 4, and on the review of role conflict above.

1. The counsellor has not studied counselling in university.
2. The counsellor has knowledge of the practise of guidance and being a student-advisor.
3. The counsellor does not subscribe to the professional literature.

4. The counsellor does not have a theory of counselling; he has a theory of education primarily.
5. The counsellor is either not a member of a professional counselling organization, or is an inactive member.
6. The counsellor does not find any value in counselling conferences, workshops, in-services.
7. The counsellor is not committed to counselling as a career but is thinking of a career in administration.
8. The counsellor feels that the school board should have authority over who it wants to be counsellors in the schools.
9. The counsellor feels that counsellors should be paid as teachers because specialist personnel are expendable.
10. The counsellor feels that the principal is the one best prepared to evaluate and design counselling programs; or looks to him for continual advice.
11. The counsellor believes that evaluation should be done by his superiors.
12. The counsellor applies school policy as a matter of course.
13. The counsellor believes that he is just one of many who have knowledge of human behavior in the school and that he is one member of a team of pupil-personnel workers.
14. The counsellor believes he should teach part-time in order to keep in touch with the realities in the classroom.
15. The counsellor feels he is a school employee with superiors who supervise him.
16. The counsellor brings to the attention of the principal anything

that may involve a disciplinary situation, even though revealed to him by a counsellee.

17. The counsellor devalues self-actualization as a concept.
18. The counsellor accepts the idea that his primary responsibility is to assist or otherwise influence students to conform to the expectations of the school.
19. The counsellor believes students to be only marginally capable of rational decision-making and believes in the role of student-advisor.
20. The counsellor considers each problem as solvable by the application of standard procedures.
21. The counsellor believes that the rules were made for everyone or otherwise they would not be rules at all.
22. The counsellor accepts disciplinary responsibility because he is the adult in authority.
23. The counsellor tends to seek the role of administrative assistant and his career ambitions lie in that direction.
24. The counsellor attempts to convince the counsellee that the institution is providing a valuable service which the counsellee must take advantage of and not abuse the privilege by inappropriate behaviors.
25. The counsellor believes himself to be a guidance worker, or in some way devalues counselling.
26. The counsellor accepts formal authority and functional authority.
27. The counsellor engages in normative research, if any.

APPENDIX B

The numbers in brackets near the left margin have been added to the questionnaire for purposes of item identification and were not present while the questionnaire was in use.

1. Sex. Male _____ Female _____
2. Marital Status. Married _____ Single _____

3. Age. _____
4. Years teaching experience. _____
5. Years counselling experience. _____
6. How many years have you worked in your present school? _____
7. Are you full-time _____ ; part-time _____ ?
8. How many years of post-secondary education have you completed? _____
9. Which university degrees do you hold? _____

10. What courses have you completed in the following areas of counsellor education?
 Counselling theory and/or methods _____

 Counsellor practice _____

 Testing and Appraisal _____

 Career development _____

11. How many administrative personnel are there in your school ? _____

12. How many teachers? _____

13. How many students? _____

14. Full-time counsellors? _____

15. Part-time counsellors? _____

16. Please indicate which Journals you subscribe to.

17. Please list other Journals or Professional Magazines you read at least once a month.

18. The following is a list of activities. Please check off the ones that you would like to do. Leave blank the ones which do not interest you.

Personal emotional counselling	_____
Psychotherapy	_____
Marriage counselling	_____
Family counselling	_____
Social work	_____
Rehabilitation counselling	_____
Death and dying counselling	_____
Career counselling	_____
Counselling the aged	_____
Educational placement	_____
Vocational counselling	_____
Give advice	_____
Assessment	_____
Testing	_____
Study-habits counselling	_____
Psychological education	_____
Tell people what to do	_____
Be a Dean of Students	_____
Student-advisor	_____
Student-advocate	_____
Crisis counselling	_____
School Administration	_____

19. Please rate, on a three-point scale, the importance of the following items to your guidance counselling program.

More important 1 Important 2 Less important 3

Post-secondary educational placement	_____
Student course selection	_____
Clerical tasks and record keeping	_____
Setting up special programs	_____
Teaching mini-courses	_____
Individual counselling	_____
Student appraisal	_____
Consulting with teachers and administrators	_____
Professional development	_____
Evaluation or needs assessment of the program	_____
Public relations	_____
Research	_____
Group counselling	_____
Career development	_____
Consulting with parents	_____

20. Please read the following four statements. In the space provided please check the one that best describes your working relationship with the teaching staff.

I can talk to every teacher on staff about a matter of concern and get acceptable results. _____

I can talk to most but not all teachers about a matter of concern and get acceptable results. _____

There is a sizeable group of teachers with whom I feel uncomfortable and can only speak about matters of concern and get acceptable results with the remainder. _____

I can not talk to teachers about a matter of concern and get acceptable results. _____

21. Please answer "yes" if you agree with the following statement. Answer "no" if you disagree.

A constant problem for me is staff resistance to any new idea or program I want to introduce and it takes considerable effort on my part to deal with it. _____

24. Rate the quality of your working relationship with your principal. Which one of the following statements best describes your working relationship. Please check one.

I have a very comfortable working relationship with my principal. We enjoy very good communication and treat each other with mutual respect and support.

I have a comfortable working relationship with my principal. It is task-oriented and we get things done.

I have an adequate working relationship with my principal, but I am told what to do.

I have an uncomfortable working relationship with my principal. We do not see things in the same way as often as I would like.

I have a very uncomfortable working relationship with my principal. I am seriously considering quitting my job.

23. The following is a list of possible problems over which you may have had a conflict with someone. Consider a "conflict" as either an exchange of words, a heated discussion, or an incident involving you and one or more other people.

Rate each according to the frequency of conflict on a four-point scale. If you have never experienced a conflict over an item place a 1 beside it.

If you have occasionally experienced conflict over an item place a 2 beside it.

If you have often experienced a conflict over an item place a 3 beside it.

If you constantly experience conflict over an item place a 4 beside it.

never / occasionally / often / constantly
1 2 3 4

Rate each item according to the amount of concern to you the conflict caused on a four-point scale.

very unconcerned/ unconcerned/concerned/very concerned
1 2 3 4

For example:

Item	Frequency	Concern
Capital punishment	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>

Item	Frequency	Concern
Smoking in the lounge	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>

In the first example a conflict over capital punishment is experienced often and is a matter of concern.

In the second example a conflict seems to be occurring constantly but you do not care at all. You are very unconcerned.

	Frequency	Concern
Confidential information	—	—
methodology or content of sex education	—	—
use of school time for special events	—	—
drug abuse education	—	—
family life education	—	—
the value, usefulness, or attractiveness of career information	—	—
scheduling of student's courses	—	—
student/teacher personality conflicts	—	—

	Frequency	Concern
being too student-centered	<u>4</u>	<u> </u>
suggesting curriculum content to a teacher	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
the value of group counselling	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
the value of individual counselling	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
a personality conflict between you and a teacher	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
refusing to accept disciplinary responsibility	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
being accused of practising psychiatry without a license	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
not accepting the administrator's point of view	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
trying to act like an administrator, assume power you do not have	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
not being able to meet the expectations of teachers	<u> </u>	<u> </u>

	Frequency	Concern
being asked to straighten out a student	—	—
not being able to meet the expectations of students	—	—
not giving enough good advice to students	—	—
not being able to meet the expectations of parents	—	—
use of class time for counselling	—	—
being a student advocate	—	—
over whether or not you should teach regular classes	—	—
cutbacks in personnel or funds effecting the counselling program due to declining enrollment	—	—

24

The following is a list of paired statements. If you agree with the statement write "yes" in the space provided. If you do not agree write "no" in the space provided. Consider each statement individually. You may find yourself agreeing with both, or disagreeing with both, or agreeing with one and disagreeing with the other. Feel free to do so.

Item Number	Per cent positive response
1P. I think that counsellors are the ones best prepared to design and evaluate counselling programs in schools.	<u>96</u>
1B. I feel that the principal is the one best prepared to design and evaluate counselling programs and I rely on him for advice.	<u>3.8</u>
2P. I believe that counsellors in schools have a unique mission to perform and counsellors can perform it best.	<u>88.5</u>
2B. I believe that since I am but one of many in the school who have knowledge of human behavior, that I am a member of a team of pupil-personnel workers.	<u>100</u>

- 3P I spend what time I can afford reading professional counselling literature. 57.7
- 3B I do not read very much professional counselling literature because it seems too impractical and does not really relate well to my work. 19.2
- 4B My primary responsibility is to assist students to adjust and conform to the expectations of the school. 38.5
- 4P My primary responsibility is to respect the integrity and promote the welfare of the individual counsellee. 100
- 5B I think that most of the problems of my counsellee's can be solved by the application of standard procedures. 34.6
- 5P I think that each of my counsellees and their problems are unique. 92.3
- 6B I am comfortable in the knowledge that the administration of my school evaluates and supervises my activities. 88.5
- 6P I consider myself autonomous limited only by professional ethics. 34.6

- 7B I like to assume the role of administrative assistant. 19.2
- 7P I do not care for the roles of general administrative assistant, clerical worker, attendance checker, or supervisor of students. 73.1
- 8P I think that organizations of professional counsellors should control licensing procedures and counsellor training programs. 84.6
- 8B I think that the school administration should have the right to nominate members of the staff to the position of counsellor, whether they have counsellor training or not. 26.9
- 9P I think that counselling students is my primary role, and I consider guidance services, consulting, and educational services as supports to my primary role. 88.5
- 9B I consider myself a pupil-personnel worker. 96
- 10B I believe that the rules were made for everyone's benefit and should be applied in the same way to everyone. 19.2
- 10P I believe that rules have to be applied individually and that unique circumstances make a big difference. 100

- 11P I think that school counsellors should all have graduate school training. 76.9
- 11B I think that graduate school training for school counsellors is not really necessary as long as the counsellor has experience in education. 23.1
- 12P I believe that my ability to influence others comes mainly from my knowledge of counselling and my personality. 100
- 12B I believe that I can influence people because of my position in the school structure. 53.8
- 13B I think that students are not really capable of rational decision-making and require me to act in the role of student-advisor. 7.7
- 13P I believe that each student is a unique individual who has a right to acceptance, self-development, and who has the responsibility for making decisions and can live with the consequences of those decisions. 96
- 14P I am committed to a career in counselling. 76.9
- 14B I am thinking about an eventual career change from counselling into administration. 26.9

- 15P I am familiar with the concept of self-actualization and find it useful in my work. 88.5
- 15B There are so many factors controlling an individual's development that self-actualization does not really enter into it at all. 15.4
- 16P I think counsellors should be full-time counsellors. 96
- 16B I think that counsellors should work part-time in the class-room in order to keep in touch with reality. 30.8
- 17P I am an active member of a professional counselling organization. 88.5
- 17B I do not take an active part in the professional counselling associations available to me for membership. 19.2
- 18B I do not find very much of value in counselling conferences, workshops, and counselling inservices. 11.5
- 18P I find attending counselling conferences, workshops, and inservices useful to my professional development as a counsellor. 92.3

- 19P I have a personal theory of counselling. 80.8
- 19B I do not have one theory of counselling I claim
as my own because I like to be practical. 46.2
- 20P I think that disciplining students is not a counsellor's
responsibility. 69.2
- 20B I accept responsibility for disciplining students
like everyone else on staff. 76.9
- 21B I think that evaluation of guidance counselling
services should be done by my superiors . 76.9
- 21P I think that I should evaluate the guidance counsell-
ing program in the school. 84.6
- 22P I am aware of and try to apply the Code of Ethics
governing counsellor behavior. 100
- 22B I apply school policy in most situations as a matter
of course. 76.9
- 23P I have a working policy regarding the confidentiality
of information received from my counsellees. 100
- 23B I routinely bring to the attention of my principal
anything revealed to me by my counsellees of a
disciplinary nature. 3.85