AMBIGUITY IN THE PROFESSIONAL ROLE:

PERCEPTUAL DIFFERENCES AMONG A.I.D. ADVISORS

by

Jong Sup Jun

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THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY PARK
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA 90007

This dissertation, written by

JONG SUP JUN

under the direction of his Dissertation Committee, and approved by all its members, has been presented to and accepted by The Graduate School, in partial fulfillment of requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Charles G. Mayo
Dean

Date JUNE 1969

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

W. B. Sloan
Chairman

George O. Totten

William R. Larson

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PREFACE

This dissertation is an attempt to develop a better framework for understanding the role of professionals in complex organizational environments. More particularly, it is an attempt to test an interrelated set of hypotheses to explain the advisors' role in U.S. technical assistance.

Although the results of this study apply only to its subjects, one-hundred sixty nine advisors who served overseas with the U.S. Agency for International Development, it is hoped that its utility for role analysis will not end there. The research should be applicable elsewhere and help solve new problems in dealing with professionals in modern organizations.

I wish to express my appreciation to Professor William B. Storm, who started me on this research project and did much to support and advise me in writing this study. I feel privileged to have had this experience.

Particular note must also be taken of the generous and constructive guidance I received from Professors William B. Larson and George O. Totten. They have encouraged and stimulated my thinking on the problems contained in this study. In carrying out the data analysis of this study, I was helped a great deal by Mrs. Ann Strong

and Mrs. Maria Lemus Harris. To them I wish to express my gratitude.

Finally, I'm grateful to Soon Ye Jun, my wife, for the help and patience she offered me throughout my doctoral work at the University of Southern California.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Major Problems Involved in Technical Assistance

By the time World War II had ended, the United States had become involved in foreign aid for the development of poor countries. The Marshall Plan in 1947 was based on the idea of reconstructing industrialized countries damaged by war, largely through economic aid. Since the Point Four Program under President Truman, one of the major foreign-aid policy aims of the United States has been known as technical assistance, or technical cooperation. Most of the activities of this policy have been concentrated in Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

Scholars often attempt to describe these countries in the following terms: The society is "traditional" or "transitional," "fused" or "prismatic" in relation to the "modern" or "diffracted" society. Since the social structures of traditional countries are for the most part primitive, individual status tends to be determined by heredity and power in the society is given to the small ruling class. Their economic structure is closely associated with an agrarian system of land tenure. The

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administrative system is simple and centralized, carrying out the tax-collection function. On the other hand, the transitional society has prismatic structural arrangements.[1] While modern societies are characterized as having functionally differentiated systems, the prismatic society has a broad "heterogeneous" mixture of attitudes, practices and situations of both traditional and modern systems. Overlapping functions and formalism of administrative organizations are likely to exist to a high degree.[2]

For a country to emerge successfully from its traditional stage into a transitional society, and particularly from the transitional to the modern, it must acquire the knowledge and skills required to bring the advantages of scientific and technological progress. Thus, the most primary need for these countries is for technical help with planning, administering services and projects, and training, rather than for finance, so that the amount of money spent depends upon the supply of technical advisors, rather than on how much money the U.S. could afford to send.

This study is primarily concerned with the problems of transferring the donors' technical knowledge and skills to peoples in developing countries. The practice

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[1]Fred W. Riggs, Administration in Developing Countries (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964), pp. 3-49.

[2]Ibid.

of U.S. technical assistance is generally conceived as a channel for the international flow of technical knowledge and its positive role as a contributor to the subject country's development. Technical assistance is herein considered as the sharing of technical knowledge and skills among peoples of different nations--helping each other adapt and use such knowledge and skills to achieve greater productivity and better utilization of resources in order to increase the continuous growth of mankind.

The objectives of U.S. technical assistance have been stated well in the Point Four Program, in which the idea is based on sound experience and a practical demonstration of what can be accomplished by technical cooperation. This program was first proposed by President Truman in his inaugural address on January 20, 1949, as the fourth point in a statement of U.S. foreign policy. In the Act for International Development, Congress spelled out the philosophy and goals of the Point Four Program. Stating that "the peoples of the United States and other nations have a common interest in the freedom and in the economic and social progress of all peoples," the Act calls for improving their working and living conditions.[3] It

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[3]Office of Public Affairs, Department of State, "The President's Point Four Program: Recommendations to the Congress Address by Assistant Secretary Allen," Department of State Bulletin (July 4, 1949).

also illustrates, "Such progress can further the secure growth of democratic ways of life, the expansion of mutually beneficial commerce, the development of international understanding and good will, and the maintenance of world peace."[4] Thus the challenge of this doctrine arose from a great need and from the interest of the country in helping to meet this need. It is in the interest of the donor as well as in the common interest that such cooperative endeavor be undertaken at once and in sufficient magnitude to be effective.

Since technical assistance seems to offer an efficient method for mutual cooperation upon significant problems, there has been a growing set of "universal values": a universal responsibility for human welfare, and a part of world obligation going for the development of human resources. From the viewpoint of the recipient countries, since they find a stronger desire to achieve increased economic development and better standards of living by one route or another, technical assistance seems to offer to such problems an efficient method for mutual cooperation.

Broadly speaking, the United States has three major motivations: national interest, economics, and humanitarianism.[5] The national interest motivation of the United

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[4] Ibid.

[5] Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., "The Nature of Technical Assistance for Economic Development," Economic Development

States is characterized as the "struggle for world leadership." The U.S. technical assistance has become democracy's route for facilitating the developmental goals of developing nations. Economically, it has been considered a spur to international trade. The Marshall Plan offered generosity toward European countries. In setting the industrialized countries of Western Europe on the road to economic rehabilitation, the U.S. was taking the risk of creating for itself formidable rivals in international trade. With economic development--increasing the production of food and raw materials and enhancing purchasing power--the larger amount of products are made available for consumption and export which all cooperating countries benefit. The humanitarian assumption is well-established by the private groups which emphasize the needs for mutual help and neighborliness. The relative importance of these motivations varies considerably, depending on the sponsoring organizations. In the agencies of the U.S. government, the basic motivation is a greater degree of national interest and a lesser degree of the humanitarian concern.[6]

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and Cultural Change, Vol. VI (January, 1958), pp. 109-128.

[6]John D. Montgomery, Foreign Aid in International Politics (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), pp. 6-25; Herbert Feis, Foreign Aid and Foreign Policy (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1964); and Sidney C. Suffrin, Technical Assistance: Theory and Guidelines (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1966).

With the above motivations, transferring technical knowledge and skills in U.S. technical assistance has been done bilaterally and multilaterally. However, most years about 90 per cent of all aid is given bilaterally from government to government. As a good example, U.S. bilateral programs have contributed a great deal to Latin America through the servicios, or university contracts, and contracts with private organizations. Under the Mutual Security Program of October 19, 1950, the governments of the United States and Iran announced the signing of a technical assistance agreement. This marked the start of the first major new project undertaken under the president's Point Four Program. It shared a lot of America's technical knowledge and skills transformed many of its technological advantages.[7] This bilateral assistance worked with a number of urgent Iranian problems. For an example, with the establishment of the Institute of Iranian Public Administration under its contract with the University of Southern California, Iran could better train young people in the field of public administration.[8]

Since the Point Four Program, experience has indicated that the United States and other countries with advanced technical and scientific resources can make them

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[7]Feis, op. cit.

[8]Jahangir Amuzegar, Theory and Practice of Technical Assistance (New York: Praeger, 1965).

available to developing countries through channels of private enterprise and of government in a number of ways. These include such approaches as helping to make basic studies and surveys of economic problems, needs, and potential lines of development; providing on-the-job training; furnishing and instructing in the use of sample materials and equipment; assisting technical schools and universities; and assisting agricultural programs. Many of these means of imparting knowledge are fundamental and will be continued in or extended to each country participating in the cooperative effort for economic development. Others are adapted to particular cases and will be used where they will most effectively advance the purposes of the program.

Most of these activities are carried on by the technical experts through the channels of private foundations, university contracts, and of government in a number of ways. The first method of promoting these programs is a process of "know-how" and "show-how."

Overseas Professionals as Change-agents

Overseas experts are generally considered as change-agents. They have the responsibility for consulting, teaching, coaching, initiating and facilitating change. They are not manipulating change; but they are rather involved in providing an appropriate atmosphere for development.

Whether they go under the aegis of AID (Agency for International Development), the UN programs, or other contracts, the responsibility which the individual expert feels goes far beyond transferring technical information which he hopes the client system can use. His overall job as change-agent is actively intervening in the ongoing life processes of client systems, to help the client organization change itself toward increased competence in problem-solving, and to facilitate the capacity for continuously planning for future development.

Since almost all of the programs involving specialists from abroad are dedicated to changing some aspect of national life and behavior, the professional cannot escape becoming a change-agent if he conscientiously seeks to promote such a program. Furthermore, a project's success demands his contribution to the total team effort, so that he makes a social impact. In this regard, overseasmanship requires a "multivalent man."

Multivalence according to Lee is the individual's many-mindedness which equips him to relate himself to the different group contexts with which he lives.[9] The overseas professional must cope with the complexities and inconsistencies of another culture not by rational choices in most cases, but by multivalence.

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[9]Alfred M. Lee, Multivalent Man (New York: G. Graziller, 1966).

The change-agent role of the overseas professional is often ambiguous. The ambiguity of the professional role betrays its lack of legitimacy as well as credibility. It also involves certain risks, like drawing suspicion and hostility because of its ambiguity. On the other side, it can also be helpful in providing necessary latitude and breadth which more precisely defined roles do not allow.[10]

The study by Kahn and his team describes how role ambiguity is derived from a different pattern of inadequacy in role sendings.[11] Thus, ambiguity is conceived as the degree to which required information is not available to a given organizational position.

The overseas situation frequently presents ambiguity in the professional role. Byrnes pointed out that ambiguity is among the major characteristics of U.S. technical assistance.[12] Factors independent of the individual's tolerance for ambiguity introduce much role conflict. These include the administrative context of technical assistance, perceptions of host-country attitudes, the

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[10]Warren G. Bennis, Changing Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill Company, Inc., 1965), p. 148.

[11]Robert L. Kahn, et al., Organizational Stress (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964).

[12]Francis C. Byrnes, Americans in Technical Assistance: A Study of Attitude and Responses to Their Role Abroad (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Publishers, 1965); also see "Assignment to Ambiguity," Human Organization, Vol. XXIII, No. 3 (Fall, 1964), pp. 196-207.

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influence of predecessors, and counterparts.

Storm and Finkle described the role-shock phenomenon of the professional role of academic advisors.[13] Role shock is defined as the frustrations and stresses associated with such discrepancies as between what a technical assistant views as the ideal role for himself and what he learns or finds the actual role abroad to be, or between the role he expects to play abroad and the role he actually plays.

Current organizational theory implicitly suggests that ambiguity may derive from a low degree of interpersonal competence. This is probably the case in overseas management, since the professional tends to have a heavy emphasis on technical competence based on previous professional training without much considering the interpersonal aspects of changing the behavior and attitude of the host people. Only those who stay in a state of ambiguity in the professional role have much chance of exercising what appears to be individual choice. And, at most, these persons usually make their choices within narrow limits.

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[13]William B. Storm and Jason L. Finkle, American Professionals in Technical Assistance: A Preliminary Report (Los Angeles: School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, 1965; mimeographed, 335 pages; republished with corrections and editing, 1966); also see Francis C. Byrnes, "Role Shock: An Occupational Hazard of American Technical Assistants Abroad," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. CCCLXVIII (November, 1966), pp. 95-108.

The overseasman as a change-agent should have the flexibility to maintain a tolerance of ambiguity and to consider his role in relation to the environments.

Agency for International Development

AID spent billions of dollars on technical assistance since the Point Four Program. The majority of the technical assistance program took the form of providing experts from AID. According to Tables 1 and 2, in 1967 18,082 U.S. nationals were working for the Agency; among them over 5,000 advisors were assigned overseas, mostly to around 60 developing countries in the areas of Africa, Latin America, the Far East, Near East, and South Asia.

AID is the main U.S. aid channel. It deals with capital aid (loans and grants), aid in kind (PL 480, most of it food) and technical assistance. It has taken over the functions of the older International Co-operation Agency (ICA) and Development Loan Fund (DLF). It is a semi-autonomous public agency within the State Department.

AID is organized on a regional basis with supporting technical and management staffs. The five regional offices are Latin America, Europe, Africa, Near East and South Asia, and the Far East. There are approximately 4,000 employees in the Washington headquarters office. AID operations involve more than 2,000 projects and programs. The various projects and programs include foci on

agriculture, natural resources development, industry, education, sanitation, public safety, community development, public administration, and many others. The vastness of the human and technical task of bringing these diverse groups together into a successful team effort between American specialists and their host counterparts accounts for many of the problems that technical assistance faces.

TABLE 1

GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION SUMMARY OF AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT*

Location and Source of Funds		Strength		
		Total	U.S. Nationals	Foreign Nationals
Worldwide	All Funds	17815	9041	8774
	ADM	4345	3173	1172
	PROG	7928	5792	2136
	TRUST	5451	-	5451
	OTHER	91	76	15
Washington	All Funds	4027	4027	0
	ADM	2355	2355	-
	PROG	1612	1612	-
	OTHER	60	60	-
Overseas	All Funds	13788	5014	8774
	ADM	1990	818	1172
	PROG	6316	4180	2136
	TRUST	5451	-	5451
	OTHER	31	16	15

*AID-3-207(5-64), date: November 25, 1967.

TABLE 2

ALLOCATION OF OVERSEAS EMPLOYMENT OF THE AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Type and Location of Employment	Employment Limitation FTEPP	On-board Employment		
		Total	FTEPP	Other
Total AID	18613*	17815	17430	385
Current AID Total	9063	9041	8667	374
AID/Washington	4000**	4027	3695	332
OVERSEAS	5063	5014	4972	42
NESA	744	622	618	4
Viet Nam	1759	1981	1961	20
EA	822	816	804	12
AFR	776	692	688	4
LA	879	837	835	2
Non-REGIONAL	83	66	66	0

*Includes unallocated employment limitations for FY 1968.

**Represents position ceilings. Date: November 25, 1967.

The AID Advisor and His Problems

The success of the AID programs of technical assistance largely depends upon the performance qualities of the professionals, the acceptability to the host government and host professionals, and their ability to adapt to the conditions prevailing in the host system.

If the programs could be successfully implemented by these advisors within the host system, it would be most effective in achieving overall organizational goals.

Before attempting to implement any project goal, the advisors face all kinds of problems when they arrive at the subject country. Some of the significant factors may be his future career development, the survival of technical assistance, the extent of technical competence, interpersonal skills, family problems, social obligations, and so forth.

The professional may think that an overseas assignment will inhibit his career development, although some think it contributes to his career in his field of specialization. This fear is more likely to occur in the professional who is on his first overseas assignment. He is undertaking a short term task in different organizational environments. His motivation could be personal, professional, ideological, to gain experience, to experience a different culture, or to engage in a foreign aid program --perhaps a combination of these and many other reasons. The problems he encounters may shake all his motivations.

Another problem of career development is associated with the survival of technical assistance. The American public has been increasingly critical of U.S. foreign aid, and the technical assistance budget has been decreasing for the last few years due to world crises. AID often makes foreign assignments on bases of implementing technical assistance agreements other than special competence fitting articulated need. Some respondents in this

research indicated that they had to accept overseas assignment because of management pressure.

Certainly, Agency management has the problem of recruiting advisors with technical and personal qualifications. The qualifications of AID advisors not only depend on professional competence, but also on capacity for vital interpersonal relationships with professional colleagues in the mission, supervisors, counterpart professionals, and host nationals. The professional with technical competence alone often fails to transfer successfully his technical knowledge and skills.

The advisor also has social problems. He has to entertain social obligations. Even if he may perform very well socially, his wife may run into social difficulties. If the couple brings children, they often have to cope with insufficient facilities for food, school, housing, transportation, health services, climate, social life, and cultural opportunities.

He and his family may also suffer "culture-shock,"[14] because of the difficulties of radical socio-cultural adaptation. The affluent and flexible American culture seems to make such change hard for the professional and his family. All these suggest that the advisor is likely to have role conflict between his professional

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[14]Harlan Cleveland, C. J. Mangone, and J. C. Adams, The Overseas Americans (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

position and his family obligations.

He also has to have a certain knowledge about organizational and administrative details of his program. A lot of advisors are interested only in their own field of specialty and are impatient with such administrative practices as report writing, or staying within AID regulations. For example, compared to social scientists and education specialists, engineers tend to be more dissatisfied with bureaucratic red-tape. Since overseas organizational environments are complex and confusing, the advisor needs flexibility to cope with U.S. missions, diplomats, counterparts, counterpart organizations, etc.

Language is another problem. Unless he is able to speak either the indigenous or second language of the host country, he has to depend upon translations of an interpreter, who may not be able to express his ideas to the host people. He can't be sure.

The host professionals' acceptance of his role may be another significant factor in either establishing a good counterpart relationship or of experiencing more frustration. A study of a good counterpart relationship has already shown a positive relationship to overseas successfulness.[15]

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[15]William B. Storm and Jong S. Jun, "The Counterpart Relationship and the American Professional Overseas," Public Personnel Review, Vol. XXIX, No. 1 (January, 1968), pp. 7-12.

All these problems tend to put great pressure on the advisor. He may feel deep uncertainty about ways to succeed in his assignment. Based upon differences in personal characteristics, some are likely to experience a high degree of ambiguity in the professional role overseas. Thus, studying problems associated with ambiguity becomes a matter of extreme relevance since this may be central to professional success overseas. Role ambiguity is the central focus of this dissertation.

Problem of Performance Evaluation

Evaluation of performance of overseas professionals in U.S. technical assistance is not easy to achieve. Such evaluation must focus on significant problem areas including project success and individual performance, and it is contingent upon the reliability of rating officers.

The success of AID technical assistance programs depends in large measure upon performance of professionals overseas, the acceptability of their performance to host governments, and their ability to adapt to conditions prevailing in the host country. The performance of such experts in transferring technical knowledge is only part of the process of development; the knowledge and skill they transmit must be adapted to the host system and its conditions before it can be used effectively.

The success of technical assistance also depends

upon the administrative effectiveness of the host country, since individual projects have a linkage with the development plans of the country. Effective implementation of technical assistance programs requires operational procedures, administrative arrangements and organizational structures. To an extent, effective implementation is associated with the host country's administrative climate, which may determine the receptivity of host professionals and officers. In Iran, with its stable political leadership, widespread general interest in national development, good understanding of what is necessary to secure progress, an enthusiastic (though perhaps inexperienced) body of senior administrators and governmental machinery which lends itself to effective coordination and planning, technical assistance has been very successful. AID professionals in Iran felt they were cooperating in a stimulating and rewarding operation; that they were received with sympathy and understanding; that what they had to offer was appreciated, even if its technicalities are not immediately understood. In such a situation, projects will succeed even if the experts themselves are not all professionally outstanding. In less auspicious circumstances, where there is indifferent leadership, poor coordination, political tension and public indifference, a group of experts of high quality would soon become discouraged and would be most unlikely to achieve more than

qualified success.

Project success obviously does not mean that every individual in the mission has performed his job well, yet individual performance would often be related to organizational purpose. On the other hand, some AID advisors exercise a great deal of interpersonal skill in relation to mission colleagues, host professionals, and higher officers in the country, bringing about a multivalent effect whereby the purpose of the project for developmental change becomes better understood and more generally acceptable. An individual with a high degree of such interpersonal skills may feel that he has performed an excellent job in overseas assignment, yet his supervisor may have evaluated this person as an unsuccessful expert in technical assistance.

This suggests the third problem of rating by the supervisors. Since each man perceives another person differently, rating errors for evaluating advisors will appear. Rating may involve a halo effect in judging an individual's performance. In this dissertation, I will examine individual perceptions about performance overseas, as well as AID performance ratings, as evaluated by an immediate supervisor.

Background of the Present Research

During 1963 and 1964 a research team at the University of Southern California conducted exploratory research

on problems associated with American professionals who serve in technical assistance projects overseas. The Ford Foundation funded this project twice, in 1963 and 1966. It also received additional AID and State Department support for the completion of the data analysis in the later phase of the research, including an analysis of personal ratings supplied by the Agency.

The research included 329 samples: 160 academic professionals, who served abroad under contracts between the United States technical assistance agency and an American university, and 169 career professionals serving within the Agency for International Development. A preliminary report on academic professionals was reported by Storm and Finkle in 1965. This dissertation stems from the role its author had, working with Professor William B. Storm during the period between February, 1965 and August, 1968. In the project attention was focused on an analysis of AID data and a comparative analysis of AID and academic data pattern. During the fall of 1967, the focus became data reduction of 1,400 variables into different dimensional items.[16]

In working with Professor Storm, I became interested in an analysis of role dimensions of the sample. The original analysis of the "ideal role" of overseas

[16]The process of the AID data reduction will be specified in detail in Chapter IV.

professionals in the Academic grcup did not work out in the manner anticipated in the initial design phases. Specifically, a portion of the questionnaire attempted to identify respondent attitudes toward the appropriate role of professional persons overseas. In addition, the probe searched for acceptance by significant others of the respondent's definition of his appropriate role. Finally, respondents were queried about their actual job to determine whether they were in fact doing what they thought appropriate for persons such as themselves. While the questions appear to have been satisfactory, and while the answers were satisfactorily recorded, the code employed to translate the responses into measurements was not appropriate, with the result that much role information of potential value had to be left out of the final research stages.[17]

With the above research interest, I have developed a theoretical framework from literature searching and have re-coded the role responses in terms of this theoretical conceptual scheme. If these data do not provide sufficient

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[17]The code employed in the intial analysis attempted to replicate that set forth in Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958). For a variety of reasons this proved unsatisfactory with the result that vital role information had to be left out of the research report. This dissertation represents an attempt to re-code and re-analyze these data.

ground for analyzing role concepts, the researcher's intention is to recommend a better framework for further study of professional roles in complex organizations.

Objectives and Value of the Study

This study is based on the assumption that the individual's perception of his role provides clues about the differential behavior of individuals in overseas assignments. Since the environment of overseas management involves ambiguity, especially in relation to host professionals, ambiguity in the professional role may directly relate to an individual's success overseas. Thus this study is designed to see the various conditions related to ambiguity in the professional role. This study also attempts to find out what kinds of problems are associated with ambiguity and their effects on overseas role performance and satisfaction.

This study of ambiguity in the professional role has six main objectives:

1) To explore the extent of ambiguity in professional roles in an overseas environment;

2) To identify problem areas characterized by a high degree of ambiguity;

3) To determine significant differences between ambiguity and related variables;

4) To serve as a point of departure for further

research utilizing role theory as a tool to explore the professional relationship between U.S. advisors and host officials;

5) To yield greater understanding of the relationship of role perceptions to job effectiveness, so that it may be possible to make training recommendations to AID advisors as a means of improving individual performance overseas; and

6) To develop additional information concerning the nature of role perception as an aid to management in clarifying diverse role relationships and for prediction of areas of potential ambiguity.

It would seem that an analysis of the professional role of AID advisors would be of interest not only in terms of the large number of personnel currently working abroad, but also for those working at the state department and those interested in technical assistance. If this research has further implication, it may provide another approach to the study of the professional role in complex organizations.

Organization of the Dissertation Material

A brief review of the literature on role theory and the operationalized concept are discussed in Chapter II. Chapter III operationalizes the concept of the ideal role in terms of technical competence and interpersonal

competence and presents three general hypotheses.

Research procedures are described in Chapter IV. Research hypotheses are stated and discussed. Methods used in gathering the data, list of data, and the complex process of data reduction are also set forth. Statistical tools used are mentioned, with reasons for selecting them.

Chapter V gives the results of the research and describes certain unexpected findings. The implications and conclusions are given in Chapter VI, along with suggestions for AID and further studies in role theory.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR STUDYING THE PROBLEM

The Approach

One of the most elusive problems facing those studying human behavior is that of bringing together into some kind of theoretical framework the study of the individual, with his unique aspects, within the context of a social system. Although an individual may be psychologically unique, he also can be classified or categorized in a sociological sense as one of a group or social system; this social system, in turn, is part of a culture--yet, all three aspects, cultural, social and psychological, are dynamically a part of each other. Therefore, the one stressed depends often on the behavioral science persuasion of the person discussing the subject.

A great deal of interest in role theory has been developed during the past thirty years by psychologists, sociologists, and social psychologists making important theoretical and experimental contributions. The sociologist has approached role as a set of social pressures, the psychologist as an individual's conception, the social psychologist as the reciprocal and normative nature of

role. An approach to this interplay has been through the use of the concept of "role" with which this dissertation is concerned.

In an institutional context, the organization of public service is a basic institution of a whole society.[1] The institutional characteristics of public organization are concerned with the displacement of individual, group, and organization. For our study, the concept of role provides us with a linkage between these levels and, in a broad sense, with a social system. The advantage of role theory will be discussed in the following sections.

An individual role can be described as the categorization of a certain grouping of perceptions into consistent sets of acts or behaviors. The overseas professional's role is viewed in terms of role perceptions. With different interactions with people, an individual perceives and in fact acts differently. No two interpersonal behaviors are exactly the same; and indeed there are often divergent sets of behaviors from one situation to another. Bruner has stated that ". . . perception involves an act of categorization. . . . Adequate perceptual representation involves the learning of appropriate categories, the learning of cues useful in placing objects

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[1]John D. Millet, Organization for the Public Service (New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1966), Chapter 1.

appropriately in such systems of categories, and the learning of what objects are likely to occur in the environment."[2]

Implied in this approach is the assumption that sets of behavior are perceived. It would seem logical that this might be a useful description of role perceptions of overseas professionals. Role perception is the first part of a social interaction, because it is an attempt to obtain information which may guide behavior. An individual adapts a good deal of "selective perception" of his own actions and exaggerates cues that are unfavorable to him.[3] Second, an individual performs the actions appropriate to that perception, which may be interpreted as role enactment. Thus, role perception refers to the process of locating the other and, reciprocally, the self in the role system. The role which the person enacts depends on his locating of the position of self and other. Sarbin illustrated that "such locating or positioning occurs as the result of an assessment of the other(s) in

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[2]Jerome S. Bruner, "On Perceptual Readiness," Psychological Review, LXIV (March, 1957), pp. 123-127; also see "The 'New Look' in Perception," in Timothy W. Costello and Sheldon S. Zalkind, Psychology in Administration (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963), pp. 7-14.

[3]George J. McCall and J. L. Simmons, Identities and Interactions: An Examination of Human Associations in Everyday Life (New York: The Free Press, 1966), pp. 98-99.

the situation in relation to one's self. The accuracy of locating the other (and reciprocally one's self) in the role system determines to a large extent the validity of enactment."[4]

Accordingly, how well he enacts the appropriate role depends, at least partially, on the accuracy of his locating the other's position. If this locating process is inaccurate, the locating of the position of self is likely to be inaccurate, and role enactment inappropriate. Therefore, the effect of the overseas performance behavior depends in part on how the position of the counterpart, colleague, supervisor, and host professional is categorized by the subject, i.e., on his role perceptions. Also, numerous intervening variables in the overseas environment function as cues for locating the positions of self and other, and for subsequent role performance. If role perceptions are indefinite, vague or ambiguous, role performance will be ineffectual.

A role can, therefore, be considered as behaviors of the self which are categorized, yet many of these same behaviors may be categorized as part of different roles as well. Among these many items of information are

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[4]Theodore R. Sarbin, "A Role-Theoretical Interpretation of Psychological Change," in P. Worchel, and D. Byrne (ed.), Psychological Change (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964), p. 190; also see "Role: Psychological Aspects," International Encyclopedia of Social Science, Vol. XIII (1968), pp. 546-52.

significant ones which an individual may interpret as the appropriate category of behaviors for a certain position--that is, a description of appropriate behavior for an individual in that position. For our purpose, a role can be considered as a set of behaviors of the self consistent for an appropriate social position that is perceptually shared in at least certain aspects by all persons in the social situation.

Basic Constructs in Role Theory

The idea of role has been useful in both a descriptive and an explanatory concept in several disciplines. Only recently has role theory developed from the descriptive approach to the more scientific experimental approach. The body of concepts in role theory does not represent a systematically defined construct which the student of public administration can easily apply to his research. The different uses of the language and concepts of role have been adopted by the social scientists. The meanings and uses of the language have been reviewed by Neiman and Hughes, Gross, et al., Banton, and Biddle and Thomas.[5]

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[5]L. J. Neiman and J. W. Hughes, "The Problem of the Concept of Role: A Re-survey of the Literature," Social Forces, Vol. XXX (1951), pp. 141-149; Neal Gross, et al., Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958); Michael Banton, Roles: An Introduction to the Study of Social Relations (New York: Basic Books, Inc., Publishers, 1965); and Bruce J. Biddle and Edwin J. Thomas, Role Theory: Concepts and Research (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966).

In their book, Role Theory: Concepts and Research, Biddle and Thomas have prepared the most systematic introduction to role theory and its evolution and present status, as well as an exposition of the basic concepts and structure of the role language.

The literature in role theory suggests that the basic assumptions of theory simply seem to be that in social situations persons behave differently with reference to expectations.[6] Classificatory concepts in role theory, according to Biddle and Thomas, deal with a limited set of "phenomenal referents--these referents are be behaviors, persons, or persons and their behaviors." For example, an "individual" is a term whose phenomenal referent is a person, "norm" refers to a behavior, while "position" refers to both persons and their behaviors.[7] The conceptual units of theory, according to Sarbin, are: (1) role--the unit of culture, (2) position--the unit of society, and (3) self--the unit of personality.[8]

One of role theory's basic concepts is position,

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[6]Gross, et al., op. cit.

[7]Biddle and Thomas, op. cit., pp. 23-45.

[8]Theodore R. Sarbin, "Role Theory," in Garner Lindzey (ed.), Handbook of Social Psychology (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1954), p. 225.

which means the location of an actor in a system of social relationships. The social relationship may be a formal one existing in a total social system, or an informal one in a social context. Any position in social relationships may be described relationally in terms of the other positions with which it is related, or situationally in terms of the other positions with which it is related, or situationally in terms of the boundaries of the situation within which the position occurs.[9]

Status is often used synonymously with position involving rights and duties arranged in a structure of human interrelationships. Linton points out that:

> A status, as distinct from the individual who may occupy it, is simply a collection of rights and duties. . . . A role represents the dynamic aspect of a status. . . . When (an individual) puts the rights and duties into effect, he is performing a role. . . . Status and role serve to reduce the ideal patterns for social life to individual terms. They become models for organizing the attitudes and behaviour of the individual so that these will be congruous with those of the other individuals participating in the expression of the pattern.[10]

This suggests that role is the dynamic counterpart of a status position. An individual is given a status through a social process; but when he begins to discharge the obligations of this position he is performing a role. Thus, Linton considers status and role quite inseparable.

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[9]Gross, Mason and McEachern, op. cit., pp. 48-59.

[10]Ralph Linton, The Study of Man (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936), pp. 113-114.

Although he considers the two concepts similar, he does not specify why two are needed.

Another basic concept is role expectation held by individuals about behaviors of a person in a certain position. Gross, et al., define an expectation as "an evaluative standard applied to an incumbent of a position.[11] Assumptions behind this definition are predictive and normative criteria: how, in fact, the incumbents of the positions do interact with each other, or how they should interact with each other. Bennis illustrates four principal sets of expectations that function as determinants in shaping the character of the nurse's role in the hospital setting.[12] First, institutional expectations are communicated downward largely through administrative channels in the hospital hierarchy. Second, colleague and subordinate expectations are typically more informal and implicit. Norms develop among members of a treatment team. Third, the expectations of groups outside the immediate work situation, shape the role of the professional nurse. This is referred to as reference group expectations. Finally, self-expectations, or the nurse's own internal standards of behavior, also enter into structuring her role. Bennis

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[11]Gross, et al., op. cit., p. 58.

[12]Warren G. Bennis, Norman H. Berkowitz, Mary F. Malone, and Malcolm W. Klein, The Role of the Nurse in the Outpatient Department: A Preliminary Report (New York: American Nurses' Foundation, Inc., 1961), pp. 10-11.

also suggests that "when these complex sets of expectations are consonant and reinforce each other, the role definition is stable. Role stability is not necessarily a virtue, but the chances are that knowing with some certainty what is expected facilitates one's performance."[13]

Role performance is used interchangeably, and incorrectly, with role-taking. Role performance is the preface of patterned behaviors where the antecedent conditions include assignment to a position in the social structure. It is a particular individual's actual conduct--performance--in a certain position. Role performance consists of conforming behaviorally to expectations, with the goal of attaining positive sanctions from those holding the expectations or at least, of avoiding their negative sanctions.[14] This view is fairly focused on structured situations in which roles are formally defined and also gives less attention to the importance of interaction of self and role. Role taking is a symbolic process by which a person projects himself into the situation of the other person imaginatively adopts the perspective and attitudes of the other.

The concept of self is often used by role theorists. The study of interaction of self and role indicates

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[13]Ibid.

[14]Gross, et al., op. cit., pp. 65-66. See also Talcott Parsons, The Social System (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1951).

the current trend in role theory. The scholars have developed different theories for explaining the particular aspect of human interaction and the condition of social psychological inquiry. Sarbin introduces the concept of congruence of self and role as a motivation construct.[15] His self-role theory makes it possible to translate the notion of folk psychology into a scientifically testable hypothesis, by determining the salient characteristics demanded by a given role and matching these role demands with correspondingly required self-characteristics.

Goffman, introducing a concept of role distance, referred to behavior that indicates a "disdainful detachment" of an individual between himself and his role.[16] His view of the situated activity system certainly provides a useful frame of reference for empirical research in role theory. When the individual withdraws from a situated self, he does not draw into some psychological world that he creates himself but rather acts in the name of some other socially created identity. The liberty he takes in regard to a situated self is taken because of other, equally social, constraints. Goffman describes an

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[15]Theodore R. Sarbin, "The Notion of the Self in Current Cognitive Theory," Colloquium Address (The Honors College, University of Oregon, 1963).

[16]Erving Goffman, Encounters: Two Studies in the Sociology of Interaction (Indianapolis, Indiana: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1961).

example in surgery to show a systematic view of the functions performed by role distance.

We have reviewed briefly the major concepts of role theory. The following sections conjoin several other aspects of role theory, namely role relationship, role consensus, and role ambiguity, to provide a theoretical framework for examining performance and satisfaction of professionals in different organizational environments.

Role Ambiguity

There is little research dealing with role ambiguity directly, and especially little which attempts to account for different environmental contexts. Role ambiguity may be defined as that condition where the perception of self role of an individual in a given position is unclear to its role requirements.

Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal developed a theoretical construct on role ambiguity.[17] They consider role ambiguity as the degree to which required information is available to a given organizational position. In other words, a lack of information to an incumbent's position is associated with high role ambiguity of an individual. Ambiguity has been described as growing out of problems in

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[17]Robert L. Kahn, Donald M. Wolfe, Robert P. Quinn, J. Diedrick Snoek, and Robert A. Rosenthal, Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964).

generating adequate and dependable information about issues which concern people in complex organizations. Such information is often difficult to obtain. In a role episode model, the authors explain a complete cycle of role sending, response by the focal person, and the effects of that response on the role senders. The role episode starts with the existence of a set of role expectations held by role senders about a focal person and his behavior on the job. The concept of the role set incorporates role expectations, role pressures, sent role, role forces, role behavior, role ambiguity and role conflict. The key concept of this model based on role expectation is as follows:

> . . . Role pressures are assumed to originate in the expectations held by members of the role set. Role senders have expectations regarding the way in which the focal role should be performed. They also have perceptions regarding the way in which the focal person is actually performing. They correlate the two and, further, exert pressures to make his performance congruent with their expectations. These pressures induce in the focal person an experience which has both perceptual and cognitive properties, and which leads in turn to certain adjustive (or maladjustive) responses. The responses of the focal person are observed by those exerting the pressures, and their expectations are correspondingly adjusted. Thus for both the role senders and the focal person, the episode involves experience and response.[18]

Thus, Kahn, et al., conclude that the total pattern of such expectations and pressures must be considered in order to understand the degree of conflict or ambiguity in the role. Accordingly, the actual degree of objective

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[18] Ibid., pp. 26-27.

role conflict depends on the configuration of role pressures actually exerted by role senders on the focal person, and his experience of this conflict in turn depends upon perceptions of the focal person himself. The potential degree of ambiguity in a role was examined by investigating the availability of relevant information with the role set, and the degree of objective ambiguity for a focal position was studied in terms of the availability of that information to the position. The experienced ambiguity of the occupant of that position reflects the objective situation as it interacts with relevant properties of the person.

To study conflict and ambiguity, the authors interviewed 53 focal persons at various supervisory and executive levels in several industrial organizations. Their research findings indicate that the experience of role conflict and role ambiguity is common and usually hierarchical. The consequence of emotional stress includes low job satisfactions, a high degree of job-related tension, low confidence in the organization, and withdrawal. The major elements of ambiguity include uncertainty about the way in which one's supervisor evaluates one's work, about opportunities for advancement, about scope of responsibility, and about the expectations of others regarding one's performance. The findings of these authors will be frequently referred to in this study.

Ambiguity is often described as the status of role

shock or discontinuity in roles. Ruth Benedict points out that continuity in role means essentially that "the child is taught nothing it must unlearn later," and is taught enough about what will be expected of him later so that the expectation will not come as a shock.[19] Discontinuity in role expectations, thus, involves both contraditions in expectations, as in attitudes toward sex expression at different age levels, and the absence of preparation of the individual for future roles.

Storm and Finkle describe "role shock" as the discrepancy between ideal role and actual role.[20] Adopting this notion, Byrnes defines role shock as "the frustrations and stresses associated with such discrepancies as between what a technical assistant views as the ideal role for himself and what he learns or finds the actual role to be abroad or between the role he expects to play abroad and the role he actually plays."[21]

One area in which role ambiguity is indirectly

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[19]Ruth Benedict, "Continuities and Discontinuities in Cultural Conditioning," in Herman D. Stein and Richard A. Cloward, Social Perspectives on Behavior (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc., 1958), pp. 240-247.

[20]William B. Storm and Jason L. Finkle, American Professionals in Technical Assistance: A Preliminary Report (Los Angeles: School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, 1965).

[21]Francis C. Byrnes, "Role Shock: An Occupational Hazard of American Technical Assistants Abroad," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. CCCLXVIII (November, 1966), p. 96.

suggested is that of status incongruence. Lenski points out that individuals who perceive status incongruence occupy a rather ambiguous position in society.[22] Because of this ambiguity he feels that such persons experience less satisfactory interpersonal relations. He reasons further that unsatisfactory interpersonal relations may lead to withdrawal from, or avoidance of, social participation. Homans uses the concept of social incertitude to characterize the dilemma of status incongruence.[23] He describes how if a person presents two incongruent stimuli, he is likely to be in a status of ambiguity. This suggests ambiguity not only for the focal individual but for his role partners as well. The concept of social incertitude is closely related to the notion of inconsistent demands posited by Goffman. In any case, status incongruence not only produces felt injustice but also ambiguities which serve to create strain in individuals.

Cohen, Stotland, and Wolfe have developed a measure of "need for cognition"--a need for clear, orderly, and meaningful cognitive experiences.[24] A need for cognition

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[22]G. E. Lenski, "Social Participation and Status Crystallization," American Sociological Review, Vol. XXI (1956), pp. 458-464.

[23]George C. Homans, Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1961), p. 250.

[24]A. E. Cohen, E. Stotland, and D. Wolfe, "An Experimental Investigation of Need for Cognition," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, Vol. LI (1955), pp. 291-94

differs in strength from person to person and varies through time depending on the state of arousal. They illustrate that when this need is strong, the person is not only tolerant of ambiguity but strives actively for clarity and structure. Sampson introduces the concept of cognitive consistency under a broader framework of expectacy congruence. He defines expectancy congruence as a congruity between what an individual expects and what actually occurs, as he perceives it. Sampson constructed his model on the basis of four assumptions: 1) a degree of coordination among participants in an interaction situation is basic to the continued existence of social order; 2) coordination is dependent upon being able to anticipate what behaviors are expected of oneself and other participants bound in the social relationship; 3) learning experiences provide individuals with shared expectations about what behaviors are appropriate in given situations, and about the physical ecology; and 4) an internally consistent and valid set of expectations is essential to individuals and collectivities in the coordination of interactions.[25] From these assumptions, we may predict that the condition of ambiguity creates internally inconsistent expectations and uncertainty about the appropriateness of behaviors in interaction situations. Thus, coordination among individuals in a team

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[25]E. E. Sampson, "Status Congruence and Cognitive Consistency," Sociometry, Vol. XXVI (1963), pp. 146-62.

characterized by expectance incongruence will be exerted. The difficulty in coordinating interpersonal behavior will result in reduced satisfaction and performance in the team effort.

Homans, Sampson and Cohen and others differ in preference to terminology and concepts, but they suggest that in the status-incongruent groups, they must cope with conflict and ambiguity along with the demands of the assignment, and also suggest a relationship--probably a linear relationship--between ambiguity and satisfaction, congruence and role ambiguity, and ambiguity and performance.

According to Goffman, the actor takes role-distance behavior to protect the self in a situation which he feels is a threat to his self-conception of role.[26] He sees the concept of role distance as providing "a sociological means of dealing with one type of divergence between obligation and actual performance." Role distance behaviors are those which "constitute a wedge between the individual and his role, between his doing and being." What the actor is doing when he expresses role distance is denying the "virtual self," or "ready-made me" implied by the role; but he does not deny that he is playing the role.[27]

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[26]Goffman, op. cit. [27]Ibid., pp. 107-108.

Taking role distance is a behavior which is to some degree the opposite of "attachment" to a position and its role takes place when "the self-image available for anyone entering a particular position is one of which he may become effectively and cognitively enamored, desiring and expecting to see himself in terms of the enactment of the role and the self-identification emerging from this enactment."[28]

In relation to our study, we can say that taking role distance is a behavior toward role ambiguity in a given position, based on its meaning for the individual. Coser suggests that role distance revolves sociological ambivalence in the first instance and in the second removes the threat of sociological ambivalence, by maintaining the established relationships.[29] Sociological ambivalence refers to incompatible or contradictory normative expectations of attitudes, beliefs, and behavior assigned to a status or to a set of statuses in a society, or even incorporated into a single status.

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[28] Ibid., pp. 88-90.

[29] Rose L. Coser, "Role Distance, Sociological Ambivalence, and Transitional Status Systems," American Journal of Sociology, LXXII (September, 1966), pp. 173-87.

Implication for Overseas Environment

Most of the overseas professionals are used in dealing with domestic organizational environments and are not very familiar with different organizational contexts. Ambiguity in the professional role is likely to come from a variety of sources, such as the problems of host counterpart, cultural difference, excessive bureaucracy overseas, professional relationship, status incongruence, and others. As we have examined earlier, there is little or no research dealing with the problem of ambiguity in the professional role directly, and very few attempts to consider different environmental contexts.

The overseas assignments are made according to expectations and are perceived as just assignments to the social structure. The perception of incongruency of expectations is assumed to be one of the reasons that ambiguity is stressful. Another reason may be a lack of information about performing specific assignments in dealing with various professionals in a teamwork situation.

Certain conclusions seem warranted from an appraisal of the current status of theory and research on ambiguity in the professional role. First, several scholars have indicated that role ambiguity is generally costly to individuals and a team effort. Second, ambiguity has come from a variety of sources in different settings. Third, several empirical and theoretical gaps

exist between the determination of factors which may influence the different perceptions of ambiguity and the delineation of the situational and attitudinal determinants which intensify or suppress the effects of role ambiguity. The present research is directly relevant to these problems applied to organizational environments overseas.

Role Relationship and Role Acceptance

Role relationship will be considered as the interaction or relationship that exists between two or more social positions. This idea has been developed by Merton[30] and Gross, et al.[31] More recently, Hage and Marwell have developed a theory of role relationship.[32]

Merton suggests that a single status in society involves not one role but a set of associated roles relating the incumbent to the various other role-players with whom he has to deal in fulfilling the obligations of his status. This is called the role relationship. In Merton's concept, role set means that "complement of role relationships which persons have by virture of occupying a

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[30]Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (2d ed. rev.; New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1957).

[31]Gross, et al., op. cit.

[32]Jeral Hage and Gerald Marwell, "Toward the Development of an Empirically Based Theory of Role Relationships," Sociometry, Vol. XXXI, No. 2 (June, 1968), pp. 200-212.

particular social status."[33] He has also pointed out that when a variety of statuses are added together, every individual constitues his status set and each status position may have several counter-positions within its role set. Thus, the status position of a medical student entails not only the role of a student in relation to his teachers, but also an array of other roles relating the occupant of that status to other students, nurses, physicians, social workers, medical technicians, etc.[34] However, it still remains for the researcher to demonstrate that Merton's concept can be used in research to bring new understanding of various role sets.

Hage and Marwell see the use of the role relationship as the unit of analysis rather than the status position of the individual. They have indicated that the role relationship as the unit of analysis has "the advantage of emphasizing contextual and temporal variables. Because it focuses on interaction it leads to a series of interesting questions, such as the following: How long does interaction last? How durable is the relationship? Although these questions might be rephrased for positions, the transformation seems difficult and strained."[35] Thus,

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[33]Merton, op. cit., p. 369.

[34]Ibid., pp. 369-370.

[35]Hage and Marwell, op. cit., pp. 202-203.

they emphasize that role relationship is the linking of positions that defines the organization of the system, not the presence of the positions themselves.

Gross, et al., analyzed the role or roles of the school superintendent in terms of the various social structures in which he is involved. According to their findings about school superintendents, members of their school boards, teachers and others of their role-set, the authors illustrated that role conflict situations (situations where a person is expected to act in different ways by different people) tend to be resolved on the basis of how legitimate the expectations of others are perceived to be, how strong the sanctions are against acting in a particular way, and whether the individual himself is oriented more in terms of legitimate behavior, in terms of sanctions, or takes both into account.[36]

This idea of role conflict resolution in role set may be helpful in predicting how particular persons will carry out role behaviors. If a role is carried out differently than expected, it would seem that over a period of time the expectations will change. Therefore, the type of persons in a particular position, carrying out role behavior for that position, may help to change the expectations that others have of the role.

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[36]Gross, et al., op. cit., pp. 298-303.

Zander, Cohen, and Stotland studied the mental health team, looking at power relationships between the psychiatrist, the psychologist, and the psychiatric social worker. The authors indicate many of the behavior mechanisms by which persons in superior-inferior relationships act in situations of threat or security. Their finding shows that it is likely that role functions are accepted both because of particular training and ability. The main conclusion is that status relationships among the three professional groups result in strains and conflicts. This study indicates significant problems concerning the causes of inter-role conflict rather moving directly toward improving the efficiency of team effort.[37]

Reisman and Rohrer have presented a series of studies carried out in one large general hospital. Their study emphasized the role relationships among members of the team but, particularly, stress the differences between the formal organizational arrangements and the informal patterns.[38] Simmons, in his study of role relations in the factory, indicates that one variable influencing the

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[37]Alvin Zander, Arthur R. Cohen, and Ezra Stotland, Role Relationships in the Mental Health Professionals (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Research Center for Group Dynamics, Institute of Social Research, University of Michigan, 1957).

[38]Leonard Reisman and John H. Rohrer (eds.), Change and Dilemma in the Nursing Profession: Studies of Nursing Service in a Large General Hospital (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1957).

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subject's action in role set is his perception of how role performance is evaluated by each of his role partners.[39] For example, the foreman knows that both management and workers have evaluated his performance as a foreman and his perception of these evaluations probably affects his action.

In Goffman's theory of role distance, when an individual plays out most of his roles in front of the same audience, he becomes entirely dependent on them, because they alone can define him. Thus presentation of audience in role set is very significant for Goffman. Only when the role-others figuring in one of an individual's role sets do not figure in others can the individual avoid dependence on one role relationship. In the situation where the various roles which constitute the whole self are played before several different audiences, then strategies taking role distance are alwasy possible as means of retreat from one self to another.[40]

Implication for Professional Role Relationship Overseas

William G. Scott has pointed out that management should recognize the triangular situation of role expectations and their interactions which continuously occur

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[39]Roberta G. Simmons, "The Role Conflict of the First Line Supervisor," The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. LXXIII, No. 4 (January, 1968), pp. 482-495.

[40]Goffman, op. cit., pp. 111-112.

among combinations of organization or job, small group, and individual expectations.[41] Such a triangular situation can be stable or unstable and, as such, would differently serve in affecting the organization. Merton suggests "disruption of role relationships" is associated with the modes of coping with incompatible demands upon status-occupants by members of the role set.

The professional overseas obviously is in role relationship with his counterpart organization, host professionals, host government, American colleagues, mission supervisor or director, and to a large extent with A.I.D. Washington. The diversity of role relationships may be stable or unstable in different role sets. Figure 1 shows the position of the professional with some of its counter roles in an overseas environment.

Achieving better role relationship in overseas technical assistance is at once the easiest and most difficult of tasks among professions. It is the easiest, because service to host people is always a part of the professional assignments. Because of this fact it is easy for persons from professions to join hands in a shared purpose toward achieving the mission goals. It is the most difficult because, in order to have a positive

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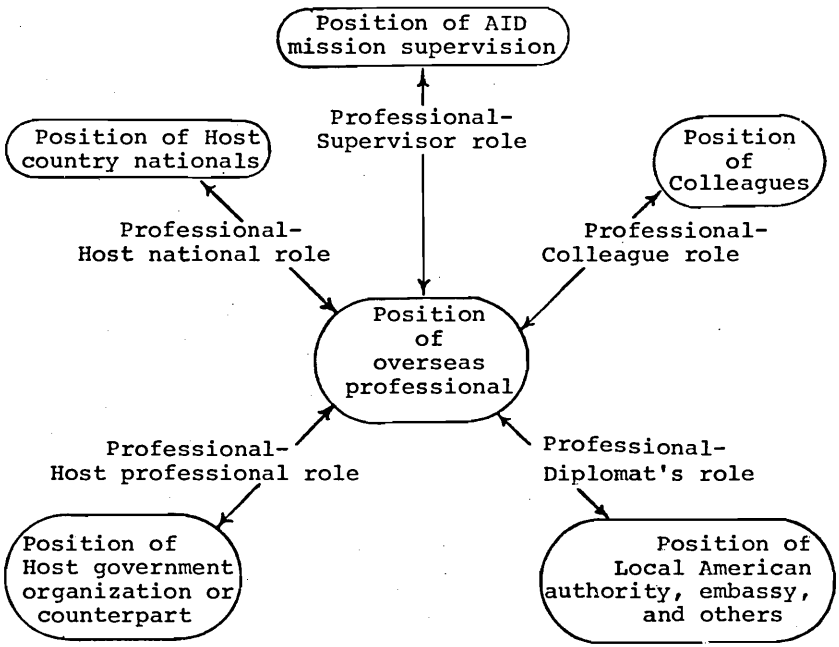
[41]William G. Scott, Organization Theory: A Behavioral Analysis for Management (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967), pp. 195-196.

relationship, there must exist a higher degree of interpersonal competence and integrity among those working together.

FIGURE 1

THE POSITION OF PROFESSIONAL WITH SOME OF ITS COUNTER ROLES



For our purpose, we will assume that the high degree of acceptance of an individual's role by role partners in teamwork means that a professional has developed a favorable attitude with other members of the team. On the other hand, the attitudes of others affect the behavior

the person. When the behavior of the person is not endorsed by others, an individual overseas experience can be dissatisfying, which, in turn, could lead to low quality role performance.

Role Consensus

Scholars of role theory using the term "role consensus" mean the degree of agreement or disagreement in the individual's behavior or expectation. Biddle and Thomas define role consensus as the degree of agreement of individuals on "prescription, evaluation, description, or sanction."[42] According to complex forms of consensual relationships, they consider that such agreements may be covert or overt. Gross, et al., conclude that most formulations of the role concept assume that consensus exists on the specifications of a position, which accounts for variability of the behavior of incumbents of the same position in terms of variabilities in their personal attitudes, values, and other personality characteristics. However, they suggest that significant role definers lead people to a number of different role expectations connected with the same position, and furthermore, that role conflict occurs not only because actors are exposed to incongruent specifications as incumbent of single positions. Thus, the problem of the resolution of role conflict is not only why

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[42]Biddle and Thomas, op. cit., p. 33.

an actor selects one position over another, but also why an actor conforms to one set of role specifications rather than another. School superintendents and members of school boards could agree upon one another's roles.[43]

Their study of consensus concerns microscopic consensus and macroscopic consensus: Microscopic consensus focused within school boards and between the school board and its superintendent, while macroscopic consensus focused between the total sample of 105 superintendents and 508 school board members. Macroscopic consensus was measured by the variance of the distribution of the sample. The analysis of macroscopic consensus between the two samples revealed that there were significant differences in 63 per cent of the items.[44] Their findings provide clear evidence of variation in consensus on the expectations of incumbents of a single position.

In his empirical study of public assistance workers in Welfare Bureaus in Michigan, Thomas relates role conception variables to organizational size in order to determine the extent to which an organization's size facilitates or impedes efforts to attain its formally stated objectives.[45] He considers role consensus as the

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[43]Gross, et al., op. cit., pp. 21-47.

[44]Ibid., pp. 116-121.

[45]Edwin J. Thomas, "Role Conceptions and Organizational Size," American Sociological Review, XXIV, No. 1 (February, 1959), pp. 30-37.

degree of agreement between the public assistance worker and his supervisor about the importance of functions performed by workers. The research finding indicates that workers' conceptions of their roles differ according to the size of the welfare office. In smaller bureaus, there was found to be greater role consensus between the worker and his supervisor about the importance of functions that were performed, greater breadth of role conception (associated with age and experience), and higher ethical commitment (more in smaller units, although also related to education and experience). Furthermore, the number of workers in the organization may be a less potent variable in affecting the behavior of members than the community setting of organization unit. Thus, this research suggests important factors influencing role conception and role consensus.

Numerous studies focus on the role conception and role consensus in the hospital setting. A study by Hughes, Hughes, and Deutscher illustrates a lack of consensus among doctors and nurses about their roles.[46] They conclude that there is no agreement among nurses, doctors, and attendents as to what are nurses' most important tasks. Conflict derives from the questions of responsibility and to

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[46] E. C. Hughes, H. M. Hughes, and I. Deutscher, Twenty Thousand Nurses Tell Their Story (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1958).

whom the loyalty of the various personnel should be directed. Nurses are highly critical of their supervisors' treatment of nurses, as well as of doctors. On the other hand, doctors complain of nurses being too professional, or distant from the patient. However, in spite of their lack of agreement many times with doctors, nursing personnel will follow the order of the physician. According to their study, it is important to know that low consensus need not imply social disorganization, if the power structure is well established.

In his study of role conception and group consensus Haas indicates that low role consensus in permanent groups is directly related to disharmony and annoyance.[47] This study involves 198 persons on ten hospital stations in two hospitals. Each station both in city and state hospital is viewed as a separate group, and all consensus computations were made for pairs of members within each station. The sample includes doctors, supervisors, head nurses, general-duty nurses, licensed practical nurses, student nurses, aides, and orderlies. He finds that role consensus is a major factor in intra-group harmony in two hospitals. Findings prove that for any dyad within a group which persists over time, low consensus in role conception is

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[47]Eugene Haas, Role Conception and Group Consensus (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1964).

directly related to low role performance rating and sociometric preference. The findings for the group friction hypothesis tends to support the basic relation between low consensus and the prevalence of friction. Also level of role consensus among professional employees is directly related to similarity of educational background. For example, the student nurses in this study have a very high degree of similarity in their formal educational experience, while there is greater variation in the type and amount of education received by the general-duty nurses.

Sometimes role consensus is considered as the degree of clarity with which the roles of a given position are defined by other persons. Taves, et al., see that "interaction within a work group necessarily requires that some degree of consensus on expectations about the definition of how each is to act, but the extent to which role conceptions mesh probably influences self-conception."[48] For example, the position of nurse may be variously conceived as a public servant, a decision-maker, a hospital employee, or a trained professional. Each of these images of the profession is associated with different role perceptions of those who hold them. When these role

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[48]Marvin J. Taves, Ronald G. Corwin, and J. Eugene Haas, Role Conception and Vocational Success and Satisfaction (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1963).

conceptions are not held by others, any one self-conception associated with them is less likely to be clearly endorsed by others.

Taves, et al., also point out that "if social reality, including the social self, is ultimately validated by the opinions of other persons, then the certainty with which self-conceptions are held depends on the degree of consensus on the roles."[49] Thus, if the role conceptions are accepted by others in a role set unanimously, we may say that there is high consensus on the role, "the self-conception associated with the position is likely to be more clear than if widely divergent role conceptions are associated with the position."

Implication for Overseas Professionals

Interaction within a team working overseas necessarily requires some degree of consensus on one's role about the definition of how each is to perform in relation with host professionals. On the other hand, the high degree of endorsement by host professionals may reduce role ambiguity of an individual because the self-conception associated with the position is more likely to be clear.

Since the overseas program or project represents the diversity of professions, broadly speaking, including Agriculture, Engineering, Social Science, and Education

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[49] Ibid., p. 9.

in our sample, it is quite possible that divergent role conceptions are associated with a given position, and, thus, role conflict will be assumed in the role relationships. Low role consensus in overseas team work may be directly related to disharmony and conflict. It is interesting to examine where there is an agreement among AID advisors, mission supervisors, and host professionals as to what are advisors' important tasks.

The idea which role consensus leads to job satisfaction and role performance has been recognized by scholars. Accordingly, we may assume that high role consensus is likely related to high satisfaction of overseas experience and high performance of technical assistance assignments. This may appear so self-evident as not to require empirical confirmation. However, it seems of interest to consider any empirical test which will confirm or deny the generalization, particularly applied to overseas organizational environment.

The Ideal Role and Identity in Professional Roles

Scholars often insist that there is an important relationship between one's profession, his professional perception and his self-identity.[50] One of the purposes

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[50]Everett C. Hughes, "Work and the Self," in J. H. Roher, and M. Sherif (ed.), Social Psychology at the Crossroads (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951); George J. McCall and J. L. Simmons, Identities and Interactions: An Examination of Human Associations in Everyday Life (New

of this study is to explore that relationship and its impact on performance. Some of the hypotheses about the relationship between the ideal role, satisfaction, and performance will be elaborated in the next chapter.

One of the factors that affects perception is the motivation or needs of the individual. Those behaviors that are closely related to the enhancement of the self would likely be selected out by an individual in his perceptual process. If consistency in the behavior of an individual toward ego enhancement is assumed, then it is logical that an individual who takes a particular role as the ideal role would often internalize the attitudes and values consistent with this role.

Since people have different role perceptions, people develop different self-identities. Taves, et al., illustrate that ". . . relationships between persons within an occupation and between persons of different occupations are prescribed by norms and values which pattern the style of life shared by members of the occupation. It is through knowledge of these norms and values that persons in the occupation learn what is expected of them; this is their 'role conception'. People more or less identify themselves with these roles; people develop

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York: The Free Press, 1966); and E. Goffman, The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life (Garden City, New York: Doubleday Anchor, 1959).

different identities. . . ."[51]

Lecky has pointed out that if a person will adjust to his environment in a way that will permit him to maintain the consistency of his value structure, he must then restructure his value system. Thus, one type of identification is that of occupation.[52] And individuals in professional roles will act on the basis of the professional values they have learned during their training, as well as on the basis of value accommodations of current interaction situations.

A very extensive research about role identity has been developed by McCall and Simmons. They define role identity as follows:

> . . . role identity may be defined as the character and the role that an individual devises for himself as an occupant of a particular social position. More intuitively, such a role-identity is his imaginative view of himself as he likes to think of himself being and acting as an occupant of that position.[53]

They also see that this imaginative view of self in a given position is usually rather idealized, incorporating standards of conduct and achievement that are unlikely to be consistently attained (or perhaps even approached) in the individual's actual day-to-day

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[51]Taves, et al., op. cit., p. 1.

[52]Prescott Lecky, Self-Consistency (New York: Island Press, 1945); and see George H. Mead, Mind, Self, and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934).

[53]McCall and Simmons, op. cit., p. 67.

performances relevant to that role.[54] Thus people identify themselves in connection with their own positions.

Perhaps the ideal role of self is also associated with an individual's satisfaction and performance in the occupation. Role identities provide an important frame of reference for appraising one's thoughts, feelings, and actions--actual performance of an individual role is likely based on a person's role-identities. Those actions that are not congruent with one's ideal role in a given social position may lead to ambiguity in one's role.

In early interactions overseas with host professionals, their professional roles are rather ambiguous, but as the professionals come to know each other more personally, they are able to act toward others not simply in terms of their professional roles but in terms of their role-identities, taking into account "idiosyncratic interpretations and elaborations of those roles."

McCall and Simmons describe two aspects of role-identity: the conventional and the idiosyncratic. While the conventional expectations provide the structural framework of a role-identity, the idiosyncratic expectations approach some human considerations. They go on to say that "the relative proportion of these two aspects varies from person to person, and from identity to identity

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[54] Ibid., pp. 67-68.

for the same individual. Some people add little to the role-expectations they have learned; others modify and elaborate culturally defined roles to such extreme extents that the roles become unrecognizable to other people and the individuals are regarded as eccentric or mentally ill. Most of us, fortunately, fall somewhere between."[55]

Role-identity also leads to role acceptance and role consensus. The degree of acceptance and consensus of role tends to confirm one's self-image as an incumbent position: these are the implied confirmation of the specific contents of one's idealized self-image. Therefore, role consensus and role acceptance are obtained from others in a role set, primarily in response to one's own relevant role performances. Furthermore, where there is low role consensus on one's role, it is quite likely that one's selective acceptance of role will, in turn, be influenced by his role-identity in the role performance.

This view has been considered as "role-support" by McCall and Simmons, "which is the expressed support accorded to an actor by his audience for his claims concerning his role-identity."[56] They also point out that gaining role-support from others without actually enacting the role to its full extent can sometimes be very frustrating, haunting, and hollow. One seeks interactions and audiences, not only (and perhaps not even primarily) to obtain role-support from other persons, but also as opportunities for enactments

[55] Ibid., pp. 70-71. [56] Ibid., p. 72.

of whole intrinsic gratifications he may enjoy and through which he can give himself role-support from his more richly elaborated perspectives.[57]

In summary, the role behavior of an individual in a particular position in a social system is related to how he perceives the norms, goals, and expectations of the system, his identity, and the expectations of others of the system in relation to it. Certain sets of behaviors will be perceived and identified as part of a specific role; and individuals occupying certain positions in a social structure will expect to and be expected by others to carry out certain consistent sets of behavior identified with this position or role.

Summary

In this chapter we have briefly reviewed the theoretical constructs in role theory which may be utilized to study ambiguity in the professional role. Role ambiguity, role acceptance, role consensus, and the ideal role of self are the concepts which furnish the theoretical foundations of the study, and the implications of these concepts for overseas organizational environments have been explained.

The categories of the ideal role will be described in the following chapter. The general and research hypotheses in Chapter III and IV will relate to these theoretical discussions.

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[57] *Ibid.*, p. 75.

CHAPTER III

THE PROBLEM RESTATED AND FORMULATION OF GENERAL HYPOTHESES

The Problem Restated

The overseas professional works in a diverse field where many professional groups combine their skills and knowledge for the development of a subject country. The role of the A.I.D. advisor in U.S. technical assistance has been difficult to define. Job descriptions are heavily laden with such terms as "negotiation," "planning policy," "implementation," "advisor," "trainer," and others. A person often has ambiguous perception about these terms implied in an actual situation in which the individual has to perform his role.

A review of literature suggests that ambiguity in professional role comes from various sources, such as a lack of information in a role set, a discrepancy between an expected role and an actual role, and status incongruency. It is also suggested that low degree of acceptance of one's role by others and low consensus on expectations increase ambiguity of the professional role and *vice versa*. Thus, the degree of role ambiguity may lead to the degree

of satisfaction and performance with a given overseas assignment.

One significant problem, therefore, is that of coordinating the team efforts of these various professional persons in the promotion of project goals. In order to do this, a person must be able to detach himself somewhat from the ambiguity to seek resolution of the ambiguities in relation to the total organizational context.

For our purpose, we are not arguing that ambiguity should be eliminated in an organization, but rather we consider ambiguity an inevitable phenomenon in complex organizations. Specifically, an organization demands considerable tolerance of ambiguity from the individuals and has the responsibility of doing something about ambiguity, for example, providing more information concerning the situation and setting up a flexible structure for the professionals.

On the other hand, since people have different perceptions and develop different identities, professionals tend to have different degrees of ambiguity, which in turn affects the degree of satisfaction and performance with their overseas assignments.

Among the professional groups working in the overseas operation, the different occupational specialties (in this study, Agriculture, Education, Engineering, and Social Science) often work together in a team

relationship. In the different areas of world services, they have contact with the host professionals who have different expectations derived from their professional and cultural backgrounds. Thus, a comparison of these four professional specialties in the areas of world service should provide significant information about the perceptual differences of the professionals' roles and their affects on satisfactory performance overseas.

The Ideal Role Classifications

From a functional standpoint of technical assistance, Ohly suggested two categories of overseas technical advisors: performance technical assistance and communication technical assistance. Ohly's definition of these categories is as follows:

> Performance technical assistance . . . involves the actual performance in another country by an American technician of a task which the local people lack the skills to perform. The technician fills an operational vacuum in the host country. He employs his professional or technical skills to compensate for the absence of such skills locally.
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> Communication technical assistance . . . is designed to communicate information, skills, values, attitudes or patterns of behavior to the peoples of another society and . . . if successfully carries out, will result in an improvement in the individual and institutional capabilities of the recipients.[1]

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[1]John Ohly, "Planning Future Joint Programs," Human Organization, XXI, No. 2 (Summer, 1962), pp. 139-140; also see Francis C. Byrnes, "Assignment to Ambiguity: Work Performance in Cross-Cultural Technical Assistance," Human Organization, Vol. XXIII, No. 3 (Fall, 1964), pp. 196-209.

These two categories simply describe the types of work which the individual carries out; therefore, it is useful that we classify the prescribed functions of technical assistance. But the author does not consider how the individual perceives his role which he identifies as an ideal role of professional occupation in the situation.

In this study, we suggest two categories of the ideal role: One is technical competence; the other is interpersonal competence. The ideal role hinges on the assumption that the role perception is constantly shifting from technical competence to interpersonal competence and vice-versa, or a person may perceive both technical and interpersonal competence. Another assumption is the general understanding that professional persons tend to be more technically competent than interpersonally competent.

A professional is usually characterized as a person who has received technical training to achieve recognized occupational competence. The more professional training an employee has acquired, the more he will possess and demand skills which require discretion. Professional training improves technical competence. In a sense, it creates technical and discretionary skills and, at the same time, develops professional values in the organization.[2]

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[2]Mark Abrahamson (ed.), The Professional in the Organization (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1967); Gerald D. Bell, "Formality versus Flexibility in Complex Organizations," in Gerald D. Bell (ed.), Organization and

Argyris sees that technical competence deals with things and ideas, interpersonal competence with people.[3] Of course, they are interrelated and extremely important. He is mainly concerned with the assumption that interpersonal values and resultant behavioral styles may influence the task-performance and may lead to organizational effectiveness in an organizational setting. He also hypothesized that "if individuals are in social systems where they are unable to predict accurately their interpersonal impact upon others, and others' impact upon themselves, they may begin to feel confused."[4]

Effects of interpersonal relationships also lead to acceptance of the individual in the role relationship --a shared feeling of acceptance of the individual as an individual in the professional relationship. This acceptance may be considered as a willingness to allow and help him to be himself in the relationship, to grow as a result of it, and to make the most of his experiences as they

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Human Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), pp. 97-106; Howard M. Vollmer and Donald L. Mills (ed.), Professionalization (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966); William Kornhauser, Scientists in Industry: Conflict and Accommodation (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1962).

[3]Chris Argyris, Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1962).

[4]Ibid., p. 42.

occur for him.[5] Thus, Argyris calls these relationships "authentic relationships" in which an individual enhances his sense of self and other awareness and acceptance in such a way that others can do the same. There is good evidence that the high degree of mutual trust resulting from authentic behaviors is significantly related to group growth[6] and organizational innovation.[7]

Kahn, et al., referred interpersonal relations to the more or less stable pattern of interaction between P* and his role senders and to their orientations toward each other. The patterns of relationships are characterized along seven dimensions: 1) power or ability to influence, 2) respect for expertness or technical competence, 3) trust in the cooperativeness and benevolence of the other, 4) a sense of responsibility for another's welfare, 5) attraction or liking, the bonds of friendship, 6) dependence of one on the other, and 7) the style and content of

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[5]Carl Rogers, "Interpersonal Relationships: U.S.A. 2000," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. IV, No. 3 (July, August, September, 1968), pp. 265-280; also see "The Characteristics of a Helping Relationship," in C. Rogers, On Becoming a Person (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1961).

[6]Jack R. and Lorraine M. Gibb, "Humanistic Elements in Group Growth," in James F. T. Bugental, Challenges in Humanistic Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1967), pp. 161-72.

[7]Chris Argyris, Organization and Innovation (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1965).

*A focal person

communication between P and his associates.[8]

In their role episode model, the kind of pressures exerted by associates upon P depends to some degree upon the nature of relations between them. For example, pressures will be interpreted differently depending on the bonds between P and his role senders. Pressures from trusted associates may arouse less tension than similar pressures from others. And also, the nature of P's reactions to a given experience may be affected by interpersonal relations in the situation. For example, some kinds of coping responses like overt aggression may be virtually ruled out when the pressures are exerted by P's supervisor. Furthermore, strong bonds of trust and respect may encourage a shared problem-solving orientation.

It is our view that interpersonal competence creates authentic behaviors between self and others and brings better understanding of problems in the situation. The interpersonal competence of the individual may also allow a "broader spectrum of thought and action to come into play in combination than either member had by himself."[9] By way of summarizing this discussion of

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[8]R. L. Kahn, et al., Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity (New York: John Wiley, 1964), pp. 32-33.

[9]Warren G. Bennis, Edgar H. Schein, David E. Berlew, and Fred L. Steele, Interpersonal Dynamics: Essays and Readings on Human Interaction (Homewood, Ill.: The Dorsey Press, 1964), p. 548.

interpersonal competence, we assume that the high interpersonal competence in the professional's ideal role is likely associated with low ambiguity in the professional role overseas.

The categories of ideal role adopted for this study are as follows:

A. Technical Competence

1) Demonstration of skills: Ability to show technical knowledge of a local situation and consideration of degree of competence in the application of professional skills to his special subject field.

2) Knowledge of Host Culture: Knowledge of the cultural background of the people and customs underlying developments of the subject country.

3) Organizational and Administrative Skills: Familiarity with the organizational environments and knowledge of administrative practices of his own and host country.

4) Program Knowledge of the Mission and His Own: Familiarity with the scope and purposes of the mission's overall program and its parts. Understanding of the nature of and reasons for the U.S. and local objectives involved in the immediate program of which the professional is a part.

B. Interpersonal Competence

5) Empathy: Ability to interpret the attitudes and intentions of host people, in the accuracy with which he can perceive situations from their standpoint, and thus anticipate and predict their behavior.

6) Autonomy: Ability to be genuinely self-governing in giving and receiving evaluations of self and others; clarity of the individual's conception of self identity;

degree to which he is self-directed and self-controlled in his actions; his confidence in and reliance upon himself.

7) Communicating Ideas: Capacity to communicate his knowledge and thoughts with the host people through a valid feedback process.

8) Development of Trust among People: Establishment of confident relationship with the mission colleagues and host professionals (to the degree that trust is present, people are able to communicate with themselves and others to form consensual goals; to the degree that trust is present, people can be truly interdependent).

Further illustration of the above role categories will be presented in the Chapter of Research Findings giving an example of the typical answer for each.

Formulation of General Hypotheses

This study will be designed on the assumption that where the professional role is highly ambiguous, a professional is not likely to expect high role performance, nor is he likely to derive much personal satisfaction from his experience. If our study disapproves the assumption, the alternative assumptions about ambiguity in the professional role will still be discussed in role typology in the end of the dissertation for suggestions for further study.

Since the U.S.C. research project was an exploratory study at the beginning and consists of multiple dimensions, we will try to find out what kinds of values

and attitudes are associated with role ambiguity for the overseas professional. On the basis of studies of role-identity, it is assumed that there is an identity of individual attitudes and values related to occupational role. Therefore, a professional specialist would perceive his own role more clearly than other professional specialists would perceive that role. And a professional in one particular area of the world would perceive his own role more clearly than other professionals in different culture areas would perceive that role.

Thus, in order to establish that different perceptions of a given professional role are not related to confusion within the profession itself and within a particular culture, the following hypothesis has been developed:

> General Hypothesis I: A professional has a perception of the ideal role of his professional specialty different from that of professionals in other specialties.

The following two general hypotheses are concerned with ambiguity in the professional role:

> General Hypothesis II: There should be significant factors contributing to ambiguity in the overseas professional role and its relations to role performance.

> General Hypothesis III: Personal background, occupational values, attitudes, and actual job descriptions overseas condition ambiguity, as well as having effects on personal satisfaction and performance.

The General Hypotheses set forth above serve to

establish boundaries for the present study and act as vehicles to bring the body of role theory to bear upon the study. The Research Hypotheses in Chapter IV are designed to be tested in this study.

CHAPTER IV

THE RESEARCH PROCEDURE

Operational Definitions of Research Hypotheses

This study was undertaken on the basis of the theoretical assumption that where there is high ambiguity in the professional overseas role, an individual is likely to have low satisfaction with his experience and, consequently low role performance. To determine that such ambiguity in the person's perceptions of his professional role is directly related to personal satisfaction and performance, the following relationships need to be established:

1) that a professional in a discipline perceives his own role more clearly than others perceive it;

2) that the professional's self-perceived ideal roles are directly related to other dimensions of role-ambiguity in the professional role;

3) that there are significant relationships between role-ambiguity and personal satisfaction and performance overseas.

The disposition of our main assumption can be viewed as several hypotheses and closely analyzed in this study.[1] In a hypothetical construct, the above mentioned

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[1]Hans L. Zetterberg, On Theory and Verification in Sociology (Totowa, N.J.: Bedminister Press, 1965).

relationships will be stated and discussed in the following discussions.

Professional Disciplines and the Area of World Services

On the basis of studies of role theory, it is assumed that there is identity of attitudes and values related to an occupational role, and that, therefore, a professional specialist would perceive that role. Thus, in order to establish that different perceptions of a given professional role are not related to confusion within the profession itself or within the area of world service, the following research hypotheses were developed:

> Research Hypothesis I: Each professional discipline has a different perception about the ideal role for its specialty overseas than other disciplines perceive that role.
>
> Research Hypothesis II: Professionals in a particular area of world service have different perceptions about the ideal role for their specialty than others in different areas of world services perceive that role.

In modern organization theory, as Argyris pointed out, there are two major needs required by the organization and provided by its members, in order to maintain itself and accomplish its effectiveness. These are called technical and interpersonal competences. The role of each professional worker is based on his training as a professional person--his expectations of what his

professional role is--and upon the expectations that others in the role relationship have of what his role should be. Thus, we consider that the professional's perception about the ideal role is significant in determining his role performance. Operationally, the above two hypotheses examine the degree of role perception of the professionals in four professional disciplines in our sample.

We can also expect that there is lack of consensus on the role of professionals not only between persons in one specialty and other disciplines, but also among the professionals themselves in different organizational environments. Habenstein and Christ point out that there are different types of role perceptions which professional nurses have toward their work, the great division being between the "professionalizer" and the "traditionalizer."[2] The professionalizer they characterize as the nurse who is impersonal with patients and willingly assumes administrative and supervisory duties placing her emphasis on intelligence and technical ability, while the traditionalizer stresses the importance of patience and kindness with patients and is less interested in nursing's technical aspects.

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[2]R. A. Habenstein and E. A. Christ, Professionalizer, Traditionalizer, and Utilizer (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1955).

Dimension of Role Ambiguity

We have assumed that ambiguity in the professional role may come from the different perceptions of role variables, the ideal-role, role consensus, role acceptance, and ambiguity in assignment. Thus, the following research hypotheses are considered for testing the role-ambiguity items in relation to personal satisfaction and performance:

The Ideal Role:

Research Hypothesis III: Professionals who perceive high interpersonal competence are more significantly related to personal satisfaction and high evaluation of performance than those who perceive technical competence.

The Ideal Role and Its Relations to Role Acceptance, Role Consensus, and Uncertainty in Work Assignment:

Research Hypothesis IIIa: When there is more interpersonal competence, the individual role is more likely to be accepted by others in the role relationship.

Research Hypothesis IIIb: Where there is more interpersonal competence, the individual role is more likely to have high role consensus by others.

Research Hypothesis IIIc: For overseas professionals, high technical competence in the ideal role is directly related to high uncertainty in professional work assignment.

Role Acceptance, Role Consensus, and Uncertainty in Work Assignment:

Research Hypothesis IV: There are significant differences between degree of role acceptance and degrees of personal satisfactions and performance overseas.

Research Hypothesis V: There are significant differences between role consensus and personal satisfactions and performance.

Research Hypothesis VI: Uncertainty in professional assignment overseas is significantly related to personal satisfaction and performance.

If Hypotheses I and II were confirmed, the findings would demonstrate the perceptual differences among the specialties as well as among professionals in the different areas of world services; and it would show that the perceptions on the ideal role of the four disciplines differ in the proportions of technical and interpersonal competencies. Operationally, this means that the Education specialist will perceive itself at a higher degree of interpersonal competence than the specialists of Agriculture, Engineering, and Social Science; Agriculture and Engineering will emphasize more of technical competence than Education and Social Science. To test the two hypotheses, the categories of the ideal role and other role variables are used.

A confirmation of Hypothesis III would indicate that there will be significant relationships between the ideal role and personal satisfaction and performance.

If Hypotheses IIIa through IIIc were logically confirmed and established, those respondents who perceive high interpersonal competence will have high degrees of role acceptance, role consensus, and a low degree of

ambiguity in their professional assignment overseas.

Operationally, Hypotheses IV, V, and VI mean that there will be significant differences between role acceptance, role consensus, and uncertainty in assignment with personal satisfaction and performance.

Therefore, if our hypotheses are logically confirmed, the relationship between the role-ambiguity items in the professional role and personal satisfaction and performance, including ratings by AID supervisors, is likely to be approved.

Factors in Overseas Role Performance

Since the previous research hypotheses contain many items in relations to role-ambiguity and personal satisfaction and performance, it is also assumed here that a given role performance may be efficiently described in terms of a relatively small number of contributing factors. We hoped that the following research hypotheses could be rejected or accepted in a factorial analysis:

> Research Hypothesis VII: There is a set of role variables, factorially pure, that relate with ambiguity in the professional role.
>
> Research Hypothesis VIII: There is a set of role variables correlated with personal evaluation of role performance overseas, as well as in relation to AID overall supervisor's rating of performance effectiveness.

There are no standardized instruments or criteria for measuring role performance in role theory. This is

not only one of the central problems of overseas performance, but also a main problem existing in behavioral science research. Thus, in order to develop such an instrument, we have collected a relatively large number of variables in terms of which overseas performance could be measured.

Mann has examined factors concerned with role performance of male undergraduates at New York University Heights College.[3] A role performance is assumed to be not merely a physical act, but to contain a mixture of thoughts, feelings, and actions in a particular unique combination which, taken together, define the performance, seen from without as an action, and from within as a series of thoughts and feelings.[4] This study adopts the 68 items and analyzes a series of descriptions of individual's interactions with a variety of significant others, using P-technique factor analysis. However, no specific hypotheses are tested nor are the various possible relations between the variables.

Another interesting study using factor analysis has been done by Ezekiel in measuring fictional autobiographies of 42 Peace Corps volunteers related to

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[3] John H. Mann, "Studies of Role Performance," Genetic Psychology Monographs, Vol. LXIV (November, 1961), pp. 217-307.

[4] Ibid., pp. 220-221.

overseas performance.[5] Fictional autobiographies of the personal future are scored for differentiation (complex, detailed mapping of the future), demand (description of a life perceived by the respondent to demand long-term, continuing effort), and agency (description of the future self as prime agent in determining the course of the future life). The research findings indicate that autobiography dimensions relate significantly and positively to four different criteria of overseas performance: ratings by supervisors in the field, peer nominations, and item and factor analyses of Q sorts are based on extensive field interviews.

In our study, testing the above hypotheses, we hope that some useful conceptual factors based on a statistical test will be identified as significant criteria which are comprehensive in meaning and are recommendable as useful factors for overseas role performance.

Dimensions for the Study

Six major areas of research dimensions are considered in the present study: role ambiguity, occupational values, personal descriptive, attitudinal

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[5]Raphael S. Ezekiel, "The Personal Future and Peace Corps Competence," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Monograph Supplement, Vol. VIII, No. 2, Part 2 (February, 1968).

dimensions, job descriptive and job rating dimensions by supervisors.

Dimensions of role ambiguity consist of ambiguity in assignment, acceptance of role by others, role consensus, and the ideal role categories which represent eight variables. Personal descriptive data include age, education, professional experience in technical assistance, time in A.I.D., etc. Twelve specific values of occupation have been selected from the study of the Brookings Institution by Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings.[6] Attitudes toward the overseas experience include reasons for accepting overseas assignment, attitude toward the counterpart organization, reactions to the host country people and culture, interpersonal relationships, reactions to overseas organizational environments, professional gratification, and career development, etc. AID personal performance ratings include eleven personal qualities, fourteen performance characteristics, and one overall rating item. The following list the research dimensions:

1. Dimensions of Ambiguity in the Professional Role

   The Ideal Role Categories: Demonstration of Skills, Knowledge of Host Culture, Organizational and Administrative Knowledge, Program Knowledge, Autonomy, Empathy, Communicating Ideas, and Trust.

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[6]Franklin P. Kilpatrick, Milton C. Cummings, Jr., and Kent M. Jennings, Source Book of a Study of Occupational Values and the Image of the Federal Service (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1964).

Role Acceptance
Role Consensus
Uncertainty in professional assignment

2. Dimensions of Personal Descriptive Data

Age	Rank
Education	Political Party
Political Philosophy	Professional Disciplines
Time in Federal Gov't.	Time in AID
Travel Experience	Experience in Developing Areas
Area of R's World Service	Professional membership
Experience in Developing Areas	Year Returned from Subject Country
Time in Subject Country	
Professional Experience in t.a.	Size of Mission
Prior t.a. Experience	Accompanied by children
Interest in Subject Country	Total months overseas

3. Occupational Values

Occupational Involvement	Financial Reward
Status	Personal Relationships
Striving/Competiveness	Avenues to Success
Altruistic Social Goals	Personal/Ego-Oriented
Challenge	Self Determination
Obligation	Puritan/Calvinist

4. Attitudinal Dimensions

Motivations for Going Overseas	Interest in Public Affairs
Orientation	Perception of Host Government
Criticized Pol./Ad've. System	Cultural Accommodation
Gov't. Role Involvement	Counterpart Organization Helpful
Language Competence	
Counterpart Relationship	
Praise of Colleagues	Criticism of Colleagues
Interpersonal Relationship	
Pro-management	Excessive Bureaucracy
Professional Gratification	
Recommends Change	Career Development

5. Actual Job Description Overseas

Interacted with High Officials
Participated in Program Planning
Participated in Policy Planning
Participated in Program Implementation
Was Negotiator/Intermediary
Manager, Supervisor, Overviewer
Was Teacher, Trainer
Work "Appears Important"
Work "Appears New In Country"

6. Criteria of Personal Satisfactions and Performance

Satisfaction with Family Environment
Satisfaction with Host People
Satisfaction with Social Life
Satisfaction with Rank and Status
Satisfaction with Professional Colleagues
Satisfaction with Discretion in Professional Work
Satisfaction with Overall Supervision
Satisfaction with Management
Satisfaction with Own Achievement
Job Rating on Self-Anchoring Scale
Project was Successful/Appropriate

7. A.I.D. Personnel Ratings

Industry
Judgment
Adaptability
Forcefulness and Decisiveness
Cooperativeness
Conduct and Good Manners

Dependability
Initiative and Resourcefulness
Tactfulness and Patience

Ability to get along with Local Citizens
Ability to get along with American Associates

Technical Competence
Effectiveness in Technical Advice
Knowledge of AID Practices
Insight into Objectives of Own Program
Knowledge and Understanding of Overall Program
Productivity
Thoroughness and Accuracy of Work
Power and Accuracy of Observation
Effectiveness of Written Expression
Negotiating Ability

Effectiveness of Oral Expression
Effectiveness as Supervisor and Managerial Effectiveness
Security Consciousness

Overall Rating of Performance Effectiveness

Statistical Analysis

To provide an adequate test of the research hypotheses, it was necessary to use two major statistical methods. First, the Chi-square test was selected as being most appropriate to the analysis, because our data reduction became necessary to combine the data of two or more related cells, in order to conform to the demands of the test that, when there is more than one degree of freedom, not more than 20 per cent of the cells can have fewer than five cases.

This statistical test is used for testing the research Hypotheses I through VI. One of the major assumptions of Chi-square analysis is that the events or responses being categorized are not interdependent.[7] Thus the Chi-square test is used to test the hypothesis that two or more subsamples differ in respect to some characteristic (e.g., that the percentages in a two-dimensional table differ). For example, we might test whether two

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[7]Don Lewis and C. J. Burke, "The Use and Misuse of the Chi-square Test," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. XLVI, No. 6 (November, 1949), pp. 433-489; and see Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956).

professional disciplines differ in their high or low attitude scale on management, or we might test whether the age groups differ in the frequency with which they choose overseas career development, etc.

In this study, a value of Chi-square will be considered significant only when it equals or exceeds the .05 level of significance. This means that at the .05 level of confidence for the 2 x 2 table, the size of Chi-square value is equal or exceeds 3.841 in the table of critical values. Using the Chi-square argument for the table, it would be expected that if the data support the hypothesis, the frequencies in the four cells (e.g., 2 x 2 table) will differ significantly from chance. This would permit rejection of the null hypothesis.

For testing research Hypotheses VII and VIII, a varimax factor analysis is used to reduce the dimensions scattered through role ambiguity and performance items. Broadly speaking, a factor analysis helps us to clarify the fundamental nature of the variables and the relationships between them.[8] A varimax method is one of analytical methods which yield rotated solutions on orthogonal axes; and, therefore, it gives a rotational solution which is usually closer to the simple structure criterion

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[8]Harry H. Harman, Modern Factor Analysis (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1967); and D. N. Lawley and A. E. Maxwell, Factor Analysis as a Statistical Method (London: Butterworths, 1963).

of multiple factor analysis than does the quartimax method.

Thus, the aim is to simplify the columns (factors) of the factor matrix as well as the rows (variables) while the quartimax criterion will often give a general factor.[9] Therefore, the varimax rotation analysis is adopted for this study.

Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaire designed for Agency employees is 46 pages long, excluding biographical information. In the Spring of 1964, a two-man team conducted interviews of 3 to 4 hours each. Nearly fourteen hundred separate variables properly coded by a trained research team at Ann Arbor, Michigan, were transferred on 23 IBM cards per each respondent. An analysis of the mass data required application of a huge modern computer for handling various programs for reducing the data into manageable size through several stages of data reduction, as well as requiring great amounts of researchers' efforts. The dimensional information is now contained on three punch cards per person.

Process of Obtaining Dimensional Data

The process of obtaining dimensional data can be

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[9]Henry F. Kaiser, "The Varimax Criterion for Analytic Rotation in Factor Analysis," Psychometrika, Vol. XXIII (1958), pp. 187-200.

explained in terms of three broad phases of work. First, the data reduction involved an elimination of low-N and marginal items, plus consolidation of other data, which left 639 variables pertinent to research objectives. For example, when there were two or three persons in a category of "No Answer" or "Don't Know," this information was eliminated from the scoring process.

The second phase involved a selection of major items of a dimension according to correlation tables and development of scores of respondent on that dimension. The respondents with high scores on the dimension were compared with low-scored respondents. The dimensional score was computed in the following manner. For each item, if a respondent answered as being in "high agreement" with the item, he was given a score of one. On the other hand, if his answer was low on the scale, he was given a score of zero. Thus, the dimensional score for each respondent was computed by his answering pattern. After computing the frequency distribution of all items of the total respondents on a dimension, the scales of "high-low" or "high-medium-low" were determined by the cutting points, which were carefully considered by the research team.

The total professional gratification score for the 169 respondents, for example, could be interpreted as in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2

PROFESSIONAL GRATIFICATION SCALE

Item No.	Item	Score
1.	Sense of achievement, accomplishment	1(yes)
2.	Recognition for work	1(yes)
3.	Interest, enjoyment, satisfaction	1(yes)
4.	Self-development	1(yes)
5.	Self-determination	1(yes)
6.	Self-expression and creativity	1(yes)
.		.
.		.
.		.
18.	My job overseas presented little professional challenge	1(no)

$\bar{X}$=6.621 Total score 18

Professional Gratification:	N	%
Low: score 1 - 5	54	32
Medium: score 6 - 8	84	50
High: score 9 - 18	31	18
	169	100

However, while single-item dimensions remained in their discrete form, dichotomies were formed by using appropriate cutting points of the frequency distribution. Through these means of scoring and computation, 91 seemingly relevant dimensions were identified. Each respondent was categorized as "low" or "high" on most of these dimensions, while on some scales were used to reveal a central group ("medium") on the scale.

The third phase was concerned with the scoring process of the personnel ratings supplied by AID. We received three different types of rating forms due to

slight changes in rating variables: ICA and AID administered three different rating-forms prior to 1965.[10] Even though there were minor variations among three forms, we were able to sort out 25 items which formed common dimensions for measuring personal qualities and performance factors. This meant that we had to ignore some of the items which did not appear in the latter form.

The rating forms were essentially designed for five rating scales as indicated in the following:

Level 1: In many important respects fails to meet requirements; unsatisfactory.

Level 2: Meets most requirements but is deficient in certain important respects; marginal.

Level 3: Clearly meets basic requirements; satisfactory.

Level 4: Clearly exceeds basic requirements in most respects; superior.

Level 5: Far exceeds basic requirements in all important respects and has no significant weaknesses; outstanding.

During the rating period overseas, the supervisor also had an obligation to provide an overall evaluation of employee performance.

According to total distribution of score, each

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[10]Although new current rating form since 1965 listed 26 variables which are not very different from the previous ones, rating scales have been varied according to the items, i.e., 3-5 levels. For South Vietnam, AID is administering a new experimental rating form included only 5 items.

respondent was scored as low range (score of one), middle range (score of 2 or 3), or high range (4 or 5) on each of the twenty-five rating items. For example, when a respondent received a rating of level 1 or 2 on adaptability item, he was classified as a score of one on that dimension and labeled "low" adaptability.

Additional Data Collection

Since the major concern of this dissertation focuses on role variables, additional data-analysis has also been initially considered. This is a coding of the respondents' answer on the ideal-role question:

> Many opinions exist in this country concerning the role that American professionals like yourself should assume overseas in technical assistance. We would like you to consider your own field and tell us what you think a professional in your field should do overseas--in other words, what his role should be.

Eight broad categories of the ideal role have been selected in order to examine whether a person perceives technical competence (where demonstration of skills, knowledge about host culture, understanding of administrative and organizational practices, and program knowledge are most important in carrying out the overseas assignment) or, predominantly interpersonal competence (where those abilities of empathy, autonomy, communicating ideas, and trust between individual interactions are most important in performing the assignment).

To ensure that a professional discipline was not

biased in judging items as technical or interpersonal, the respondents in a particular discipline were mixed with other disciplines. In order to increase reliability of our test, coding has been repeated three times and the sequence of respondents' questionnaires had been rearranged in each coding process. According to the consistent pattern of codings, a respondent's answer on an appropriate ideal role has been categorized. For example, if a person mentioned demonstration of skill and trust as the appropriate role for overseas assignment, scores were given for both categories.

Computer Programs for Data Analysis

This study, as well as the U.S.C. technical assistance project, used a Honeywell 800 computer at U.S.C.'s Computer Sciences Laboratory, which was most useful in our data analysis. While we adopted many packaged programs, we frequently had to use new programs, with the assistance of the computer programers at the Center. Among the packaged programs, three programs were used for much of our analysis. First, the High Low Search Program was used to obtain the number of times each variable fell within the given acceptability limits; the means, standard deviations, extreme values, and percentage or frequency distribution of the data. Second, the Two-Way Table Program was used for creating two-way variable frequency distribution tables.

For each requested table the program prints the table of cell frequencies, percentages of row-totals, column-totals, and over-all totals, chi-square value, and degrees of freedom of the frequency table. Third, for computing scores, a data listing program and a grouping program were adopted for listing the data and creating the subfiles. And also, the transformation restriction statement and numerous other instructions were very efficient for the process of data reduction.

A program for "Goodness of Fit Test" was very useful in an analysis of occupational values comparing our data with the frequency distributions of the study of Brookings Institution.

A varimax factor analysis, the final statistical analysis for this dissertation, was adopted from Veldman's book, Fortran Programming for the Behavioral Sciences.[11] His program has been modified to some extent for the Honeywell 800.[12] This program consists of 11 subroutines which provide the R matrix (intercorrelations), vectors of means and sigmas in X and Y, a factor analysis, extration of the roots and vectors (loadings) from the R matrix, the principal-axis factor-score weights, and Varimax

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[11]Donald J. Veldman, Fortran Programming for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967).

[12]The author thanks Ann Strong for modification of the program.

rotation. In Varimax rotation of the principal axes, a researcher can have a series of options for obtaining the Varimax-loading matrix, the V weight matrix, or Varimax-rotated factor scores.

The Sample

The sample used in this study was the same population from which AID respondents in the U.S.C. study were drawn. The 160 AID respondents were selected from four professional disciplines: Agriculture (44), Education (45), Engineering (37), and Social Science (43). Thus, one of the major concerns of this study is concerned with different perceptions of professional role among these four disciplines in overseas assignment.

An age distribution of the sample was divided into two groups: 136 people under age 45 and 33 people over age 45. Overseas professionals were highly educated and maintained high professional experiences. These are reflected in Table 3.

The level of education was very high, even though they were less educated proportionally when compared with Academic professionals.[13] The more educated group includes more persons from the Education and Social Science

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[13]William B. Storm and Jason L. Finkle, American Professionals in Technical Assistance: A Preliminary Report (Los Angeles: School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, 1965), pp. 70-71.

disciplines, while the Engineer group was less educated. Rank status was divided into half of the sample. Eighty-five people obtained such rank as mission chief, program director, controller, or division chief, while the rest of the sample were identified as technicians. According to our data, 74 per cent of the Social Scientists were classified as persons with the former rankings above in overseas position.

In their political identifications, a higher percentage of Social Science and Education respondents were conservative and Republican. Eighty-nine per cent of the Education respondents and seventy-two per cent of the Social Science respondents indicated that they had been working for the federal government for more than 20 years. The Engineering and Social Science groups had returned from their subject country more recently than the other two groups. As for time in the field, the Agriculture group stayed longer in the subject country, 64 per cent over 27 months.

There were also some similarities among our sample. In the area of professional experience, 86 per cent of the respondents had not only had more than three professional experiences in technical assistance overseas, but also about the same proportion of people had had one or two experiences in developing countries during their military

TABLE 3

PERSONAL BACKGROUND OF AID ADVISORS BY PROFESSIONAL DISCIPLINES

		Professional Discipline					
		AG(N=44)	ED(N=45)	EN(N=37)	SS(N=43)	Tot(N=169)	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Age	Over 45	7(16)	7(16)	6(16)	13(30)	33(20)	X^2=4.213
	Under 45	37(84)	38(84)	31(84)	30(70)	136(80)	N.S.
Education	Bachelors	19(43)	5(11)	25(68)	17(40)	66(39)	X^2=27.720
	Masters & Doctors	25(57)	40(89)	12(32)	26(60)	103(61)	p=.001
Rank & Status							
	Technicians	24(54)	27(60)	22(60)	11(26)	84(50)	X^2=13.738
	Person with Rank	20(46)	18(40)	15(40)	32(74)	85(50)	p=.005
Political Party							
	Closer to Dem.	24(54)	16(34)	23(62)	13(30)	76(45)	X^2=11.435
	Closer to Rep.	20(46)	29(64)	14(38)	30(70)	93(55)	p=.01
Political Philosophy							
	Liberal	13(46)	7(24)	11(46)	3(10)	34(31)	X^2=12.484
	Conservative	15(54)	22(76)	13(54)	27(90)	77(69)	p=.01
Time in Federal Government							
	20 yrs. or more	21(48	40(89)	24(65)	31(65)	116(72)	X^2=17.994
	Less than 20 yrs.	23(52)	5(11)	13(35)	12(35)	53(28)	p=.001

TABLE 3 (Continued)

	Professional Discipline					
	AG(N=44)	ED(N=45)	EN(N=37)	SS(N=43)	Tot(N=169)	X^2
	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Experience in Developing Areas						
No experience	7(16)	7(15)	4(11)	6(14)	24(14)	X^2=7.638
Some experience	25(57)	35(78)	25(67)	30(70)	115(68)	
More experience	12(27)	3(7)	8(22)	7(16)	30(18)	N.S.
Year Returned from Subject Country						
1963/1964	10(23)	19(42)	20(54)	25(58)	74(44)	X^2=13.156
Prior to 1962	34(77)	26(58)	17(46)	18(42)	95(56)	p=.01
Time on Subject Experience						
Over 27 months	28(64)	20(44)	16(43)	15(35)	79(47)	X^2=7.751
7-26 months	16(36)	25(56)	21(57)	28(65)	90(53)	p=.05
Professional Experience in T.A.						
More than 3 exp.	38(86)	40(89)	31(84)	37(86)	146(86)	X^2=.457
1-2 exp.	6(14)	5(11)	6(16)	6(14)	23(14)	N.S.
Prior Visit to Subject Country						
Had visited	34(77)	33(73)	27(73)	32(74)	126(75)	X^2=.256
Had not visited	10(23)	12(27)	10(27)	11(26)	43(25)	N.S.

service or since World War II. Another interesting feature of our sample is that the 75 per cent of the advisors were exposed to developing countries prior to subject assignment while only 25 per cent had not previously visited the subject country.

Summary

This chapter has stated the research hypotheses concerning the perceptions of the professional role, role ambiguity and role performance of the study's 169 AID advisors, who are divided into four professional disciplines. The chapter has illustrated the development of scales and dimensions for the research, plus the manner in which the various instruments for data analysis were developed and used.

The next chapter presents the research findings.

CHAPTER V

THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Perceptual Differences Among Four Professional Disciplines

Our first hypothesis is that members of a professional discipline would perceive their role differently from members of other professional disciplines. The data reveal that different perceptions are associated with some of the ideal role categories. Only two items indicate the hypothesized relationship, and another two items are quite near to the level of significance.

Table 4 shows that Social Scientists (74%) identified their roles more in terms of organization and administrative skills, while the Agriculture group (23%) emphasized this role less. Some typical responses of the Social Scientists in describing their "appropriate role" are as follows:

> "Be the best administrator possible because program and staff is very large in Thailand."
>
> "Must have sense of organizational cooperation and friendly relationship with fellow employees within the mission in performing the functions of his job and the interrelationship of this job with the overall purpose of the mission."
>
> "To provide a program of industrial development, we must provide organizational and technical guidance for these people until they can do job themselves.

TABLE 4

PERCEPTUAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ROLE CATEGORIES AND THE PROFESSIONAL DISCIPLINES

Ideal Role Categories		Professional Disciplines					
		AG	ED	EN	S/S	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Technical Competence:							
Demonstration of Skills							
	Low	20(46)	25(56)	13(35)	32(74)	90(53)	X^2=13.788
	High	24(54)	20(44)	24(65)	11(26)	79(47)	p=.01
Knowledge of Host Culture							
	Low	34(77)	29(64)	30(81)	32(74)	125(74)	X^2=3.346
	High	10(23)	16(36)	7(19)	11(26)	44(26)	N.S.
Organizational & Administrative Knowlege							
	Low	34(77)	23(51)	23(62)	11(26)	91(54)	X^2=24.704
	High	10(23)	22(49)	14(38)	32(74)	78(46)	p=.001
Program Knowledge							
	Low	25(57)	27(60)	24(65)	19(44)	95(56)	X^2=3.921
	High	19(43)	18(40)	13(35)	24(56)	74(44)	N.S.
Interpersonal Competence:							
Empathy	Low	32(73)	21(47)	25(68)	24(56)	102(60)	X^2=7.514
	High	12(27)	24(53)	12(32)	19(44)	67(40)	N.S. (near .05)

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Ideal Role Categories		Professional Disciplines					
		AG	ED	EN	S/S	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Interpersonal Competence (Continued):							
Autonomy							
	Low	28(64)	30(68)	19(68)	33(77)	110(66)	X^2=5.889
	High	16(36)	14(32)	18(49)	10(23)	53(34)	N.S.
Communicating Ideas							
	Low	11(25)	10(22)	5(14)	11(26)	37(22)	X^2=2.113
	High	33(75)	35(78)	32(86)	32(74)	132(78)	N.S.
Trust							
	Low	30(68)	30(67)	27(73)	34(79)	121(72)	X^2=2.006
	High	14(32)	15(33)	10(27)	9(21)	48(28)	N.S.

AG - Agriculture
ED - Education
EN - Engineering
S/S - Social Science

And we have to give them direction and administer the program."

"In a large country like India, one must be well organized then well sold, requiring cooperation of hosts."

Since a high proportion of Social Scientists were identified with supervisorial positions, it is reasonable to expect our data to show that Social Scientists are perceiving a high degree of organizational and administrative abilities. Although statistically the null hypothesis cannot be rejected for the program knowledge distribution, the frequency distribution of that role category which bears directly on the hypothesized relation--high program knowledge with Social Scientists--does slightly support the hypothesis.

The distribution of demonstration of skills clearly proves that the Engineers (65%) perceive their ideal role as demonstration of skills, in comparison with only 11 per cent of Social Scientists. Agriculture (54%) was the second group that emphasized this role. Some interesting observations of the Engineers can be subsumed as follows:

"Once the project is approved, you help and guide the implementation. Show them how to maintain it and operate it."

"There must be a matching of professional job requirement and individual abilities, so that a technician isn't put into the position of admitting he doesn't know. In other words, if he doesn't have technical knowledge, he loses his face."

"When you demonstrate your skill in competence, you can influence the host nationals."

On the role of empathy, Education (53%) and Social Science (44%) proved to be high on this category, while Engineers (only 12%) and Agriculture (27%) had low emphasis.

The views on empathy role are very sensitive:

"Overseas advisors should have enough perceptual skill to recognize the situations and the problems of the host people, and then must select the most logical course to pursue for attainment of long term objectives." (Education)

"Must be sensitive to feelings of people."

"Put yourself in place of the citizen and consider what would be most acceptable." (Engineer)

"We must observe what they want and what is necessary for them to get to the goals they chose. I did my best to see that these people find their own answers after talking to them. I encouraged my staff to seldom give answers off the top of the head." (Social Scientist)

Although the above mentioned roles show significant differences, there are not significant differences in the rest of the ideal role items. There is a trend, however, indicating that the Education group has relatively high perceptions in an understanding of culture and in the interpersonal categories. Since the Social Scientists in this sample were involved in the administrative works overseas, there is a suggestion that they are perceiving their role more in organizational and administrative terms, with the considerable emphasis on program

knowledge and empathy.

The Engineering and Agriculture groups tend to perceive their professional role in technical assistance with the demonstration of their skills. The Engineers stress autonomy as one of the significant roles in achieving their overseas assignment.

Table 5 shows that there is a significant difference between role consensus and the professional disciplines. The Education group (64%) indicates that they had high role consensus among mission director, colleagues in mission, counterparts, and host government personnel, while the Social Scientists (39%) proved to have had least consensus. The data also suggest that the majority of the respondents indicate high acceptance of role by others mentioning that people in their professional role relationship thought the things they did overseas were worthwhile and important.

TABLE 5

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ACCEPTANCE OF ROLE, ROLE CONSENSUS, UNCERTAINTY IN ASSIGNMENT, BY FOUR PROFESSIONAL DISCIPLINES

		Professional Disciplines				
		AG	ED	EN	S/S	Total
		N %	N. %	N %	N %	N %
Acceptance of Role by Others	Low	7(16)	7(16)	3(8)	10(23)	27(16)
	High	37(84)	38(84)	34(92)	33(77)	142(84)
		x^2=3.410	N.S.			
Role Consensus	Low	3(7)	8(18)	2(5)	8(19)	21(12)
	Medium	15(34)	8(18)	15(41)	18(42)	56(33)
	High	26(59)	29(64)	20(54)	17(39)	92(55)
		x^2=12.513	p=.05			
Uncertainty in Assignment	Low	20(45)	19(42)	13(35)	23(54)	75(44)
	Medium	10(23)	14(31)	16(43)	10(23)	50(30)
	High	14(32)	12(27)	8(22)	10(23)	40(26)
		x^2=6.202	N.S.			

Other Findings

Table 6 indicates some of the differences among attitudinal dimensions and job-descriptions by four professional disciplines. The Education groups and Social Scientists expressed significant attitudes of high interest in public affairs. They also tend to have high praise of their colleagues' personal characteristics, cultural and organizational adaptability, professional relationships, etc. Although some items do not show statistically

TABLE 6

DIFFERENCES OF ATTITUDINAL DIMENSIONS AND JOB DESCRIPTIONS, BY PROFESSIONAL DISCIPLINES

		Professional Discipline					
		AG (N=44)	ED (N=45)	EN (N=37)	SS (N=43)	Tot (N=169)	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Attitudinal Dimensions:							
Interest in Public Affairs	Low	13 (30)	9 (20)	13 (35)	4 (9)	39 (23)	X^2=15.787
	Medium	27 (61)	24 (53)	22 (60)	29 (67)	102 (60)	p=.02
	High	4 (9)	12 (27)	2 (5)	10 (23)	28 (17)	
Cultural Accommodation							
	Low	20 (49)	11 (26)	9 (26)	17 (44)	57 (36)	X^2=10.768
	Medium	10 (24)	15 (35)	17 (48)	14 (36)	56 (35)	N.S. (.10)
	High	11 (27)	17 (39)	9 (26)	8 (20)	45 (29)	
Praise of Colleagues							
	Low	16 (36)	7 (16)	22 (60)	13 (30)	58 (34)	
	Medium	20 (46)	25 (55)	12 (32)	16 (37)	73 (43)	X^2=21.211
	High	8 (18)	13 (29)	3 (8)	14 (33)	38 (23)	p=.001
Positive Interpersonal Relationship							
	Low	11 (25)	4 (9)	11 (30)	11 (26)	37 (22)	
	Medium	16 (36)	22 (49)	19 (51)	16 (37)	73 (43)	X^2=10.354
	High	17 (39)	19 (42)	7 (19)	16 (37)	59 (35)	N.S.

TABLE 6 (Continued)

	Professional Discipline					
	AG (N=44)	ED (N=45)	EN (N=37)	SS (N=43)	Tot (N=169)	X^2
	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Attitudinal Dimensions: (Continued)						
Excessive Bureaucracy						
Low	3 (7)	5 (11)	5 (13)	12 (28)	25 (15)	
Medium	26 (59)	30 (67)	22 (60)	25 (58)	103 (61)	X^2=11.509
High	15 (34)	10 (22)	10 (27)	6 (14)	41 (24)	N.S. (near .05)
Career Development						
Low	27 (61)	19 (42)	20 (54)	16 (37)	82 (48)	X^2=6.276
High	17 (39)	26 (58)	17 (46)	27 (63)	87 (52)	N.S. (.10)
Job Descriptions:						
Participated in Program Planning						
Low	25 (57)	22 (49)	27 (73)	22 (51)	96 (57)	X^2=5.649
High	19 (43)	23 (51)	10 (27)	21 (49)	73 (43)	N.S. (near .05)
Program Implementation						
Low	32 (73)	30 (67)	31 (84)	38 (88)	131 (78)	X^2=7.360
High	12 (27)	15 (33)	6 (16)	5 (12)	38 (22)	N.S. (near .05)
Negotiator-Intermediary						
Low	22 (50)	24 (53)	17 (46)	12 (28)	75 (44)	X^2=6.788
High	22 (50)	21 (47)	20 (54)	31 (72)	94 (56)	N.S. (.10)
Work "Appears Important"						
Low	31 (70)	30 (67)	18 (49)	20 (46)	99 (59)	X^2=7.855
High	13 (30)	15 (33)	19 (51)	23 (54)	70 (41)	p=.05

significant differences at the .05 level, the Education respondents express themselves as having a higher proportion of cultural accommodation and positive interpersonal relationships. Furthermore, they went overseas more for professional reasons than the Engineers, who indicate least significance of professional motivation.

The Agriculture and Engineering groups show low interest in public affairs and low praise of their colleagues. Also, on career development, they tend to say that the overseas tour hasn't helped their careers, nor has it changed their careers in any significant way.

In describing job descriptions overseas, the Social Scientists mention their works in relation to the participation in program planning, negotiating and intermediating. They feel their work "appears important" as well as the Engineers. Proportionately, Agriculture and Education seem to be more involved in program implementation of their work.

In addition to the above findings, the Education group indicates the highest satisfaction with the host people among the four professional disciplines. Moreover, they express that the project was successful and appropriate (see Appendix 1).

Summary of Findings

Our first research hypothesis that each professional discipline has different perceptions about its own

role has been supported for all four professional disciplines. Although the statistical differences between the four disciplines on eight ideal role categories were not significant, the percentage trend was in the direction of the research hypothesis. Some illustrations are the following:

1. Agriculturists see themselves more demonstrating skills, and less organizing or administering. They have a high perception of autonomy in their work. They were more involved in program implementation in technical assistance.

2. The Education group seems to be the most distinctive group in relation to the role items and other dimensions. The Educationists see themselves using a higher proportion of knowledge of the host culture and functioning highly in most interpersonal roles. They also feel most highly that they have had role consensus among people in their professional role relationship. The reason for going overseas was identified as a professional motivation. They tend to have better cultural accommodation and positive interpersonal relationship with professional colleagues and host professionals. In addition, the Education group indicates not only high satisfaction from host people, but also shows that the overseas project was successful and appropriate.

3. Engineers tend more than other fields to

perceive the technical assistance role in terms of demonstration of their professional skills. They also stress high autonomy in the professional role.

4. The Social Scientists are more identified with organizational knowledge and administrative practices in the overseas environment. The job descriptions overseas also indicated that social scientists were selected for working in program planning and negotiation. However, our data suggest low role consensus among the Social Scientists, as well as low satisfaction from the host people.

Perceptual Differences by Areas of World Service

Our second research hypothesis is concerned with the perceptions of the professionals in four different areas of world service. Table 7 is a summary of the areas of world service by the professional disciplines.

TABLE 7

PROFESSIONAL DISCIPLINES AND THE AREAS OF WORLD SERVICE

Discipline	Area of World Service				
	AF	LA	FA	NE/SA	Total
	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
Agriculture	11(38)	16(31)	5(11)	10(24)	42(25)
Education	9(31)	13(25)	15(33)	8(20)	45(27)
Engineering	1(3)	23(23)	14(31)	10(24)	37(22)
Social Science	8(28)	11(21)	11(24)	13(32)	43(26)
Total	29(100)	52(100)	45(100)	41(100)	167(100)

AF - Africa
LA - Latin America
FA - Far East
NE/SA - Near East & South Asia

Table 8 shows no significant differences between the ideal role categories and the areas of world service. Thus, the second hypothesis is not supported by our data. Nevertheless, the Far Eastern group was identified proportionately high on the trust item (42%) compared with only 17 per cent of the African group.

Table 8 also suggests that the African team had low role consensus among people in their role relationship, while both Latin America and Far Eastern groups show high role consensus. It is interesting to note that the Latin American group not only felt low acceptance of role by counterpart, mission supervisor, and professional colleagues but also expressed high uncertainty in technical assistance assignment.

Other Findings

Table 9 shows the Latin American group highly dissatisfied with management overseas. Moreover, they are least satisfied with overall supervision. Perhaps for these reasons, they rate their overseas jobs very low on the self-anchoring scale (38%), while 68 per cent of the Far Eastern respondents rate high on this scale.

The African group is dissatisfied with the management and supervision and show low satisfaction with their achievement in the professional work overseas.
The Far Eastern group shows strong satisfaction with

TABLE 8

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ROLE ITEMS AND THE AREAS OF WORLD SERVICE

Role Items		Area of World Service					
		AF	LA	FA	NE/SA	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Role Acceptance							
	Low	4(14)	16(31)	3(7)	4(10)	27(16)	X^2=12.541
	High	25(86)	36(69)	42(93)	37(90)	140(84)	p=.001
Role Consensus							
	Low	9(31)	3(6)	5(11)	4(10)	21(13)	X^2=14.745
	Medium	11(38)	16(31)	13(29)	15(36)	55(33)	
	High	9(31)	33(64)	27(60)	22(54)	91(54)	p=.05
Uncertainty in Assignment	Low	17(59)	16(31)	18(40)	24(58)	75(45)	X^2=12.922
	Medium	5(17)	18(35)	18(40)	8(20)	49(29)	
	High	7(24)	18(35)	9(20)	9(22)	43(26)	p=.05
Ideal Role*							
Trust	Low	24(83)	39(75)	26(58)	31(76)	120(72)	X^2=6.655
	High	5(17)	13(25)	19(42)	10(24)	47(28)	N.S.(.10)

*Eight items of the ideal role are not statistically significant.

TABLE 9

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE AREAS OF WORLD SERVICE AND RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

	Area of World Service					
	AF	LA	FA	NE/SA	Total	X^2
	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Personal Satisfaction:*						
Satisfaction with Discretion						
Low	7(30)	10(29)	6(19)	1(4)	24(20)	X^2=9.000
Medium	5(22)	12(34)	9(29)	10(35)	36(31)	
High	11(48)	13(37)	16(52)	17(61)	57(49)	N.S.
Satisfaction with Management						
Low	17(59)	20(38)	23(51)	28(68)	88(53)	X^2=16.472
Medium	6(21)	21(40)	19(42)	12(29)	58(35)	
High	6(21)	11(21)	3(7)	1(2)	21(13)	p=.01
Overall Satisfaction with Supervision						
Low	9(31)	22(42)	8(18)	8(20)	47(28)	X^2=10.419
Medium	10(34)	13(25)	14(31)	16(39)	53(32)	
High	10(34)	17(33)	23(51)	17(41)	67(40)	N.S. (near .05)

TABLE 9 (Continued)

		Area of World Service					
		AF	LA	FA	NE/SA	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Personal Evaluation of Overseas Performance:							
Job Rating on Self-anchoring scale							
	Low	14(48)	32(62)	15(33)	16(39)	77(46)	X^2=8.821
	High	15(52)	20(38)	30(67)	25(61)	90(54)	p=.05
Satisfaction with Own Achievement							
	Low	18(62)	29(56)	11(24)	21(51)	79(47)	X^2=14.308
	Medium	7(24)	12(23)	17(38)	11(27)	47(28)	
	High	4(14)	11(21)	17(38)	9(22)	41(25)	p=.02
Project was Successful/ Appropriate	Low	3(10)	11(21)	8(18)	11(27)	33(20)	X^2=4.776
	Medium	16(55)	28(54)	20(44)	18(44)	82(49)	
	High	10(35)	13(25)	17(38)	12(29)	52(31)	N.S.

*There were no significant differences on satisfactions from host people, family environment, social life, rank and status, and Professional colleagues.

management and overall supervision, as well as their own discretion. They rate high on the self-anchoring scale about their job and high satisfaction with their own achievement.

When we compare the Far Eastern and the Near East and South Asian groups, we find that these two groups have approximately the same satisfactions, except that the latter group shows lower satisfaction with their own achievement (51%), compared to 24 per cent of the Far Eastern group.

Some attitudinal differences among the four groups in the world services are also interesting to discuss here. Table 10 shows that a lack of language competence, low attitude toward management, low career development in technical assistance are the case for the African group. While the Latin American group indicates strong language competence, the respondents from this area find high criticism of excessive bureaucracy and red-tape in the United States and feel that too much paper work overseas causes waste in American aid programs. Their attitude is also least favorable toward overseas managment (44%) in comparison with only ten per cent of the Near Eastern and South Asian group.

The Far Eastern group shows high criticism of colleagues in regard to purely personal characteristics, professional characteristics, organizational and cultural

TABLE 10

ATTITUDINAL DIFFERENCES BY THE AREAS OF WORLD SERVICE

Attitudinal Dimensions		Area of World Service					
		AF	LA	FA	NE/SA	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Language Competence							
	Low	18(62)	2(4)	20(44)	28(68)	68(41)	X^2=58.077
	Medium	6(21)	14(27)	14(31)	8(20)	42(25)	p=.001
	High	5(17)	36(69)	11(24)	5(12)	57(34)	
Critical of Colleagues	Low	7(24)	14(27)	8(18)	18(44)	47(28)	
	Medium	19(66)	33(63)	26(58)	19(46)	97(58)	X^2=12.139
	High	3(10)	5(10)	11(24)	4(10)	23(14)	p=.05
Excessive Bureaucracy	Low	3(10)	5(10)	10(22)	7(17)	25(15)	
	Medium	20(69)	27(52)	24(53)	31(76)	102(61)	X^2=15.422
	High	6(21)	20(38)	11(24)	3(7)	40(24)	p=.02
Pro-management	Low	10(34)	23(44)	9(20)	4(10)	46(28)	
	Medium	12(41)	19(36)	17(38)	19(46)	67(40)	X^2=18.459
	High	7(24)	10(19)	19(42)	18(44)	54(32)	p=.005
Career Development							
	Low	17(59)	30(58)	21(47)	13(32)	81(48)	X^2=7.638
	High	12(41)	22(42)	24(53)	28(68)	86(52)	N.S. (near .05)
Motivation for going overseas: Professional	Low	19(66)	34(65)	31(69)	18(44)	102(61)	X^2=6.889
	High	10(34)	18(35)	14(31)	23(56)	65(39)	N.S. (.10)

adaptation, etc. They are more pro-management (42%). Although the respondents from the Near East and South Asia have had low language competence, they tend to have a medium position on excessive bureaucracy and indicate the highest attitude on the pro-management item. They are least critical of their colleagues. As a result of their overseas tour, 68 per cent of this group feel that overseas experience helped their career. More than half of the respondents cited as central professional reasons for going overseas.

Summary

Although our data did not confirm our second research hypothesis, we have found some significant differences among professionals from four different areas, in relations to other role variables, attitudinal dimensions, personal satisfaction and evaluation of their own performance.

The African group seems to have low role consensus among people in their role relationship and express high dissatisfaction with management and overall supervision overseas. They have low satisfaction with their achievement in their professional work overseas.

The respondents from Latin American countries show not only low acceptance of role by others, but also high uncertainty in their technical assistance assignment

overseas. They indicate high dissatisfaction with management, least satisfaction with overall supervision, high criticism of excessive bureaucracy, and low acceptance of management. They have shown high language competence.

The Far Eastern group tends to show high trust in the interpersonal situation and to have high role consensus. They rate high on the self-anchoring scale and also express a highly pro-management attitude. But they are very critical of their colleagues.

The respondents from the Near East and South Asia have high acceptance of role by others, and they have high satisfactions with their discretion and management. They also rate high on the self-anchoring scale. They indicate low language competence and low criticism of colleagues. They say their careers have been affected by the overseas experience.

Results of the Ideal Role

Our assumption behind the ideal role is that there are significant relationships between the ideal role categories and personal satisfaction and performance. In order to test this assumption, we have stated four initial hypotheses.

Technical Competence and Interpersonal Competence

As seen in Tables 11 and 12, the trend of our data supports the hypothesis that high perceptions in

interpersonal competence are more significantly related to personal satisfaction and evaluation of performance than is technical competence.

The findings in technical competence indicate only three statistical differences out of forty Chi-square values, while the categories of interpersonal competence show twelve significant values of Chi-square. Those who perceive high on demonstration of skills tend to have a high degree of satisfaction with family environment. The respondents who emphasize high understanding of indigenous culture are identified with high dissatisfaction with overall supervision. Nevertheless, they seem more satisfied with own achievement.

It should be noted that the role of organization knowledge and administrative practices in technical competence indicate no statistical difference with any item. However, those who perceive high program knowledge have high satisfaction with professional colleagues.

Table 11 shows that the respondents who perceive empathy role in interpersonal competence tend to have high satisfaction from host people, satisfaction with rank and status, and satisfaction with professional colleagues. They also rate high on the overseas job. Accordingly, they feel the project was successful and appropriate.

Autonomy as one of the ideal roles was significantly related with high social life satisfaction and

TABLE 11

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TECHNICAL COMPETENCE ITEMS, PERSONAL SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

	Role Categories in Technical Competence							
	Demonstration of Skills		Knowledge of Culture		Organizational & Ad've. Knowledge		Program Knowledge	
	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High
Personal Satisfaction:	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
Satisfaction with family env't.								
Low	29(32)	15(19)	35(28)	9(20)	27(30)	17(22)	23(24)	21(28)
Medium	41(46)	50(63)	67(54)	24(55)	48(53)	43(55)	52(55)	39(53)
High	20(22)	14(18)	23(18)	11(25)	16(18)	18(23)	20(21)	14(19)
	X^2=5.712		X^2=1.422		X^2=1.675		X^2=.404	
	Near .05		N.S.		N.S.		N.S.	
Satisfaction with Social Life								
Low	14(16)	21(27)	22(18)	13(30)	18(20)	17(22)	20(21)	15(20)
Medium	66(73)	46(58)	85(68)	27(61)	60(66)	52(67)	59(62)	53(72)
High	10(11)	12(15)	18(14)	4(9)	13(14)	9(11)	16(17)	6(8)
	X^2=4.456	N.S.	X^2=3.163	N.S.	X^2=.329	N.S.	X^2=3.018	N.S.
Satisfaction with Rank and Status								
Low	30(33)	23(29)	38(30)	15(34)	30(33)	23(30)	33(35)	20(27)
Medium	23(26)	20(25)	34(27)	9(20)	24(26)	19(24)	20(21)	23(31)
High	37(41)	36(46)	53(42)	20(46)	37(41)	36(46)	42(44)	31(42
	X^2=.433	N.S.	X^2=.794	N.S.	X^2=.794	N.S.	X^2=2.484	N.S.

TABLE 11 (Continued)

	Role Categories in Technical Competence							
	Demonstration of Skills		Knowledge of Culture		Organizational & Ad've. Knowledge		Program Knowledge	
	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %
Satisfaction with Professional Colleagues								
Low	13(14)	13(16)	57(46)	19(43)	38(42)	38(49)	41(43)	35(47)
Medium	56(62)	54(68)	45(36)	15(34)	34(37)	26(33)	41(43)	19(26)
High	21(23)	12(15)	23(18)	10(23)	19(21)	14(18)	13(14)	20(27)
	X^2=1.782 N.S.		X^2=.388 N.S.		X^2=.829 N.S.		X^2=.835 p=.025	
Satisfaction with Discretion								
Low	11(19)	13(21)	16(18)	8(27)	15(21)	9(18)	17(23)	7(16)
Medium	20(35)	17(27)	27(30)	10(33)	19(27)	18(37)	22(29)	15(34)
High	26(46)	32(52)	46(52)	12(40)	36(51)	22(45)	36(48)	22(50)
	X^2=.822 N.S.		X^2=1.533 N.S.		X^2=1.239 N.S.		X^2=.853 N.S.	
Dissatisfaction with Management								
Low	48(53)	41(52)	67(54)	22(50)	42(46)	47(60)	47(50)	42(57)
Medium	31(34)	28(35)	47(38)	12(27)	37(41)	22(28)	38(40)	21(28)
High	11(12)	10(13)	11(9)	10(23)	12(13)	9(12)	10(10)	11(15)
	X^2=.035 N.S.		X^2=6.154 N.S.		X^2=3.544 N.S.		X^2=2.658 N.S.	
Overall Satisfaction with Supervision								
Low	24(27)	23(29)	29(23)	18(41)	26(29)	21(27)	27(28)	20(27)
Medium	34(38)	21(27)	44(35)	11(25)	30(33)	25(32)	32(34)	23(31)
High	32(36)	35(44)	52(42)	15(34)	35(38)	32(41)	36(38)	31(42)
	X^2=2.523 N.S.		X^2=5.173 near .05		X^2=.122 N.S.		X^2=.283 N.S.	

TABLE 11 (Continued)

	Role Categories in Technical Competence							
	Demonstration of Skills		Knowledge of Culture		Organizational & Ad've. Knowledge		Program Knowledge	
	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High
Personal Evaluation of Overseas Performance:	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
Job Rating on Self-Anchoring Scale								
Low	40(44)	38(48)	58(46)	20(46)	40(44)	38(49)	46(48)	32(43)
High	50(56)	41(52)	67(54)	24(54)	51(56)	40(51)	49(52)	42(57)
Satisfaction with own achievement								
Low	20(22)	15(19)	59(47)	21(48)	47(52)	33(42)	48(50)	32(43)
Medium	44(49)	48(61)	40(32)	7(16)	22(24)	25(32)	26(27)	21(28)
High	26(29)	16(20)	26(21)	16(36)	22(24)	20(26)	21(22)	21(28)
	X^2=2.564 N.S.		X^2=6.204 p=.05		X^2=1.747 N.S.		X^2=1.140 N.S.	
Project was Successful and Appropriate								
Low	18(20)	15(19)	25(20)	8(18)	18(20)	15(19)	16(17)	17(23)
Medium	41(46)	41(52)	61(49)	21(48)	45(49)	37(47)	52(55)	30(40)
High	31(34)	23(29)	39(31)	15(34)	28(31)	26(33)	27(28)	27(37)
	X^2=.745 N.S.		X^2=.148 N.S.		X^2=.128 N.S.		X^2=3.375 N.S.	

TABLE 12

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE ITEMS, PERSONAL SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

	Role Categories in Interpersonal Competence							
	Empathy		Autonomy		Communicating Ideas		Trust	
	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %
Personal Satisfaction:								
Satisfaction with family env't.								
Low	30(29)	14(21)	32(29)	12(21)	12(32)	32(24)	35(29)	9(19)
Medium	55(54)	36(54)	57(51)	34(59)	19(51)	72(54)	66(54)	25(52)
High	17(17)	17(25)	22(20)	12(21)	6(16)	28(21)	20(16)	14(29)
	X^2=2.650	N.S.	X^2=1.357	N.S.	X^2=1.158	N.S.	X^2=4.134	N.S.
Satisfaction with Social Life								
Low	19(19)	16(24)	20(18)	15(26)	8(22)	27(20)	24(20)	11(23)
Medium	72(71)	40(60)	81(73)	31(53)	27(73)	85(64)	82(68)	30(62)
High	11(11)	11(16)	10(9)	12(21)	2(5)	20(15)	15(12)	7(15)
	X^2=2.248	N.S.	X^2=7.316	p=.025	X^2=2.449	N.S.	X^2=.428	N.S.
Satisfaction with Rank & Status								
Low	38(37)	15(22)	37(33)	16(28)	9(24)	44(33)	42(35)	11(23)
Medium	27(26)	16(24)	30(27)	13(22)	10(27)	33(25)	31(26)	12(25)
High	37(36)	36(54)	44(40)	29(50)	18(49)	55(42)	48(40)	25(52)
	X^2=5.809	p=.05	X^2=1.666	N.S.	X^2=1.121	N.S.	X^2=2.756	N.S.

TABLE 12 (Continued)

	Role Categories in Interpersonal Competence							
	Empathy		Autonomy		Communicating Ideas		Trust	
	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %
Satisfaction with Professional Colleagues								
Low	53(52)	23(34)	52(47)	24(41)	20(54)	56(42)	60(50)	16(33)
Medium	35(34)	25(37)	40(36)	20(34)	11(30)	49(37)	41(34)	19(40)
High	14(14)	19(28)	19(17)	14(24)	6(20)	27(20)	20(16)	13(27)
	X^2=7.332	p=.05	X^2=1.241	N.S.	X^2=1.580	N.S.	X^2=4.294	N.S.
Satisfaction with Discretion								
Low	17(22)	7(17)	19(24)	5(12)	6(27)	18(19)	23(27)	1(3)
Medium	27(35)	10(24)	26(33)	11(27)	7(32)	30(31)	26(30)	11(33)
High	34(44)	24(58)	33(42)	25(61)	9(41)	49(50)	37(43)	21(64)
	X^2=2.433	N.S.	X^2=4.259	N.S.	X^2=1.020	N.S.	X^2=8.803	p=.02
Dissatisfaction with Management								
Low	51(50)	38(57)	55(50)	34(59)	25(68)	64(48)	60(50)	29(60)
Medium	38(37)	21(31)	45(40)	14(24)	8(22)	51(39)	44(36)	15(31)
High	13(13)	8(12)	11(10)	10(17)	4(11)	17(13)	17(14)	4(8)
	X^2=.772	N.S.	X^2=5.179	near .05	X^2=4.494	N.S.	X^2=1.927	N.S.
Overall Satisfaction with supervision								
Low	32(31)	15(22)	30(27)	17(29)	13(35)	34(26)	38(31)	9(19)
Medium	29(28)	26(39)	32(29)	23(40)	11(30)	44(33)	39(32)	16(33)
High	41(40)	26(39)	49(44)	18(31)	13(35)	54(41)	44(36)	23(48)
	X^2=2.531	N.S.	X^2=3.095	N.S.	X^2=1.272	N.S.	X^2=3.149	N.S.

TABLE 12 (Continued)

	Role Categories in Interpersonal Competence							
	Empathy		Autonomy		Communicating Ideas		Trust	
	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %
Personal Evaluation of Overseas Performance:								
Job Rating on Self-anchoring scale								
Low	56(55)	22(35)	56(51)	22(38)	18(49)	60(46)	69(57)	9(19)
High	46(45)	45(67)	54(49)	36(62)	19(51)	72(54)	52(43)	39(81)
	X^2=7.923	p=.01	X^2=2.572	N.S.	X^2=.111	N.S.	X^2=20.258	p=.001
Satisfaction with own achievement								
Low	51(50)	29(43)	57(52)	23(40)	19(51)	61(46)	69(57)	11(23)
Medium	27(26)	20(30)	30(27)	16(28)	12(32)	35(26)	31(26)	16(33)
High	24(24)	18(27)	23(21)	19(33)	6(16)	36(27)	21(17)	21(44)
	X^2=.733	N.S.	X^2=3.314	N.S.	X^2=1.947	N.S.	X^2=18.815	p=.001
Project was Successful and appropriate								
Low	23(23)	10(15)	26(24)	7(12)	10(27)	23(17)	27(22)	6(12)
Medium	54(53)	28(42)	58(53)	24(41)	14(38)	68(52)	65(54)	17(35)
High	25(24)	29(43)	26(24)	27(47)	13(35)	41(31)	29(24)	25(52)
	X^2=6.700	p=.05	X^2=9.910	p=.01	X^2=2.629	N.S.	X^2=12.570	p=.005
Satisfaction with host people								
Low	19(19)	4(6)	13(12)	10(17)	6(16)	17(13)	17(14)	6(12)
Medium	65(64)	44(66)	78(70)	31(53)	24(65)	85(64)	78(64)	31(64)
High	18(18)	19(28)	20(18)	17(29)	7(19)	30(23)	26(22)	11(22)
	X^2=6.903	p=.05	X^2=4.746	p=.10	X^2=.429	N.S.	X^2=.093	N.S.

proportionate dissatisfaction with management. But it indicates the project's success and appropriateness.

Communicating ideas in the interpersonal situation seems the least significant role, for it does not support the hypothesis. This could be true since the majority of overseas professionals do communicate in their advisory positions even if the degree of effectiveness of communication might be different.

Trust in interpersonal competence strongly proves the hypothesis, in terms of personal evaluation of overseas performance. People who perceive high trust in interpersonal situation feel they have had sufficient discretion in their professional work overseas. They not only rated their job high on the self-anchoring scale, but also showed high satisfaction with their own achievement. Furthermore, they indicated the project was successful.

AID Ratings by Supervisor

As shown in Table 13, people who recognize high demonstration of skills tend to be rated more than average on industry (82%). But the tendency does not reach the .05 level of statistical significance. The respondents who have high perception on understanding of culture seem to have considerable ability in getting along with local citizens and in effectiveness of oral expression.

TABLE 13

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TECHNICAL COMPETENCE ITEMS AND AID PERSONNEL RATINGS

AID Ratings		Technical Competence Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
		Demonstration of Skills			
Industry	Low	22(26)	14(18)	36(27)	X^2=5.085
	Medium	29(35)	40(53)	69(43)	N.S. (near
	High	32(39)	22(29)	54(34)	.05)
		Knowledge of Host Culture			
Dependability	Low	23(20)	7(16)	30(19)	X^2=5.891
	Medium	60(52)	31(72)	91(58)	N.S. (near
	High	32(28)	5(12)	37(23)	.05)
Ability to get along with local citizens	Low	20(17)	2(5)	22(14)	X^2=5.943
	Medium	67(58)	33(77)	100(63)	N.S. (near
	High	29(25)	8(19)	37(23)	.05)
Effectiveness of oral expression	Low	47(42)	9(21)	56(36)	X^2=5.782
	Medium	58(51)	30(70)	88(56)	N.S. (near
	High	8(7)	4(9)	12(8)	.05)
		Organizational & Ad'v. Knowledge			
Effectiveness in technical advice	Low	25(32)	15(24)	40(28)	X^2=6.289
	Medium	35(45)	41(65)	76(54)	p=.05
	High	18(23)	7(11)	25(18)	
Knowledge of AID practices	Low	47(59)	26(37)	73(49)	X^2=6.977
	High	33(41)	44(63)	77(51)	p=.01
Knowledge & understanding of o/v program	Low	44(54)	27(37)	71(46)	X^2=5.382
	Medium	31(38)	35(48)	66(43)	N.S. (near
	High	6(7)	11(15)	17(11)	.05)
Productivity	Low	25(40)	12(21)	37(31)	X^2=6.295
	Medium	31(50)	32(57)	63(53)	p=.05
	High	6(10)	12(21)	18(15)	

TABLE 13 (Continued)

AID Ratings		Technical Competence Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Effectiveness as supervisor & mg'l. effectiveness	Low	33(52)	22(35)	55(43)	X^2=3.581
	High	31(48)	41(65)	72(57)	N.S.(near .05)
			Program Knowledge		
Industry	Low	23(27)	13(18)	36(23)	
	Medium	42(49)	27(37)	69(43)	X^2=7.694
	High	21(24)	33(45)	54(34)	p=.025
Dependability	Low	20(24)	10(14)	30(19)	
	Medium	51(60)	40(55)	91(58)	X^2=5.975
	High	14(16)	23(31)	37(23)	p=.02
Knowledge of AID practice	Low	46(58)	27(38)	73(49)	X^2=6.107
	High	33(42)	44(62)	77(51)	p=.02
Productivity	Low	25(39)	12(22)	37(31)	
	Medium	32(50)	31(57)	63(53)	X^2=4.658
	High	7(11)	11(20)	18(15)	N.S.(.10)
Thoroughness & accuracy of work	Low	24(28)	17(23)	41(26)	
	Medium	53(62)	39(53)	92(58)	X^2=4.756
	High	9(10)	17(23)	26(16)	N.S.(.10)
Effectiveness of oral expression	Low	27(32)	29(41)	56(36)	X^2=7.374
	Medium	55(65)	33(46)	88(56)	p=.025
	High	3(3)	9(13)	12(8)	

The role of organizational knowledge and administrative practices indicates rather low effectiveness in technical advice, but it tends to be identified with knowledge of AID practices, such as personnel procedures, communications, budget and fiscal matters, organization and management, etc., to the extent such knowledge is required or desirable in the assignment. They tend to have high productivity and effectiveness as supervisors as well as managerial effectiveness.

The respondents who perceive high program knowledge as an ideal role, receive high ratings on industry, dependability, knowledge of AID practices, and effectiveness of oral expression. They also tend to have higher than average ratings on productivity, thoroughness and accuracy of work overseas.

Table 14 indicates statistical differences between interpersonal competence and rating items. The role categories in interpersonal competence tend to prove the direction of our hypothesis, since there are 14 statistical differences in comparison to technical competence with only five different relationships.

The trend of the role of empathy suggests that people in this category of the ideal role rate high on industry, initiative and resourcefulness, forcefulness and decisiveness, knowledge of AID practices, effectiveness of oral expression, and effectiveness as supervisor

TABLE 14

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE AND AID PERSONNEL RATINGS

AID Ratings		Area of Interpersonal Competence: Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
			Empathy		
Industry	Low	24(25)	12(19)	36(23)	X^2=5.112
	Medium	46(48)	23(36)	69(43)	N.S. (near
	High	26(27)	28(44)	54(34)	.05)
Initiative & Resource-fulness	Low	42(44)	16(25)	58(36)	X^2=5.594
	Medium	38(40)	32(51)	70(44)	N.S. (near
	High	16(17)	15(24)	31(20)	.05)
Forcefulness & Decisiveness	Low	46(48)	19(30)	65(41)	X^2=4.985
	Medium	38(40)	34(54)	72(45)	N.S. (.10)
	High	12(12)	10(16)	22(14)	
Knowledge of AID practice	Low	53(60)	20(33)	73(49)	X^2=10.377
	High	36(40)	41(67)	77(51)	p=.005
Effectiveness of oral expression	Low	40(42)	16(26)	56(36)	X^2=5.087
	Medium	50(53)	38(62)	88(56)	N.S. (.10)
	High	5(5)	7(12)	12(8)	
Effectiveness as supervisor & mg'l. effec-tiveness	Low	37(49)	18(35)	55(43)	X^2=2.709
	High	38(51)	34(65)	72(57)	N.S. (.10)
Overall Rating	Low	29(30)	11(18)	40(25)	X^2=6.015
	Medium	61(64)	42(67)	103(65)	N.S. (near
	High	2(6)	14(11)	16(10)	.05)

TABLE 14 (Continued)

AID Ratings		Area of Interpersonal Competence			
		Low	High	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	
Forcefulness & Decisiveness	Low	54(48)	11(24)	65(41)	X^2=7.721
	Medium	45(40)	27(59)	72(45)	p=.025
	High	14(12)	8(17)	22(14)	
Effectiveness in technical advice	Low	34(34)	6(15)	40(28)	X^2=10.409
	Medium	55(54)	21(52)	76(54)	p=.001
	High	12(12)	13(33)	25(18)	
Knowledge of AID practice	Low	57(54)	16(36)	73(49)	X^2=4.423
	High	48(46)	29(64)	77(51)	p=.05
Insight into objectives of own program	Low	26(24)	6(13)	32(21)	X^2=5.508
	Medium	57(52)	21(46)	78(50)	N.S. (near
	High	26(24)	19(41)	45(29)	.05)
Knowledge & Understanding of overall program	Low	57(52)	14(31)	71(46)	X^2=7.726
	Medium	39(36)	27(60)	66(43)	p=.025
	High	13(12)	4(9)	17(11)	
Productivity	Low	33(37)	4(14)	37(31)	X^2=5.629
	Medium	43(48)	20(69)	63(53)	N.S.
	High	13(15)	5(17)	18(15)	
Effectiveness of oral expression	Low	45(40)	11(24)	56(36)	X^2=7.539
	Medium	61(55)	27(60)	88(56)	p=.025
	High	5(4)	7(16)	12(8)	
Effectiveness as supervisor & manager	Low	43(49)	12(30)	55(43)	X^2=4.211
	High	44(51)	28(70)	72(57)	p=.05
Overall Rating of effectiveness	Low	31(27)	9(20)	40(25)	X^2=1.444
	Medium	72(64)	31(67)	103(65)	N.S.
	High	10(9)	6(13)	16(10)	

and manager. Accordingly, they have received high scores on overall rating of overseas performance by their supervisors.

Autonomy also shows interesting indications. It is significantly related to a medium or high rating on initiative and resourcefulness, which consider ability to recognize what is needed, and to suggest, improve, and install new methods for increased efficiency. They also rate high on knowledge of AID administrative practice. On the other hand, the respondents are likely to have low ability to get along with local citizens and also to have low productivity.

The high perception on communicating ideas is highly associated with the respondent's ability to get along with local citizens.

Our data indicate that the role of trust seems the strongest item in interpersonal competence. It is directly related to initiative and resourcefulness, forcefulness and decisiveness, effectiveness in technical advice, knowledge of AID administrative practice, insight into objectives of own program, knowledge of understanding overall program, power and accuracy of observation, effectiveness of oral expression, and effectiveness as supervisor and manager. However, it is found that in the trust category, respondents are rated quite low on productivity, and overall rating of their effectiveness shows no

significant difference.

Attitudinal Differences and Other Relationships

Although the differences are not statistically significant, the results in Appendix 5 indicate that those respondents in high demonstration of skills seem to feel more cultural accommodation and positive counterpart relationship. Those who have low perception on this role tend to have high interest in public affairs and feel that overseas experience has helped their career development. High demonstration of skills is also associated with high interaction of high officials in the subject country. The respondents feel that the work appeared important. There is a significant difference between demonstration of skills and rank of the respondents, and some proportional differences with professional membership, professional experience in technical assistance, and size of mission whether they have worked in a large or small mission.

People who score high on cultural understanding tend to have high cultural accommodation and positive interpersonal relationship. There is a significant difference between education and this role perception.

High organizational knowledge and administrative skills reveal a tendency for scoring higher on experience in developing areas, financial reward as an occupational value, and interest in public affairs. They are involved

in negotiating and intermediary jobs and held managerial, supervisorial, or overviewer jobs overseas. On the other hand, those who perceived low on this role are identified with avenues to success and obligation in occupational values and also tend to have low interest in public affairs but proportionately high cultural accommodation. Participation in program implementation is associated with them (Appendix 7).

The respondents who have high perception on the program knowledge express favorable attitudes toward cultural accommodation, praise of their colleagues, positive interpersonal relationship, low excessive bureaucracy. Although the difference is not statistically significant, they also tend to recommend some changes for technical assistance.

Thus, the above results in technical competence suggest that the respondents perceive high program knowledge tend to indicate rather interesting relationships with attitudes of the individual than other three categories in technical competence. As we will discuss, the findings on empathy, autonomy, communicating ideas, and trust, interpersonal competence tends to show more favorable attitudes of the respondents than the previous four roles.

The finding on the relationships between empathy and attitudinal items show very significant differences.

High empathy group indicates favorable attitudes toward governmental role involvement, cultural accommodation, low excessive bureaucracy, pro-management scale, and professional gratification. However, they tend to show low language competence. The results on empathy scales seem to suggest that the high empathy group expresses most favorable attitudes about management overseas, as well as being the most professionally stimulated group about their overseas jobs.

According to Appendix 10, autonomy is highly associated with the personal backgrounds of the advisors. High autonomy shows statistical differences in relation to the young age group, closer to Democrat in terms of political identification, liberal, more experience overseas, but no experience in the subject country and not accompanied by children. In terms of their occupational values, personal and ego orientation, challenge, and self-determination are also identified with high perception of the autonomy role. People who perceive high autonomy tend to mention that they feel that the host government is not an authoritarian system, to express high cultural accommodation, and to show more than average positiveness toward the pro-management scale. Moreover, they indicate proportionately high counterpart relationships.

As was the case in AID ratings, communicating ideas shows the least significant relationships with other items.

A trend in the data suggests that they joined AID before 1955 and participated less in program planning while they were in professional works overseas. But they describe their job in terms of teacher or trainer overseas.

Trust as an ideal role in the interpersonal situation again indicates most significant differences with other items. It tends to be identified with being liberal on the political philosophy scale and with more prior interest in the subject country. Among the occupational value items, personal and ego orientation, obligation, and puritan and Calvinist ideas are associated with trust. High perception on trust is directly related to high governmental role involvement, cultural accommodation, positive counterpart relationships, positive interpersonal relationships, and criticism of colleagues. On the other hand, the low trust group tends to have high orientation before going overseas, criticism of the political and administrative system of the host country, and high language competence.

The results on interpersonal competence suggest that favorable attitudes toward overseas management and personal satisfaction seem to be correlated with the personal factors and the perceptions on the ideal role in interpersonal competence, rather than how people are competent in the indigenous language or how much people have received orientation before going overseas.

The Ideal Role and Its Relations to Role Acceptance, Role Consensus, and Uncertainty in Assignment

The Research Hypothesis IIIa is stated as follows:

> "When there is more interpersonal competence, the individual role is more likely to be accepted by others in role relationship."

The data from Tables 15 and 16 support this hypothesis. The Chi-square values in technical competence indicate no significant difference, but empathy and trust in interpersonal competence are directly related to the degree of role-acceptance. Autonomy shows only slightly higher in the percentage distribution.

The second form of hypothesis (IIIb) relating to the ideal role is that when there is more interpersonal competence, the individual role is more likely to have high role consensus by others. This hypothesis has also been tested by comparing the role consensus with the role categories in technical and interpersonal competences. As indicated in the same tables, this hypothesis is also supported. The respondents who perceive high in interpersonal competence have a very high degree of role consensus, while the respondents in technical competence are low on this scale.

Insofar as the data permitted a test of Hypothesis IIIc, that, "for overseas professionals, high technical competence in the ideal role is directly related to high uncertainty in professional work assignment," the

TABLE 15

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE ROLE CATEGORIES IN TECHNICAL COMPETENCE RELATED TO ROLE ACCEPTANCE, ROLE CONSENSUS, AND UNCERTAINTY IN ASSIGNMENT

	Technical Competence							
	Demonstration of Skills		Understanding of Culture		Organizational & Ad've. Practices		Program Knowledge	
	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %
Role Acceptance								
Low	12(13)	15(19)	17(14)	10(23)	14(14)	13(17)	19(20)	8(11)
High	78(87)	64(81)	108(86)	34(77)	77(85)	65(83)	76(80)	66(89)
	X^2=1.002	N.S.	X^2=2.020	N.S.	X^2=.051	N.S.	X^2=2.617	N.S.
Role Consensus								
Low	13(14)	8(10)	15(12)	6(14)	9(10)	12(15)	10(10)	11(15)
Medium	28(31)	28(35)	41(33)	15(34)	30(33)	26(33)	35(37)	21(28)
High	49(54)	43(54)	69(55)	23(52)	52(57)	40(51)	50(53)	42(57)
	X^2=.869	N.S.	X^2=.138	N.S.	X^2=1.287	N.S.	X^2=1.659	N.S.
Uncertainty in Assignment								
Low	46(51)	29(37)	58(46)	17(39)	36(40)	39(50)	39(41)	36(49)
Medium	25(28)	25(32)	36(29)	14(32)	25(28)	25(32)	28(30)	22(30)
High	19(21)	25(32)	31(25)	13(30)	30(33)	14(18)	28(30)	16(22)
	X^2=3.973	N.S.	X^2=.824	N.S.	X^2=4.968	N.S.	X^2=1.527	N.S.

TABLE 16

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE ROLE CATEGORIES IN INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE RELATED TO ROLE ACCEPTANCE, ROLE CONSENSUS, AND UNCERTAINTY IN ASSIGNMENT

	Interpersonal Competence							
	Empathy		Autonomy		Communicating Ideas		Trust	
	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %
Role Acceptance								
Low	21(21)	6(9)	21(19)	6(10)	6(16)	21(16)	25(21)	2(4)
High	81(79)	61(91)	89(81)	52(90)	31(84)	111(84)	96(79)	46(96)
	X^2=4.077	.05	X^2=2.154	N.S.	X^2=.002	N.S.	X^2=6.965	.01
Role Consensus								
Low	16(16)	5(8)	15(14)	6(10)	7(19)	14(11)	19(16)	2(4)
Medium	45(44)	11(16)	43(39)	12(21)	12(32)	44(33)	43(36)	13(27)
High	41(40)	51(76)	52(47)	40(69)	18(49)	74(56)	59(49)	33(69)
	X^2=21.150	.001	X^2=7.520	.025	X^2=1.906	N.S.	$X^2$6.944	.05
Uncertainty in Assignment								
Low	40(39)	35(52)	48(44)	27(47)	14(38)	61(46)	45(37)	30(62)
Medium	29(28)	21(31)	27(24)	23(40)	14(38)	36(27)	39(32)	11(23)
High	33(32)	11(16)	35(32)	8(14)	9(24)	35(26)	37(31)	7(15)
	X^2=5.605	N.S. (near .05)	X^2=7.806	.02	X^2=1.600	N.S.	X^2=9.346	.01

relationship is also supported by our data. High empathy tends to have low uncertainty, and low autonomy shows high uncertainty, 32 per cent versus 14 per cent. The respondents perceiving high trust indicate low uncertainty, 37 per cent versus 62 per cent. Although a trend in communicating ideas is in the direction of our hypotheses, the difference is not statistically significant. According to the above findings, empathy and trust roles suggest stronger relationships with role acceptance, role consensus, and uncertainty in assignment than other role categories in technical and interpersonal competence.

Role Acceptance, Role Consensus, and Uncertainty in Assignment

The Research Hypothesis IV is that there are significant differences between role acceptance and personal satisfaction and performance overseas. A trend of our data in Table 17 is in the direction of our hypothesis. Role acceptance is statistically significant in seven items and proportionately different in the rest of the items. This means that the respondents who perceive high acceptance of role by others in their professional work tend to have high personal satisfaction with overseas experience and high evaluation of their own performance, as well as toward project success.

Our hypothesis V is concerned with the relationship between role consensus and personal satisfaction and

TABLE 17

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ROLE CONSENSUS, ROLE ACCEPTANCE, UNCERTAINTY IN ASSIGNMENT, RELATED TO PERSONAL SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

		Role Consensus			Role Acceptance		Uncertainty in Assignment		
		Low N %	Med. N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	Med. N %	High N %
Personal Satisfaction:									
Satisfaction from host people	Low	2(10)	9(16)	12(13)	6(22)	17(12)	11(15)	7(14)	5(11)
	Medium	13(62)	39(70)	57(62)	15(56)	94(66)	52(69)	30(60)	27(61)
	High	6(29)	8(14)	23(25)	6(22)	31(22)	12(16)	13(26)	12(27)
		X^2=3.186		N.S.	X^2=2.151	N.S.	X^2=2.883		N.S.
Satisfaction with family environment	Low	9(43)	17(30)	18(19)	10(37)	34(24)	21(28)	11(22)	12(27)
	Medium	10(48)	27(48)	54(59)	13(48)	78(55)	35(47)	31(62)	25(57)
	High	2(9)	12(21)	20(22)	4(15)	30(21)	19(25)	8(16)	7(16)
		X^2=6.386		N.S.	X^2=2.137	N.S.	X^2=3.680		N.S.
Satisfaction with social life	Low	5(24)	11(20)	19(21)	9(33)	26(18)	13(17)	11(22)	11(25)
	Medium	14(67)	41(73)	57(62)	18(67)	94(66)	53(71)	29(58)	30(68)
	High	2(9)	4(7)	16(17)	0(0)	22(16)	9(12)	10(20)	3(7)
		X^2=3.828		N.S.	X^2=6.656	p=.05	X^2=4.834		N.S
Satisfaction with rank & status	Low	8(38)	20(36)	25(27)	15(56)	38(27)	20(27)	15(30)	18(41)
	Medium	7(33)	15(27)	21(33)	7(26)	36(25)	15(20)	14(28)	14(32)
	High	6(29)	21(37)	46(50)	5(18)	68(48)	40(53)	21(42)	12(27)
		X^2=4.404		N.S.	X^2=10.531	p=.01	X^2=7.924		N.S. (.10)

TABLE 17 (Continued)

		Role Consensus			Role Acceptance		Uncertainty in Assignment		
		Low N %	Med. N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	Med. N %	High N %
Satisfaction with discretion	Low	6(35)	11(23)	7(13)	12(54)	12(12)	4(8)	8(25)	12(32)
	Medium	4(24)	16(34)	17(31)	7(32)	30(31)	17(35)	6(19)	14(37)
	High	7(11)	20(43)	31(56)	3(14)	55(57)	28(57)	18(56)	12(32)
		X^2=5.352	N.S.		X^2=22.643	p=.001	X^2=11.878	p=.02	
Satisfaction with profesional colleagues	Low	16(76)	28(50)	32(35)	17(63)	59(41)	28(37)	23(46)	25(57)
	Medium	2(10)	21(38)	37(40)	8(30)	52(37)	32(43)	15(30)	13(30)
	High	3(14)	7(12)	23(25)	2(7)	31(22)	15(20)	12(24)	6(14)
		X^2=14.744	p=.01		X^2=5.043	near .05	X^2=5.611	N.S.	
Dissatisfaction with management	Low	8(38)	32(57)	49(53)	10(37)	79(56)	44(59)	27(54)	18(41)
	Medium	6(29)	19(34)	34(37)	10(37)	49(34)	25(33)	16(32)	18(41)
	High	7(33)	5(9)	9(10)	7(26)	14(10)	6(8)	7(14)	8(18)
		X^2=9.889	p=.05		X^2=6.244	p=.05	X^2=4.768	N.S.	
Overall Satisfaction with supervision	Low	9(43)	15(27)	23(35)	15(56)	32(22)	16(21)	13(26)	18(41)
	Medium	3(14)	18(32)	34(37)	6(22)	49(35)	32(43)	12(24)	11(25)
	High	9(43)	23(41)	35(38)	6(22)	61(43)	27(36)	25(50)	15(34)
		X^2=4.839	N.S.		X^2=12.407	p=.001	X^2=10.103	p=.05	

TABLE 17 (Continued)

		Role Consensus			Role Acceptance		Uncertainty in Assignment		
		Low N %	Med. N %	High N %	Low N %	High N %	Low N %	Med. N %	High N %
Personal Evaluation of Performance:									
Job Rating on the self-anchoring scale	Low	15(71)	29(52)	34(37)	20(74)	58(41)	29(39)	21(42)	28(64)
	High	6(29)	27(48)	58(63)	7(26)	84(59)	46(61)	29(58)	16(36)
		X^2=9.244		p=.01	X^2=10.079	p=.01	X^2=7.450	p=.05	
Satisfaction with own achievement	Low	8(38)	32(57)	40(44)	22(82)	58(41)	33(44)	23(46)	24(54)
	Medium	11(52)	10(18)	26(28)	5(18)	42(30)	22(29)	14(28)	11(25)
	High	2(10)	14(25)	26(28)	0(0)	42(30)	20(27)	13(26)	9(21)
		X^2=10.782		p=.05	X^2=16.898	p=.001	X^2=1.335	N.S.	
Project was successful/ appropriate	Low	7(33)	10(18)	16(17)	6(22)	27(19)	13(17)	10(20)	10(23)
	Medium	8(38)	33(59)	41(45)	17(63)	65(46)	38(51)	20(40)	24(54)
	High	6(29)	13(23)	35(38)	4(15)	50(35)	24(32)	20(40)	10(23)
		X^2=6.844		N.S.	X^2=4.455	N.S.	X^2=3.755	N.S.	

TABLE 18

ROLE ACCEPTANCE AND AID PERSONNEL RATINGS

AID Ratings	Role Acceptance Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Industry				
Low	8(31)	28(21)	36(23)	X^2=6.973
Medium	15(58)	54(41)	69(43)	
High	3(11)	51(38)	54(34	p=.05
Dependability				
Low	8(31)	22(17)	30(19)	X^2=5.646
Medium	16(61)	75(57)	91(58)	
High	2(8)	35(26)	37(23)	N.S. (near .05)
Initiative & Resourcefulness				
Low	13(50)	45(34)	58(36)	X^2=5.495
Medium	12(46)	58(44)	70(44)	
High	1(4)	30(23)	31(20)	N.S. (near .05)
Effectiveness in technical advice				
Low	13(52)	27(23)	40(28)	X^2=8.737
Medium	8(32)	68(59)	76(54)	
High	4(16)	21(18)	25(18)	p=.02
Productivity				
Low	11(58)	26(26)	37(31)	X^2=7.436
Medium	6(32)	57(58)	63(53)	
High	2(10)	16(16)	18(15)	p=.025
Insights into objectives of own program				
Low	8(31)	24(19)	32(21)	X^2=5.181
Medium	15(58)	63(49)	78(50)	
High	3(11)	42(33)	45(29)	N.S. (.10

performance. Although role consensus does not hold strong differences with other items, it is significantly associated with satisfaction with professional colleagues, high satisfaction with management, rated high on the self-anchoring scale, and high satisfaction with their own achievement.

An analysis of uncertainty in overseas assignment indicates that only three items are in the direction of our hypothesis VI, that high uncertainty in professional assignment overseas is significantly related to low personal satisfaction and performance. Low uncertainty in assignment is directly related to high satisfaction with one's discretion, and medium or high satisfaction with overall supervision. People having low uncertainty in professional work assignment rate high on the job rating scale.

AID Ratings

In relations to AID performance ratings, role consensus and uncertainty in assignment show no statistical difference. Therefore, our Research Hypotheses V and VI are not supported by AID ratings. However, six items out of 25 AID rating scales tend to support our Hypothesis IV on the role acceptance scale. High role acceptance by others are related to industry, dependability, initiative and resourcefulness, effectiveness in technical advice,

productivity, and insights into objectives of their own program.

Other Findings

In the analysis of attitudinal dimensions, role acceptance is associated with favorable attitudes toward governmental role involvement overseas, pro-management scale, and professional gratification. People who receive high role acceptance seem to have better counterpart relationships, for they express their sense that the host government is a non-authoritarian system. They feel that the counterpart organization has been helpful and also say that their relationship with counterparts has been positive.

It is interesting to note that role acceptance is highly related to occupational value items, such as status, striving and competitiveness, avenues to success, personal ego orientation, challenge, self-determination, obligation, and puritan and Calvinist notions. In terms of overseas job description, they interacted with high officials and were in negotiator or intermediary work but felt their work did not appear important in the country.

Role consensus tends to be associated with the pro-management scale. People who have high role consensus seem to say they have had positive counterpart relationships and that the counterpart organization has been

helpful. But they worked as teachers and trainers overseas, and they have perceived their occupation in terms of obligation or altruistic social goals.

Low uncertainty in assignment indicates high governmental role involvement, low praise of colleagues, less criticism of colleagues, high score on the pro-management scale, and high professional gratification.

Factors in Overseas Role Performance

Though all previous studies in the field have suggested several dimensions for overseas effectiveness grounds remain for the assumption that there may be something to the notion of role ambiguity factors in role performance overseas.

It would be of considerable interest to identify those characteristic individual role variables which are consistent across many situations and which would produce a role performance. Our research on role performance focused on two measures, one based on role ambiguity items and other based on role ambiguity items and performance items.

Rotation of Role Ambiguity Items

Our Research Hypothesis VII seeks to find out the most significant contributing factors in ambiguity in the professional role. In order to see a detailed analysis of tests, orthogonal varimax rotations were carried out. The

varimax procedure tends to maximize the replicability of factors from one subject factor to another.

The first four rotated factors of role ambiguity items are presented in Table 20 and are given a meaningful label. The matrix Table 19 is extracted from the four factors and accounts for 55 per cent of the total variance of the eleven role ambiguity items.

1. First Rotated Factor: Interpersonal Role

The first rotated factor is most clearly defined by Interpersonal Role, which suggests interpersonal meaning. These items concern role acceptance, role consensus, empathy, trust, and communication of ideas. They are positively loaded on these items but negatively loaded on the rest of the items.

2. Second Rotated Factor: Technical Role

The second factor contains three major items in the matrix that emphasize organizational knowledge and administrative practices, program knowledge, and demonstration of skills. But the first two items are negatively related to the latter item. This means that people who perceive highly the value of demonstration of skills are different from people who focused value on the other two items. A study of these items suggests that the factor may be called Technical Role.

3. Third Rotated Factor: Cultural Empathy

The third factor is loaded high only two items

TABLE 19

FACTOR PATTERN: VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX WITH ROLE AMBIGUITY ITEMS

Item Number	Role Ambiguity Items	Factor 1	2	3	4
1	Role Acceptance	.6274	-.1103	-.0865	-.0186
2	Role Consensus	.6252	.0708	-.0548	-.1625
3	Uncertainty in Assignment	-.3588	.2253	.0803	.4707
4	Demonstration of Skills	-.0485	.6473	.2023	-.0819
5	Cultural Knowledge	-.0980	.0649	.8958	-.0561
6	Organizational Knowledge and Administrative Practices	-.1031	-.7550	.1060	-.0328
7	Program Knowledge	.1045	-.7169	.0010	-.0411
8	Empathy	.5889	-.0402	.5559	.0497
9	Autonomy	.1856	.1988	.0563	-.7805
10	Communicating Ideas	.4974	.3482	-.0926	.4945
11	Trust	.5321	-.0154	.1468	-.2827

Trace = 11.000
Percentage of Trace = 54.61
Extracted by 4 Roots

TABLE 20

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS AMONG ROLE AMBIGUITY ITEMS

Item Number	Factor	Loading
	Factor 1	
1	Role Acceptance by Others	.6274
2	Role Consensus	.6252
8	Empathy	.5889
10	Trust	.5321
11	Communicating Ideas	.4974
	Factor II	
6	Organizational Knowledge and Administrative Practices	-.7550
7	Program Knowledge	-.7169
4	Demonstration of Skills	.6473
	Factor III	
2	Cultural Knowledge	.8958
8	Empathy	.5559
	Factor IV	
9	Autonomy	-.7805
10	Communicating Ideas	.4945
3	Uncertainty in Assignment	.4707
11	Trust	-.2027

which contain somewhat different meanings. The concern is understanding of cultural background; the second is empathy in interpersonal competence. This is an interesting combination. The factor is called Cultural Empathy, which implies not only knowledge about a particular culture but also awareness of people in the subject country.

4. Fourth Rotated Factor: Tolerance of Ambiguity

The last factor is defined by four items that indicate autonomy, communicating ideas, uncertainty in assignment, and trust. Although this factor bears some resemblance to Factor I, the direction is upon the notion of uncertainty in the professional work assignment. The items suggest that high uncertainty in assignment and communicating ideas is related to negative loadings of autonomy and trust. In other words, the respondents have a certain degree of tolerance for ambiguity and information in communication and tend to emphasize high autonomy and trust in the professional role relationship. The factor is therefore titled Tolerance of Ambiguity.

Performance Analysis

As seen in Table 21, the varimax rotation analysis on role ambiguity items and performance items, including the AID overall rating item, is extracted by five roots based on 53 per cent of the total variance. Thus, Table 22 suggests the kind of items contributing to each of

TABLE 21

VARIMAX FACTOR LOADINGS FOR ROLE PERFORMANCE CRITERIA AND ROLE AMBIGUITY ITEMS

	Item	Factor 1	2	3	4	5
1	Role Acceptance	.2284	-.0038	-.0407	.0298	.7336
2	Role Consensus	.5280	.1139	-.1066	-.0713	.2157
3	Uncertainty in Assignment	-.6849	.3021	.1231	.1510	.2090
4	Job Rating on Self-Anchoring Scale	.4973	-.0424	.0271	-.1711	.3432
5	Satisfaction with Own Achievement	.0995	-.0331	.0126	-.2967	.7345
6	Project Was Successful and Appropriate	.1519	-.0336	-.1584	-.6772	.2734
7	AID Overall Rating by Supervisor	.0583	-.1652	.6969	.3111	.2054
8	Demonstration of Skills	-.1110	.6310	.3042	-.0847	.0120
9	Cultural Knowledge	.0454	.1119	.6635	-.3016	-.1775
10	Organizational Knowledge and Administrative Practices	-.0413	-.7404	.0288	-.0449	-.0400
11	Program Knowledge	.0279	-.6703	.1735	.1878	.2714
12	Empathy	.5872	.0859	.3437	-.0745	.0841
13	Autonomy	.1929	.0635	.1539	-.6062	.0559
14	Communicating Ideas	.3764	.4796	-.2599	.3186	.1005
15	Trust	.5158	.0039	.1521	-.1725	.3287

Trace = 15.000
Percentage of Trace = 53.28
Extracted by 5 Roots

TABLE 22

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS OF ROLE PERFORMANCE RELATED TO ROLE AMBIGUITY ITEMS

Item Number	Factor	Loading
	Factor I	
3	Uncertainty in Assignment	-.6849
12	Empathy	.5872
2	Role Consensus	.5280
15	Trust	.5158
4	Job Rating on Self-Anchoring Scale	.4973
	Factor II	
10	Organizational Knowledge and Administrative Practices	-.7404
11	Program Knowledge	-.6703
8	Demonstration of Skills	.6310
	Factor III	
7	Aid Rating of Overall Performance	.6969
9	Cultural Knowledge	.6635
12	Empathy	.3437
	Factor IV	
6	Project Was Successful and Appropriate	-.6772
13	Autonomy	-.6062
7	AID Rating of Overall Performance	.3111
9	Cultural Knowledge	-.3016
5	Satisfaction with Own Achievement	-.2967
	Factor V	
5	Satisfaction with Own Achievement	.7345
1	Role Acceptance	.7336
4	Job Rating on Self-Anchoring Scale	.3432
15	Trust	.3287
6	Project Was Successful and Appropriate	.2734
11	Program Knowledge	.2714

these factors.

The first Factor I seems that Tolerance of Ambiguity and Interpersonal Role factors (Factors I and IV in Table 20) seem to go together in relation to performance criteria. When an individual has high Tolerance of Ambiguity and Interpersonal Role, he tends to rate high on the self-anchoring scale. This factor is called High Satisfier.

Factor II appears quite similar to the second factor in Table 20, Technical Role. Interestingly, Technical Role seems to hold no correlation with any of the performance items. Thus, this factor is titled Technical Role Achiever.

Factor III is also quite similar to the previous factor in its emphasis on Cultural Empathy; but here there is a greater correlation with AID supervisor rating of overall performance. Therefore, this factor is labeled as High Management-Concerned Performer with high cultural empathy.

Factor IV is not readily interpreted. On the one hand, the items indicate project success with high autonomy but, on the other hand, they emphasize cultural knowledge and satisfaction with one's own achievement. AID overall rating shows an opposition correlation. The factor can be characterized as Job Performer with high understanding of cultural background and his own autonomy. A High Job

Performer also tends to be rated high by his AID supervisor.

The items in Factor V appear to describe High Achiever with "Authentic Relationship" based on role acceptance, trust, and program knowledge of the mission and its own. In turn, an individual characterized as having Authentic Relationship derives high personal satisfaction with own achievement, rates high on the self-anchoring scale, and expresses a favorable evaluation of the project's objective and its success.

In summary, it is important to note that the number of actors describing interpersonal competence tend to have high correlations with an individual role performance in technical assistance overseas.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary of the Research Findings

Our study of overseas professional roles was undertaken with the purpose of determining whether the degree of ambiguity in the professional role is related to the individual's satisfaction and performance overseas. In order to see such a relationship, we have tested nine research hypotheses concerned with different perceptions on the ideal role categories, role consensus, role acceptance, uncertainty in professional assignment, and personal satisfaction and performance. The research results indicate that the above relationship has been satisfactorily confirmed and established. Based on Chi-square analysis, the data show the relationships in the expected direction in eight hypotheses but Research Hypothesis II in relation to the area of the world service.

In our Chi-square analysis, the roles of interpersonal competence and role acceptance tend to show most significant relationships related to personal satisfaction and evaluation of own performance as well as to the various intervening items.

Our first research hypothesis has proven that each professional discipline has perceptions about its own role different from those of other professions. The Education group tends to have high perceptions of interpersonal competence and understanding of the host culture. Moreover, they express high role consensus among role partners in their professional role relationship. Significant sources for their high perceptions may result from their favorable attitudes toward overseas experiences, professional motivation, cultural accommodation, and positive interpersonal relationships. In addition, they indicate high satisfaction from host people and high evaluation of the project success.

The Agriculture and Engineer groups have been identified with demonstration of professional skills and autonomy, as their ideal role overseas. They indicate the least favorable attitude about their overseas experience. This may be a reflection of low career development in technical assistance.

Since their overseas jobs have been in program planning and negotiation, Social Scientists show high perception of organizational and administrative knowledge as the ideal role. However, they also do not have significant relationships with attitudinal dimensions and other variables. Two significant differences are related to low role consensus and low satisfaction from host people.

In general, the findings of this study lend support to the basic theoretical explanation in which a professional discipline which perceives high interpersonal competence tends to have better overseas experiences in regards to cultural accommodation, interpersonal relationships, and personal satisfaction and evaluation of performance.

Our data also supports Hypothesis III and the three subhypotheses. The respondents perceived high interpersonal competence are more significantly related to personal satisfaction and evaluation of performance than the case in technical competence. Furthermore, our analysis showed an interesting correlation with AID rating items.

Most of the role categories in technical competence indicate no significant relationship with the criteria of satisfaction and performance, except for one or two significant indications. Interestingly, organizational knowledge and administrative practices tend to have high ratings on knowledge of AID practices, productivity, and effectiveness as supervisor and managerial effectiveness. People who perceive high program knowledge show high ratings on industry, dependability, knowledge of AID practices, and effectiveness of oral expression. They also receive relatively high ratings on productivity and thoroughness and accuracy of work overseas.

For the roles in interpersonal competence, while communicating ideas does not support the direction of our hypothesis, the other three roles--empathy, autonomy, and trust--indicate significant relationships with the criteria of satisfaction and performance.

The data on empathy analysis show the direct relationships with satisfaction from host people, rank and status, and satisfaction with professional colleagues. People in this category not only rated high on overseas job but also felt the project was successful and appropriate. Rating items significantly correlated with empathy are industry, initiative and resourcefulness, forcefulness and decisiveness, knowledge of AID practices, effectiveness of oral expression, effectiveness as supervisor, and managerial effectiveness.

Autonomy also shows an interesting indication. The respondents who perceived high autonomy feel that they have high social life satisfaction but tend to be dissatisfied with management and receive low productivity rating scores from supervisors. However, they rate high on initiative and resourcefulness and high on knowledge of AID administrative practices.

Communicating ideas is highly associated with the respondent's ability to get along with the local citizen. Trust in interpersonal competence apparently proves strong relationships with the criteria of satisfaction and

performance, as well as with AID rating items. People who have high perception of trust tended to have high satisfaction and evaluation of their own performance and also receive high ratings on nine items by their supervisors. However, they are generally relatively low on the productivity scale.

With our data we have learned that interpersonal roles tends to show more positive relationships with the criterion dimensions, including AID ratings, favorable attitudes toward host people, professional colleagues, mission, etc.

The three subhypotheses connecting with the ideal role are clearly supported by the data when the scales of technical roles and interpersonal roles are compared. High empathy and trust seem to be most significant items in relations to role acceptance, role consensus, and uncertainty in professional assignment. In addition, low autonomy indicates high uncertainty in their professional assignments.

Although Hypotheses IV through VI have been proved, role acceptance seems the strongest dimension in relation to the criteria of personal satisfaction and evaluation of performance, as well as to the attitudinal and other dimensions. However, role consensus and uncertainty in assignment do not show any significant difference with AID rating items, while role acceptance is directly related

to six significant items.

Role Ambiguity and Role Typology

The findings of the study have other implications that are perhaps of more importance. Our Hypothesis VII, concerning a factor analysis of role ambiguity items, suggests that the most meaningful overseas role factors contributing to role ambiguity in the professional role are the following: Interpersonal Role, Technical Role, Cultural Empathy, and Tolerance of Ambiguity. These factors provide us with a useful and comprehensive framework which consists of many dimensions involved in role ambiguity in the professional work. Among these role factors, Technical Role may be the least significant factor based on a trend in Chi-square analysis.

The last Hypothesis, VIII, seems to provide an additional tool for analyzing role performance which also contains the previous factors. These factors are labeled in terms of types of role performance: High Satisfier with Work and Environment, Technical Role Achiever, High Management-Concerned Performer, Job Performer, and High Achiever with "Authentic Relationship."

Thus, this study suggests five role typologies based on an analysis of the 169 AID respondents. The suggestive role typologies according to their performance orientations are as follows:

Type I: Satisfier with Job and Environment

An individual has low uncertainty in professional assignment; high empathy and trust; high role consensus; high job rating on self-anchoring scale.

Type II: Technical Role Achiever

Oriented to organizational knowledge and administrative practice; high degree of program knowledge; or oriented to demonstration of skills.

Type III: Management-Concerned Performer

Oriented to cultural knowledge; empahty; highly favorable attitude toward management.

Type IV: Job Performer

Oriented to his own job with high autonomy; understands cultural knowledge; high satisfaction with own achievement and high evaluation of organizational objectives.

Type V: High Achiever with "Authentic Relationship"

Emphasize high trust; oriented toward role acceptance; program knowledge; high attitudes toward own achievement, job rating, and organizational success.

The above typologies are suggested for further research and provides an additional dimension for analyzing the professional's performance in the overseas performance.

Methodological Contribution and Its Limitations

This study has made a methodological contribution. It has been shown that the ambiguity in the professional role can be studied in research in terms of a perceptual approach of the professional role. The selected role ambiguity items have been fruitfully analyzed in relation to many dimensions included in the USC research project. For example, the role ambiguity items have been examined logically in relation to a large body of the project data, which consists of items of personal background, attitudinal and occupational values, job description, AID ratings by supervisor, and the selected criteria of personal satisfaction and performance.

If there is another methodological contribution, it is this: An analysis of factor rotation can be used for organizational study in order to simplify many variables into the meaningful factor roots. However, it must be understood that all factor names are arbitrary and are attempted purposely as a simplistic label of the factor. The reader may wish to interpret the factors in a somewhat different manner or to use another suggestive name in his known interest. Although the factor names are arbitrary, the varimax loadings of the items on factors are not; and, therefore, a factor label is the structure of the factor rather than the factor labels themselves with which we

are addressed.

The findings of our data in this study are only suggestive of role analysis of a particular sample of 169 AID respondents who have been serving in overseas technical assistance. Thus, the tables of data demonstrate the variations among our particular sample on their role perceptions, attitudes based on overseas experience, different degrees of performance ratings by supervisor, etc. An important point is that our respondents expressed their feelings according to the various scales, not by how they accidentally happen to answer low or high on many dimensions.

Training Needs and Rating Improvement in Overseas Management

Since our research findings suggest that ambiguity in the overseas professional role is positively related to the personal satisfaction and performance, it is possible to recommend what trainings are desired for the professional disciplines.

Although the current job descriptions of Social Scientists are primarily focused on program planning and negotiation, these are technical roles, which may well be the reason for low interpersonal competence and high role ambiguity. The data from this study suggest that they will encounter conflicts due to low role consensus among role partners. They apparently need more insight into

mutual trust.

Since the respondents from Agriculture and Engineering had high demonstration of skills to host people, it would be of value to those groups for the success of the project if the other roles were clarified and redefined in terms of professional assignment. With this effort, AID could expect career development in technical assistance which would be derived from their own satisfaction with achievement.

The Educators prove to be highly satisfied with their role performance. Nevertheless, they indicate low language competence and low orientation before going overseas. On the other hand, people perceive low trust in our data indicated high language competence and orientation. Therefore, rather than spending a lot of effort on general orientation and demanding more language competence, AID effort should be focused on the development of interpersonal role competence as a means of increasing tolerance of ambiguity in the professional role.

This researcher feels that four role factors--Interpersonal Role, Technical Role, Cultural Empathy, and Tolerance of Ambiguity--may well be adopted by AID as the alternative rating criteria for measuring an advisor's performance. For each role factor, one may introduce a different scale of evaluation.

For evaluating overall performance of overseas

effectiveness, the types of role performance can be also used. As an example, AID may use five levels of performance evaluation according to each type of role performer.

Implications on Organizational Theory

The study of professional role can be used in understanding the interrelationship of roles in organizations. In the development of a theoretical framework for this research, the concept of professional role in the organization was operationally defined as consisting of sets of behaviors that are consistent for an appropriate social position and that are perceptually shared by role partners in the social position. Thus, role perceptions are viewed as the subjective evaluation and interpretation of the role of the individual as examined by technical roles and interpersonal roles. By the use of the ideal role as conceptual units, professional roles have been studied in relation to certain satisfaction and performance, attitudes, etc. Role perception of the ideal role shows relatively consistent identity. For example, people who perceived high understanding of cultural knowledge tend to have high cultural accommodation and positive interpersonal relationships. The high empathy group tends to show favorable attitudes toward governmental role involvement, cultural accommodation, low excessive bureaucracy, pro-management, and professional gratification.

A group perceiving high autonomy is identified with the young age group, closer to Democrat, liberal, more experience overseas, and not accompanied by children. Moreover, a professional person who perceives high autonomy tends to have personal ego orientation, challenge, and self-determination.

Our study also provides a measure of the importance of interpersonal competence in the professional organization. The degree of interpersonal competence puts into a highly analytical framework. Interpersonal competence involves authentic relationship in organization and requires high perceptions of interpersonal roles. Thus it tends to be subjective as well as evaluative in relation to performance. This reduces the problem of individual differences since an individual perceived a high interpersonal roles tends to be accepted by others in the professional role relationship. Figure 3 gives a depiction.

Figure 3 relates the professional satisfaction of job and performance to the degree of interpersonal competence in organization. The perception of interpersonal competence scale shows the behavioral effect upon people in that organization. One might expect the relationship between these two dimensions as indicated in Figure 4.

The degree of technical competence may have different relationships.

FIGURE 3

INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE AND PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

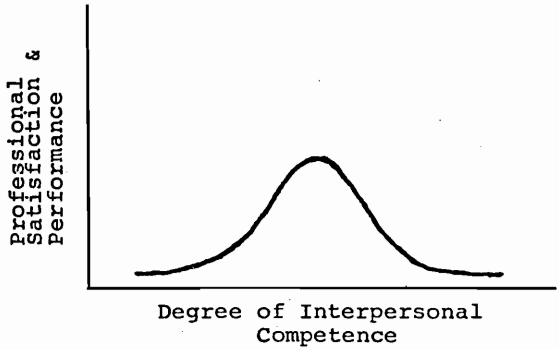


FIGURE 4

INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE AND BEHAVIORAL OUTCOME OF SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

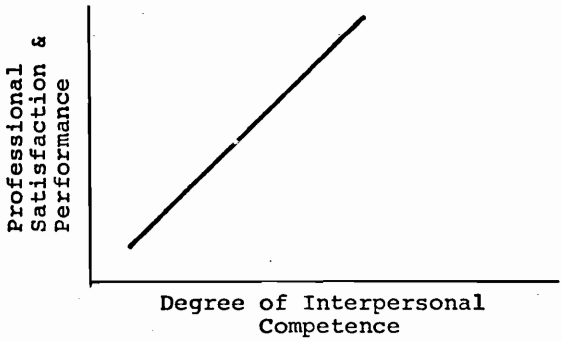


FIGURE 5

TECHNICAL COMPETENCE AND PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

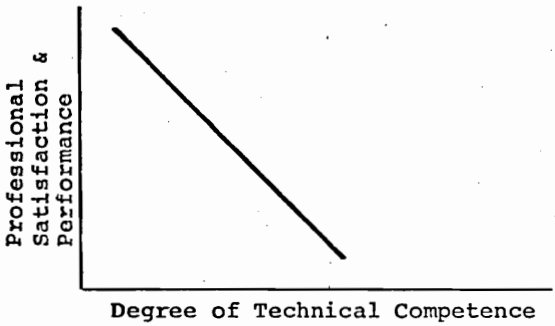
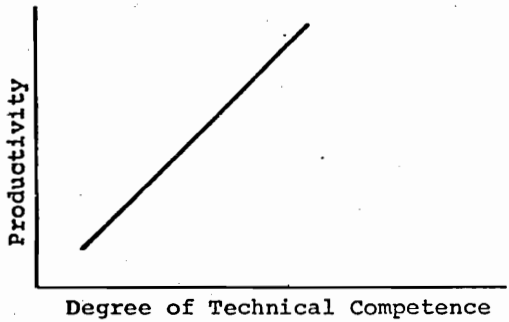


FIGURE 6

TECHNICAL COMPETENCE AND PRODUCTIVITY



As shown in Figure 5, we may hypothesize that the degree of technical competence is negatively related to satisfaction of job and performance. In terms of productivity, technical competence tends to have a positive relationship. Theoretically, the relationships in Figures 5 and 6 are closer to the characteristic of the scientific management and the ideal type of bureacracy. For example, the scientific management school emphasized an individual capability of performing a certain functions in an organization, while the Weberien bureaucracy stressed the competence of technical experts. Therefore, both approaches focused on "efficienty" and productivity which involve depersonalization in organization. In a contemporary version, this management assumption is closer to McGregor's Theory X.

Since numerous current organization theorists suggest integrating the needs of the individual and an organization, the relationship in Figures 3 and 4 seem to provide an additional framework for contemporary management. For the professional organization which consists of people who have highly trained in their technical field, management should encourage the individual's interpersonal roles and authentic relationship in an organization.

Integrating the needs of the individual and the organization in relation to the environmental context has been discussed by Argyris. He postulates this integration

in order to accomplish the goals of an organization. On the other hand, for the continuous change in the social context, the members of the organization as well as management have to be perceptive and adaptive to the environment.[1] These notions suggest to us that management requires internal stability and flexibility with the environment.

Our research seems to support the view that the professional discipline emphasizing high technical competence tends to have more organization and internal orientation, while another discipline perceiving high interpersonal competence tends to have a high environmental orientation. For example, Social Scientists are identified as pro-management, with high organizational and administrative orientation. Even though they have a high degree of empathy, there is no indication of high trust toward other role partners. They rather express low role consensus among colleagues, host professionals, and the mission.

On the other hand, the Educators with high interpersonal role involvement reveal that they have an active participation with the client and high environmental accommodation, as well as positive interpersonal

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[1]Chris Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966).

relationships within an organization. Demonstration of professional skills and program knowledge in the technical assistance role indicates a correlation with high productivity in AID rating. Productivity may be a good profit for a short-range aim, but it does not insure authentic relationship among role partners.

In summary, it seems to us that high performance of interpersonal roles within the organizational environment may be more likely to bring a dynamic change and survival of the organization. Providing a more flexible working environment for the professionals and improving their interpersonal competence appear to be the prime managerial responsibilities for today's organization, as well as for the management in technical assistance.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERSONAL SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE BY PROFESSIONAL DISCIPLINES

		Professional Discipline					
		AG	ED	EN	S/S	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Personal Satisfaction:							
Satisfaction from host people	Low	21(47)	11(25)	19(52)	27(62)	78(46)	X^2=35.296
	Medium	13(30)	15(33)	12(32)	14(33)	54(32)	p=.001
	High	10(23)	19(42)	6(16)	2(5)	37(22)	
Satisfaction with family env't.	Low	13(30)	11(24)	8(28)	12(28)	44(26)	X^2=3.935
	Medium	24(54)	21(47)	23(62)	23(54)	91(54)	N.S.
	High	7(16)	13(29)	6(16)	8(19)	34(20)	
Satisfaction with social life	Low	8(18)	8(18)	10(27)	9(21)	35(21)	X^2=7.450
	Medium	31(70)	27(60)	22(60)	92(74)	112(66)	N.S.
	High	5(11)	10(22)	5(13)	2(5)	22(13)	
Satisfaction with Rank and Status	Low	19(43)	15(33)	10(27)	9(21)	53(31)	X^2=7.904
	Medium	6(14)	11(24)	12(32)	14(33)	43(25)	N.S.
	High	19(43)	19(42)	15(41)	20(46)	73(43)	
Satisfaction with professional colleagues	Low	18(41)	19(42)	19(51)	29(46)	76(45)	X^2=1.951
	Medium	15(34)	18(40)	12(32)	15(35)	60(36)	N.S.
	High	11(25)	8(18)	6(16)	8(19)	33(20)	

APPENDIX 1 (Continued)

		Professional Discipline					
		AG	ED	EN	S/S	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Dissatisfaction with management	Low	21(48)	24(53)	21(57)	23(54)	89(53)	X^2=2.761
	Medium	16(36)	14(31)	12(32)	17(40)	59(35)	N.S.
	High	7(16)	7(16)	4(11)	3(7)	21(12)	
Overall Satisfaction with supervision	Low	18(41)	11(24)	7(19)	11(26)	47(28)	X^2=7.224
	Medium	10(23)	16(36)	12(32)	17(40)	55(32)	N.S.
	High	16(36)	18(40)	18(49)	15(35)	67(40)	
Personal Evaluation of Overseas Performance:							
Job Rating on Self-Anchoring Scale	Low	24(54)	18(40)	14(38)	22(51)	78(46)	X^2=3.396
	High	20(46)	27(60)	23(62)	21(49)	91(54)	N.S.
Satisfaction with own achievement	Low	27(61)	19(42)	14(38)	20(46)	80(47)	X^2=10.120
	Medium	6(14)	12(27)	13(35)	16(37)	47(28)	N.S.
	High	11(25)	14(31)	10(27)	7(16)	42(25)	
Project was Successful/ Appropriate	Low	15(34)	3(7)	6(16)	9(21)	33(20)	X^2=20.477
	Medium	19(43)	21(47)	25(68)	17(40)	82(48)	p=.01
	High	10(23)	21(47)	6(16)	17(40)	54(32)	

APPENDIX 2

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AID OVERSEAS RATINGS BY SUPERVISOR AND PROFESSIONAL DISCIPLINES

Rating Items		Professional Discipline					
		AG	ED	EN	S/S	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Judgement							
	Low	12(29)	19(46)	10(29)	7(17)	48(30)	X^2=10.583
	Medium	25(59)	21(51)	22(63)	28(68)	96(60)	N.S.(.10)
	High	5(12)	1(2)	3(9)	6(15)	15(10)	
Forcefulness and Deci-	Low	15(36)	19(46)	20(57)	11(27)	65(41)	X^2=12.903
civeness	Medium	24(57)	16(39)	12(34)	20(49)	72(45)	p=.05
	High	3(7)	6(15)	3(9)	10(24)	22(14)	
Cooperativeness							
	Low	10(24)	8(20)	9(26)	5(12)	32(20)	X^2=10.358
	Medium	23(55)	27(65)	14(40)	20(49)	84(53)	N.S. (.10)
	High	9(21)	6(15)	12(34)	16(39)	43(27)	
Knowledge of ICA/AID	Low	24(60)	23(56)	19(61)	7(18)	73(49)	X^2=18.855
practice	High	16(40)	18(44)	12(39)	31(82)	77(51)	p=.001
Knowledge and understand-	Low	23(56)	20(49)	18(58)	10(24)	71(46)	X^2=19.958
ing of o/v	Medium	15(37)	19(46)	12(39)	20(49)	66(33)	p=.01
program	High	3(7)	2(5)	1 (3)	11(27)	17(11)	

APPENDIX 2 (Continued)

		Professional Discipline					
		AG	ED	EN	S/S	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Thoroughness and accuracy of work	Low	11(26)	14(34)	12(34)	4(10)	41(26)	X^2=15.599
	Medium	24(57)	26(63)	15(43)	27(66)	92(58)	p=.01
	High	7(17)	1(2)	8(23)	10(24)	26(16)	
Power and accuracy of observation	Low	13(32)	17(41)	14(43)	5(13)	49(32)	X^2=15.001
	Medium	24(58)	22(54)	13(39)	26(65)	85(55)	p=.02
	High	4(10)	2(5)	6(18)	9(22)	21(13)	
Effectiveness of written expression	Low	18(43)	16(39)	18(51)	4(10)	56(35)	X^2=20.078
	Medium	22(52)	21(51)	12(34)	27(68)	82(52)	p=.005
	High	2(5)	4(10)	5(14)	9(22)	20(13)	
Effectiveness as supervisor & managerial effectiveness	Low	21(58)	10(29)	13(46)	11(38)	55(43)	X^2=6.437
	High	15(42)	24(71)	15(54)	18(62)	72(57)	p=.05
Overall evaluation of performance effectivenss	Low	11(26)	10(24)	12(34)	7(17)	40(25)	X^2=6.441
	Medium	29(69)	28(68)	18(51)	28(68)	103(65)	N.S.
	High	2(5)	3(7)	5(14)	6(15)	16(10)	

APPENDIX 3

DIFFERENCES IN PERSONAL BACKGROUNDS, BY THE AREA OF WORLD SERVICE

		Area of World Service					
		AF	L/A	F/A	NE/SA	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Travel Experience							
	Low	6(21)	23(44)	15(33)	6(14)	50(30)	X^2=11.592
	Medium	14(48)	20(39)	18(40)	22(54)	74(44)	p=.05
	High	9(31)	9(17)	12(27)	13(32)	43(26)	
Year Returned from subject country	1963/1964	10(34)	18(35)	25(56)	21(51)	74(44)	X^2=6.215
	Prior to 1962	19(66)	34(65)	20(44)	20(49)	93(56)	N.S.
Professional experience in technical assistance	3-over	24(83)	39(75)	42(93)	39(95)	144(86)	X^2=10.458
	1-2	5(17)	13(25)	3(7)	2(5)	23(14)	p=.05
Prior t.a. experience	Low	6(21)	10(19)	15(33)	17(41)	48(29)	X^2=11.466
	Medium	9(31)	20(39)	20(44)	13(32)	62(37)	p=.05
	High	14(48)	22(42)	10(22)	11(27)	57(34)	
Size of mission							
	Small	13(45)	18(35)	3(7)	8(19)	42(25)	X^2=17.896
	Middle	8(28)	21(40)	24(53)	18(44)	71(43)	p=.005
	Large	8(28)	13(25)	18(40)	15(37)	54(32)	
Prior visit to subject country	Visited	26(90)	32(62)	34(76)	32(78)	124(74)	X^2=8.344
	Not Visited	3(10)	20(38)	11(24)	9(22)	43(26)	p=.02

APPENDIX 4

RATING DIFFERENCES BY THE AREA OF WORLD SERVICE

Rating Items		Area of World Service					
		AF	L/A	F/A	NE/SA	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Industry	Low	10(36)	10(21)	10(23)	6(16)	36(23)	X^2=10.953
	Medium	11(39)	25(53)	20(45)	12(32)	68(43)	N.S.
	High	7(25)	12(26)	14(32)	20(52)	53(34)	
Dependability	Low	5(18)	11(23)	9(21)	5(13)	30(19)	X^2=10.002
	Medium	18(64)	27(57)	27(63)	17(45)	89(57)	N.S.
	High	5(18)	9(19)	7(16)	16(42)	37(24)	
Judgement	Low	8(28)	16(34)	18(41)	6(16)	48(31)	X^2=16.377
	Medium	19(68)	27(57)	25(57)	23(60)	94(60)	p=.01
	High	1(4)	4(9)	1(2)	9(24)	15(9)	
Adaptability	Low	6(21)	15(32)	19(43)	10(26)	50(32)	X^2=11.715
	Medium	20(71)	21(45)	22(50)	20(53)	83(53)	p=.05
	High	2(7)	11(23)	3(7)	8(21)	24(15)	
Tactfulness and patience	Low	16(57)	13(28)	19(43)	13(34)	61(39)	X^2=10.972
	Medium	12(43)	27(57)	17(39)	19(50)	75(48)	N.S.(.10)
	High	0(0)	7(15)	8(18)	6(16)	21(13)	
Conduct and good manner	Low	1(4)	4(8)	10(23)	3(8)	18(11)	X^2=16.830
	Medium	23(82)	23(49)	25(57)	23(60)	94(60)	p=.005
	High	4(14)	20(43)	9(20)	12(32)	45(29)	
Technical Competence	Low	21(81)	28(62)	34(77)	21(55)	104(68)	X^2=7.207
	High	5(19)	17(38)	10(23)	17(45)	49(32)	N.S.(.10)

APPENDIX 4 (Continued)

Rating Items		Area of World Service					
		AF	L/A	F/A	NE/SA	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Ability to get along with Am. associates	Low	10(36)	8(17)	11(25)	6(16)	35(22)	X^2=16.138
	Medium	18(64)	26(55)	30(68)	25(66)	99(63)	p=.01
	High	0(0)	13(28)	3(7)	7(18)	23(15)	
Insights into objectives of own program	Low	7(26)	9(19)	10(23)	6(16)	32(21)	X^2=10.734
	Medium	16(59)	21(46)	25(58)	14(38)	76(50)	N.S.(.10)
	High	4(15)	16(35)	8(19)	17(46)	45(29)	
Thoroughness & accuracy of work	Low	8(28)	15(32)	14(32)	4(10)	41(26)	X^2=22.499
	Medium	19(68)	26(55)	26(59)	19(50)	90(57)	p=.001
	High	1(4)	6(13)	4(9)	15(40)	26(17)	
Power & accuracy of observation	Low	8(30)	19(40)	15(37)	6(16)	48(31)	X^2=19.532
	Medium	19(70)	24(51)	21(51)	20(53)	84(55)	p=.005
	High	0(0)	4(9)	5(12)	12(31)	21(14)	
Negotiating ability	Low	9(38)	18(42)	20(49)	9(26)	56(39)	X^2=14.509
	Medium	15(62)	19(44)	18(44)	16(46)	68(48)	p=.02
	High	0(0)	6(14)	3(7)	10(28)	19(13)	
Effectiveness as supervisor and managerial effectiveness	Low	16(73)	15(43)	13(34)	10(33)	54(33)	X^2=10.260
	High	6(27)	20(57)	25(66)	20(67)	71(57)	p=.02

APPENDIX 4 (Continued)

		Area of World Service					
		AF	L/A	F/A	NE/SA	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Security Consciousness	Low	8(32)	13(34)	15(38)	4(12)	40(30)	X^2=12.182
	Medium	16(64)	16(42)	17(44)	19(58)	68(50)	p=.05
	High	1(4)	9(24)	7(18)	10(30)	27(50)	
Overall rating of effectiveness	Low	8(29)	11(23)	14(32)	6(16)	39(25)	X^2=8.749
	Medium	19(68)	32(68)	27(61)	24(63)	102(65)	N.S.
	High	1(4)	4(9)	3(7)	8(21)	16(10)	

APPENDIX 5

DEMONSTRATION OF SKILLS, RELATED TO INTERVENING DIMENSIONS

Dimensions		Demonstration of Skills			
		Low	High	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	
Personal-Descriptive:					
Rank	Technician	35(39)	49(62)	84(50)	X^2=9.008
	Respondent with Rank	55(61)	30(38)	85(50)	p=.01
Professional experience in t.a.	Low	82(91)	64(81)	146(86)	X^2=3.649
	High	8(9)	15(19)	23(14)	N.S. (near .05)
Size of Mission	Small	30(33)	14(18)	44(26)	
	Middle	39(43)	32(40)	71(42)	X^2=8.495
	Large	21(23)	33(42)	54(32)	p=.02
Attitudinal Dimensions:					
Interest in public affairs	Low	15(17)	24(30)	39(23)	X^2=7.162
	Medium	55(61)	47(60)	102(60)	p=.05
	High	20(22)	8(10)	28(17)	
Cultural accommodation	Low	33(40)	24(32)	57(36)	X^2=5.505
	Medium	33(40)	23(31)	56(35)	N.S. (near .05)
	High	17(20	28(37)	45(29)	
Counterpart Relationship: Positive	Low	26(37)	14(22)	40(29)	X^2=3.718
	High	45(63)	51(78)	96(71)	N.S. (near .05)
Career Development	Low	38(42)	44(56)	82(48)	X^2=3.058
	High	52(58)	35(44)	87(52)	N.S. (near .05)
Job Description:					
Interacted with high officials	Low	60(67)	42(53)	102(60)	X^2=3.205
	High	30(33)	37(47)	67(40)	N.S. (near .05)
Work appears important	Low	63(70)	36(46)	99(59)	X^2=10.349
	High	27(30)	43(54)	70(41)	p=.001

APPENDIX 6

KNOWLEDGE OF HOST CULTURE, RELATED TO INTERVENING DIMENSIONS

Dimensions		Knowledge of Host Culture: Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Personal-Descriptive:					
Education	Bachelor's degree	55(44)	11(25)	66(39)	X^2=4.936
	Master's & Doctor's degree	70(56)	33(75)	103(61)	p=.025
Experience in developing countries	Low	22(18)	2(5)	24(14)	X^2=4..656
	Medium	81(65)	34(77)	115(68)	N.S.(.10)
	High	22(18)	8(18)	30(18)	
Occupational Values:					
Obligation	Low	49(39)	9(20)	58(34)	X^2=5.736
	Medium	45(36)	18(41)	63(37)	N.S.(near
	High	31(25)	17(39)	48(28)	.05)
Attitudinal Dimensions:					
Cultural accommodation	Low	46(39)	11(27)	57(36)	X^2=11.231
	Medium	46(39)	10(24)	56(35)	p=.01
	High	25(21)	20(49)	45(28)	
Positive interpersonal relationship	Low	27(22)	10(23)	37(22)	X^2=5.384
	Medium	60(48)	13(29)	73(43)	N.S.(near
	High	38(30)	21(48)	59(35)	.05)
Job Descriptions:					
Was negotiator/intermediary	Low	61(49)	14(32)	75(44)	X^2=3.802
	High	64(51)	30(68)	94(56)	N.S.(near .05)
Work "appears important"	Low	78(62)	21(48)	99(59)	X^2=2.888
	High	47(38)	23(52)	70(41)	N.S.(.10)

APPENDIX 7

ORGANIZATIONAL KNOWLEDGE AND ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES, RELATED TO INTERVENING DIMENSIONS

Dimensions		Organizational Knowledge & Administrative Practices: Low N (%)	High N (%)	Total N (%)	X^2
Personal-Descriptive:					
Experience in Developing Areas	Low	19 (21)	5 (6)	24 (14)	X^2=7.825
	Medium	59 (65)	56 (72)	115 (68)	p=.02
	High	13 (14)	17 (22)	30 (18)	
Size of Mission	Small	17 (19)	27 (34)	44 (26)	X^2=6.079
	Middle	40 (44)	31 (40)	71 (42)	p=.05
	Large	34 (37)	20 (26)	54 (32)	
Occupational Values:					
Financial Reward	Low	19 (21)	18 (23)	37 (22)	X^2=4.634
	Medium	48 (53)	29 (37)	77 (46)	N.S. (.10)
	High	24 (26)	31 (40)	55 (32)	
Avenues to Success	Low	30 (33)	25 (32)	55 (33)	X^2=6.224
	Medium	31 (34)	39 (50)	70 (41)	p=.05
	High	30 (33)	14 (18)	44 (26)	
Obligation	Low	23 (25)	35 (45)	58 (34)	X^2=8.150
	Medium	36 (40)	27 (35)	63 (37)	p=.02
	High	32 (35)	16 (20)	48 (28)	
Attitudinal Dimensions:					
Interest in Public Affairs	Low	30 (33)	9 (12)	39 (23)	X^2=12.668
	Medium	51 (56)	51 (65)	102 (60)	p=.01
	High	10 (11)	18 (23)	28 (17)	
Cultural accommodation	Low	30 (35)	27 (37)	57 (23)	X^2=4.918
	Medium	25 (29)	31 (42)	56 (35)	N.S. (.10)
	High	30 (35)	15 (21)	45 (29)	
Job Descriptions:					
Participated in program implementation	Low	66 (72)	65 (85)	131 (78)	X^2=2.814
	High	25 (28)	13 (17)	38 (22)	N.S. (.10)
Was negotiator/ intermediary	Low	47 (52)	28 (36)	75 (44)	X^2=4.221
	High	44 (48)	50 (64)	94 (56)	p=.05
Manager, supervisor, overviewer	Low	39 (43)	20 (26)	59 (35)	X^2=5.478
	High	52 (57)	58 (74)	110 (65)	p=.02

APPENDIX 8

PROGRAM KNOWLEDGE, RELATED TO INTERVENING DIMENSIONS

Dimensions		Program Knowledge Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Occupational Values:					
Financial rewards	Low	24(25)	13(18)	37(22)	X^2=5.388
	Medium	47(50)	30(40)	77(46)	N.S. (near
	High	24(25)	31(42)	55(32)	.05)
Personal relationship	Low	16(17)	8(11)	24(14)	X^2=5.008
	Medium	61(64)	59(80)	120(71)	N.S. (near
	High	18(19)	7(9)	25(15)	.05)
Puritan-Calvinist	Low	48(51)	37(50)	85(50)	X^2=6.646
	Medium	24(25)	29(39)	53(31)	p=.05
	High	23(24)	8(11)	31(18)	
Attitudinal Dimensions:					
Cultural Accommodation	Low	33(38)	24(33)	56(36)	X^2=5.119
	Medium	24(28)	29(39)	56(35)	N.S. (near
	High	29(34)	16(22)	45(29)	.05)
Praise of colleagues	Low	41(43)	17(23)	58(34)	X^2=7.878
	Medium	37(39)	36(49)	73(43)	p=.02
	High	17(18)	21(28)	38(23)	
Positive interpersonal relationship	Low	23(24)	14(19)	37(22)	X^2=9.016
	Medium	48(51)	25(34)	73(43)	p=.02
	High	25(24)	35(47)	59(35)	
Excessive bureaucracy	Low	7(7)	18(24)	25(15)	X^2=9.480
	Medium	63(66)	40(54)	103(61)	p=.01
	High	25(26)	16(22)	41(24)	
Recommends change	Low	39(41)	25(34)	64(38)	X^2=5.601
	Medium	40(42)	25(34)	65(38)	N.S. (near
	High	16(17)	24(32)	40(24)	.05)
Job Description:					
Manager/supervisor/overviewer	Low	39(41)	20(27)	59(35)	X^2=3.601
	High	56(59)	54(73)	110(65)	N.S. (near .05)

APPENDIX 9

EMPATHY AND INTERVENING DIMENSIONS

Dimensions		Empathy Low	Empathy High	Empathy Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	
Personal-Descriptive:					
Time on experience	Low	54(53)	25(37)	79(47)	X^2=3.967
	High	48(47)	42(63)	90(53)	p-.05
Occupational Values:					
Financial rewards	Low	21(21)	16(24)	37(22)	X^2=5.345
	Medium	41(40)	36(54)	77(46)	N.S. (near
	High	40(39)	15(22)	55(32)	.05)
Attitudinal Dimensions:					
Governmental role involvement	Low	35(34)	10(15)	45(27)	X^2=9.25
	Medium	40(39)	28(42)	68(40)	p=.01
	High	27(27)	29(43)	56(32)	
Cultural accommodation	Low	46(47)	11(18)	57(36)	X^2=24.558
	Medium	37(38)	19(32)	56(35)	p=.001
	High	15(15)	30(50)	45(29)	
Language competence	Low	32(31)	36(54)	68(40)	X^2=8.516
	Medium	29(28)	14(21)	43(25)	p=.02
	High	41(40)	17(25)	58(34)	
Excessive bureaucracy	Low	14(14)	11(16)	25(15)	X^2=7.105
	Medium	56(55)	47(70)	103(61)	p=.05
	High	32(31)	9(13)	41(24)	
Pro-management	Low	34(33)	12(18)	46(27)	X^2=5.979
	Medium	41(40)	28(42)	69(41)	p=.05
	High	27(27)	27(40)	54(32)	
Professional gratification	Low	39(38)	15(22)	54(32)	X^2=6.741
	Medium	35(34)	22(33)	57(34)	p=.05
	High	28(28)	30(45)	58(34)	

APPENDIX 10

AUTONOMY AND PERSONAL-DESCRIPTIVE DIMENSIONS

Personal-descriptive	Autonomy Low	High	Total	X^2
	N %	N %	N %	
Age				
Over 45	28(25)	5(9)	33(20)	X^2=6.684
Under 45	83(75)	53(91)	136(80)	p=.01
Political Party				
Closer to Dem.	40(36)	36(62)	76(45)	X^2=9.407
Closer to Rep.	71(64)	22(38)	93(55)	p=.001
Political Philosophy				
Liberal	16(21)	18(50)	34(31)	X^2=9.407
Conservative	59(79)	18(50)	77(69)	p=.01
Experience in developing areas				
Less experience	21(19)	3(5)	24(14)	X^2=5.935
Average	71(64)	44(76)	115(68)	p=.05
More experience	19(17)	11(19)	30(18)	
Prior interest in subject country				
Had experience	63(58)	20(35)	83(50)	X^2=8.064
No such experience	45(42)	37(65)	82(50)	p=.01
Prior visit to subject country				
Not visited	89(80)	37(64)	126(75)	X^2=5.393
Visited	22(20)	21(36)	43(25)	p=.02
Accompanies by children				
Not accompanied	51(46)	36(62)	87(52)	X^2=3.965
Accompanied by	60(54)	22(38)	82(48)	p=.05
Total months overseas				
Less time o/s	37(33)	20(34)	57(34)	X^2=5.969
Average time	59(53)	22(38)	81(48)	p=.05
More time o/s	15(14)	16(28)	31(18)	

APPENDIX 11

AUTONOMY, RELATED TO OCCUPATIONAL VALUES AND ATTITUDINAL DIMENSIONS

Items		Autonomy Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Occupational Values:					
Personal/Ego Orientation	Low	54(49)	15(26)	69(41)	X^2=8.187
	High	57(51)	43(74)	100(59)	p=.005
Challenge	Low	39(35)	9(16)	48(28)	X^2=7.210
	High	72(65)	49(84)	121(72)	p=.01
Self-determination	Low	70(63)	23(40)	93(55)	X^2=8.435
	High	41(37)	35(60)	76(45)	p=.005
Attitudinal Dimensions:					
Perception about host government	High authoritarianism	66(60)	24(41)	90(53)	X^2=5.002
	Low authoritarianism	45(40)	34(59)	79(47)	p=.025
Cultural accommodation	Low	38(37)	19(34)	57(36)	X^2=11.987
	Medium	44(43)	12(22)	56(36)	p=.025
	High	20(20)	24(44)	44(28)	
Counterpart relationship	Low	31(35)	9(20)	40(30)	X^2=3.390
	High	58(65)	37(80)	95(70)	N.S.(near .05)
Pro-management	Low	37(33)	9(16)	46(27)	X^2=6.142
	Medium	41(37)	28(48)	69(41)	p=.05
	High	33(30)	21(36)	54(32)	

APPENDIX 12

COMMUNICATING IDEAS AND INTERVENING DIMENSIONS

Dimensions		Communicating Ideas Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Personal Descriptive:					
Time in AID					
Joined after 1956		25(68)	67(51)	92(54)	X^2=3.292
Joined before 1955		12(32)	65(49)	77(46)	N.S. (near .05)
Prior visit to subject country					
Had visited		32(86)	94(71)	126(75)	X^2=3.534
Had not visited		5(14)	38(29)	43(25)	N.S. (near .05)
Occupational Values:					
Status	Low	11(30)	20(15)	31(18)	X^2=4.925
	Medium	22(59)	85(64)	107(63)	N.S. (.10)
	High	4(11)	27(20)	31(18)	
Job Description:					
Participated in program planning	Low	15(40)	81(61)	96(57)	X^2=5.107
	High	22(60)	51(39)	73(43)	p=.05
Teacher and trainer	Low	34(92)	102(77)	136(80)	X^2=3.931
	High	3(8)	30(23)	33(20)	p=.05

APPENDIX 13

TRUST AND INTERVENING DIMENSIONS

Items		Trust Low N %	Trust High N %	Trust Total N %	X^2
Personal-Descriptive:					
Political Philosophy					
Liberal		18(23)	16(47)	34(31)	X^2=6.225
Conservative		59(77)	18(53)	77(69)	p=.01
Prior interest in subject country	Low	67(57)	16(34)	83(50)	X^2=6.951
	High	51(43)	31(66)	82(50)	p=.01
Prior visit to subject country	Low	98(81)	28(58)	126(75)	X^2=9.301
	High	23(19)	20(42)	43(25)	p=.005
Occupational Values:					
Personal/Ego oriented	Low	55(46)	14(29)	69(41)	X^2=3.774
	High	66(54)	34(71)	100(59)	p=.05
Obligation	Low	47(39)	11(23)	58(34)	X^2=4.589
	Medium	44(36)	19(40)	63(37)	N.S.(.10)
	High	30(25)	18(38)	48(28)	
Puritan/ Calvinist	Low	65(54)	20(42)	85(50)	X^2=7.472
	Medium	40(33)	13(27)	53(31)	p=.025
	High	16(13)	15(31)	31(18)	
Job Description:					
Participated in program planning	Low	74(61)	22(46)	96(57)	X^2=3.289
	High	47(39)	26(54)	73(43)	N.S.(near .05)

APPENDIX 14

TRUST AND ATTITUDINAL DIMENSIONS

Item		Trust			
		Low	High	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	
Orientation	Low	51(42)	18(37)	69(41)	X^2=6.638
	Medium	35(29)	23(48)	58(34)	p=.05
	High	35(29)	7(15)	42(25)	
Criticized Political/ administrative system	Low	37(31)	25(52)	62(37)	X^2=7.989
	Medium	47(39)	16(33)	63(37)	p=.02
	High	37(31)	7(15)	44(26)	
Governmental role involvement	Low	39(32)	6(12)	45(27)	X^2=7.510
	Medium	47(39)	21(44)	68(40)	p=.05
	High	35(29)	21(44)	56(33)	
Cultural accom-modation	Low	47(41)	10(23)	57(36)	X^2=9.407
	Medium	42(37)	14(32)	56(35)	p=.01
	High	25(22)	20(45)	45(29)	
Language competence	Low	43(35)	25(52)	68(40)	X^2=4.552
	Medium	35(29)	8(17)	43(25)	N.S.(.10)
	High	43(35)	15(31)	58(34)	
Counterpart relationship	Low	34(35)	6(16)	40(29)	X^2=4.713
	High	64(65)	32(84)	96(71)	p=.05
Interpersonal relationship	Low	27(22)	10(21)	37(22)	X^2=7.461
	Medium	59(49)	14(29)	73(43)	p=.025
	High	35(29)	24(50)	59(35)	
Critical of colleagues	Low	36(30)	11(23)	47(28)	X^2=7.452
	Medium	74(61)	25(52)	99(59)	p=.025
	High	11(9)	12(25)	23(15)	

APPENDIX 15

ROLE ACCEPTANCE, RELATED TO ATTITUDINAL DIMENSIONS AND JOB DESCRIPTIONS

Items		Role Acceptance Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Attitudinal Dimensions:					
Perception of host government	Authoritarianism	19(70)	71(50)	90(53)	X^2=3.782
	Not Authoritarianism	8(30)	71(50)	79(47)	p=.05
Government role involvement	Low	13(48)	32(22)	45(27)	X^2=10.296
	Medium	11(41)	57(40)	68(40)	p=.01
	High	3(11)	53(37)	56(33)	
Counterpart organization helpful	Low	8(40)	16(13)	24(16)	X^2=10.415
	Medium	9(45)	67(52)	76(51)	p=.01
	High	3(15)	45(35)	48(32)	
Counterpart relationship	Low	10(44)	30(26)	40(29)	X^2=2.638
	High	13(56)	83(74)	96(71)	N.S.(.10)
Pro-management	Low	11(41)	35(25)	46(27)	X^2=5.215
	Medium	12(44)	57(40)	39(41)	N.S.(near .05)
	High	4(15)	50(35)	54(32)	
Professional gratification	Low	13(48)	41(29)	54(32)	X^2=4.977
	Medium	9(33)	48(34)	57(34)	N.S.(.10)
	High	5(19)	53(37)	58(34)	
Job Descriptions:					
Interacted with high officials	Low	9(33)	93(66)	102(60)	X^2=9.806
	High	18(67)	49(34)	67(40)	p=.001
Was negotiator/ intermediary	Low	7(26)	68(48)	75(44)	X^2=4.433
	High	20(74)	74(52)	94(56)	p=.05
Work "appears new in country"	Low	13(48)	97(68)	110(65)	X^2=4.058
	High	14(52)	45(32)	59(35)	p=.05

APPENDIX 16

ROLE ACCEPTANCE AND OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Items		Role Acceptance Low N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Status	Low	12(44)	19(13)	31(18)	X^2=16.356
	Medium	14(42)	93(66)	107(63)	p=.001
	High	1(4)	30(21)	31(18)	
Striving and Competiveness	Low	13(48)	41(29)	54(32)	X^2=5.586
	Medium	12(44)	67(47)	79(47)	N.S. (near .05)
	High	7(2)	34(24)	36(21)	
Avenues to success	Low	15(56)	40(28)	55(32)	X^2=9.660
	Medium	10(37)	60(42)	70(41)	p=.01
	High	2(7)	42(30)	44(26)	
Personal-ego oriented	Low	17(63)	52(37)	69(41)	X^2=6.517
	High	10(37)	90(63)	100(59)	p=.01
Challenge	Low	12(44)	36(25)	48(28)	X^2=4.067
	High	15(56)	106(75)	121(72)	p=.05
Self-determination	Low	11(41)	82(58)	93(55)	X^2=2.651
	High	16(59)	60(42)	76(45)	N.S.(.10)
Obligation	Low	15(56)	43(30)	58(34)	X^2=11.228
	Medium	11(41)	52(37)	63(37)	p=.01
	High	1(4)	47(33)	44(28)	
Puritan/ Calvinism	Low	21(78)	64(45)	85(50)	X^2=11.575
	Medium	6(22)	47(33)	53(31)	p=.01
	High	0(0)	31(22)	31(18)	

APPENDIX 17

ROLE CONSENSUS AND INTERVENING DIMENSIONS

Dimensions		Role Consensus Low N %	Medium N %	High N %	Total N %	X^2
Attitudinal Dimensions:						
Counterpart organization: Helpful	Low	5(31)	11(23)	8(9)	24(16)	X^2=11.818
	Medium	10(63)	23(49)	43(51)	76(51)	p=.02
	High	1(6)	13(28)	34(40)	48(32)	
Counterpart relationship: Positive	Low	11(61)	12(28)	17(23)	40(29)	X^2=10.402
	High	7(39)	31(72)	58(77)	96(71)	p=.01
Pro-management	Low	10(48)	17(30)	19(21)	46(27)	X^2=9.645
	Medium	9(43)	19(34)	41(45)	69(41)	p=.05
	High	2(9)	20(36)	32(35)	54(32)	
Professional gratification	Low	7(33)	19(34)	28(30)	54(32)	X^2=7.133
	Medium	10(48)	22(39)	25(27)	57(34)	N.S. (near
	High	4(19)	15(27)	39(42)	58(34)	.05)
Occupational Values:						
Altruistic social goals	Low	2(10)	11(20)	18(20)	31(18)	X^2=8.163
	Medium	12(57)	24(43)	26(28)	62(37)	N.S. (.10)
	High	7(33)	21(37)	48(52)	76(45)	
Obligation	Low	10(48)	17(30)	31(34)	58(34)	X^2=10.693
	Medium	8(38)	28(50)	27(29)	63(37)	p=.05
	High	3(14)	11(20)	34(37)	48(28)	
Job Description:						
Teacher-trainer	Low	21(100)	46(82)	69(75)	136(80)	X^2=6.949
	High	0(0)	10(18)	23(25)	33(20)	p=.05

APPENDIX 18

UNCERTAINTY IN ASSIGNMENT AND ATTITUDINAL DIMENSIONS

Items		Uncertainty in Assignment				
		Low	Medium	High	Total	X^2
		N %	N %	N %	N %	
Governmental role involvement	Low	16(21)	13(26)	16(36)	45(27)	X^2=10.225
	Medium	26(35)	21(42)	21(48)	68(40)	p=.05
	High	33(44)	16(32)	7(16)	56(33)	
Praise of colleagues	Low	30(40)	20(40)	8(18)	58(34)	X^2=10.468
	Medium	30(40)	16(32)	27(61)	73(43)	p=.02
	High	15(20)	14(28)	9(21)	38(23)	
Critical of colleagues	Low	30(40)	8(16)	9(20)	47(28)	X^2=10.273
	Medium	37(49)	34(68)	28(64)	99(58)	p=.05
	High	8(11)	8(16)	7(16)	23(14)	
Pro-management	Low	15(20)	10(20)	21(48)	46(27)	X^2=19.189
	Medium	29(39)	21(42)	19(43)	69(41)	p=.001
	High	31(41)	19(38)	4(9)	54(32)	
Professional gratification	Low	19(25)	22(44)	13(29)	54(32)	X^2=10.729
	Medium	24(32)	12(24)	21(48)	57(34)	p=.025
	High	32(43)	16(32)	10(23)	58(34)	

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