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TRANSFORMATION OF ROLE OF FACULTY IN TEACHERS COLLEGES IN THAILAND

BY

SA-NGOP PRASERTPHAN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled TRANSFORMATION OF ROLE OF FACULTY IN TEACHERS COLLEGES IN THAILAND submitted by SA-NGOP PRASERTPHAN in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

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Dedication

For my mother and father--

and all my teachers and friends who help broaden my world vision

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to explore faculty members's perception of their role in teachers colleges of Thailand as these colleges undergo a change of mandate to more comprehensive postsecondary institutions. Aspects of professional development and job satisfaction also were explored.

The primary sources of data were questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and pertinent documents. Questionnaires were distributed to 729 full-time faculty members in four selected teachers colleges, two in Rattanakosin United Colleges (urban) and two in Lanna United Colleges (rural). The response rate was 64%. Fifteen faculty members were interviewed.

The findings indicated that college faculty members were less qualified than university faculty. College faculty were committed to teaching, research, service, and culture, but teaching was the function on which faculty spent the most time.

The six most important competencies for performing these four functions were (i) presenting up-to-date subject matter, (ii) providing effective instruction, (iii) reading professional journals, (iv) communicating effectively with students, (v) evaluating students, and (vi) encouraging class participation. The five competencies most in need of improvement were (i) involvement in research, (ii) writing for publication, (iii) attending professional conferences, (iv) reading professional journals, and (v) involving students in public service activities.

There were three levels of perceived priority for professional development. The highest priority was for research. Scholarship, culture and service were placed second. Teaching and student-related activities had the lowest perceived need for development. The five most preferred means of professional development were (i) travel grants, (ii) workshops, (iii) field experiences, (iv) conferences or seminars, and (v) study leaves.

Factors causing professional difficulties were lack of funds, facilities, and equipment; work load pressures; and attitudinal or commitment problems within the

college. Teaching was seen to be negatively affected by the quality of students. Research, service, and culture were inhibited by a lack of knowledge and expertise of faculty themselves.

The overall satisfaction of faculty members was rated as moderate. The five items for which the highest mean satisfaction scores were obtained were (i) level of responsibility in work, (ii) freedom to use one's own judgement, (iii) location of the college, (iv) relationship with students, and (v) reputation of the college. Two factors from the factor analysis of function activities--Teaching and Culture & Service--were the most significant predictors of overall satisfaction, but the strength of prediction was low.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Rapid socio-economic changes and the accelerated progress of knowledge, as well as its application to widely different fields, are among the factors which have given rise to and encouraged the expansion of higher education (UNESCO, 1989). The transformation of teachers colleges in Thailand is an example. In 1975, an amendment to the Teachers College Act authorized teachers colleges, under the jurisdiction of the Department of Teacher Education, to offer programs leading to a degree in education. A further amendment in 1984, authorized the teachers colleges to diversify their roles beyond teacher education. Since 1984 the teachers colleges have been gradually expanding their programs to other than teacher education and have become multi-purpose institutions. Later in 1987, the Department of Teacher Education officially aimed at upgrading the teachers colleges to university status. To achieve this, they must adopt the norms of the university and perform accordingly. Faculty members must expand their duties as well as interests beyond transmission of knowledge or teaching. They must place more emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge or research and publication to gain public trust.

To perform the functions of a university effectively and productively, the teachers colleges' faculty members must become aware of the process of change. According to Fullan (1979), there are five components to the change process--structure, materials, role/behavior change, knowledge utilization, and internalization. But when change did occur, Hopkins (1982) stated, what commonly happened was that the structure and materials components were met, and "sometimes also knowledge utilization" (pp. 19-20). Hopkins (1982) emphasized that it was becoming rare to find internalization, and role/behavior change. This may also apply to the change at the Thai teachers colleges.

Transformation of the teachers colleges has gained a great deal of public interest. Controversy has arisen concerning whether the teachers colleges' faculty members have performed their tasks effectively and productively. Therefore the researcher was interested

in studying how well the teachers colleges' faculty members have performed so far. Knowledge utilization and role/behavior change components are very much related to how well the faculty members have performed. The four basic functions of Thai universities--teaching, research, service, and cultural preservation and promotion (culture) which have been adopted by the teachers colleges--are the main missions that their faculty members are supposed to perform. From this point on the function of cultural preservation and promotion will be referred as "culture." The teachers college faculty must study the mission carefully and act accordingly. The staff of these transforming institutions need to possess a willingness and capacity to live with the process of transition. The teachers colleges and the people within them must be able to adapt to changing needs and situations. A rapid transition to this new mandate for the colleges is not likely to occur; this change is likely to take considerable time. Therefore, the college staff have to think in terms of a constant process of staff adjustment, institutional reorganization, and staff development in order to perform their new functions effectively and productively and thereby gain public trust.

The intent of this study, therefore, was to reveal perceptions of performance of teachers college faculty members. As well, the job satisfaction of faculty members was surveyed. Any possible gaps discovered from this study may be addressed by constructive suggestions for professional development.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to explore the role of faculty members in the teachers colleges of Thailand as these colleges undergo a change of mandate towards becoming comprehensive postsecondary institutions. In particular, the study focused on perceptions held by academic faculty. Not only role perceptions were explored, but also aspects of professional development as well as job satisfaction which are related to role enhancement. The study was guided by eight research questions.

Research Questions

The following research questions address the purpose of this study.

1. What are the demographic and professional qualifications of faculty members in teachers colleges? How do these compare with faculty members in traditional universities?
2. What are the functions of academic faculty in teachers colleges?
3. What is the perception of competencies required to perform these functions?
4. What are the priority areas of professional development?
5. What are the preferred means of delivering programs of professional development?
6. What particular barriers exist which create professional difficulties?
7. What is the overall level of satisfaction experienced by faculty members?
8. What is the effect of demographic variables upon perceptions related to faculty role performance?

Conceptual Framework for the Study

This study was designed to provide information which would contribute to improvement in the quality of task performance at the teachers colleges in Thailand.

The conceptual framework for this study was guided by the emergent role of teachers colleges as comprehensive postsecondary institutions which are engaged in performing four main functions: teaching (production of college graduates); research; service; and culture

Teaching is one of the basic components of higher education. Rosecrance (1962, cited in Mayhew, Ford & Hubbard, 1990) stated:

> The improvement of college teaching is central to the improvement of higher education and deserves more attention than it has heretofore received. Students come to college to learn from persons whose scholarship is greater than their own. They deserve the best that can be provided. The institution itself depends in great part on the quality of faculty, and the instruction given by it. (p. 143)

Research is another component of higher education needed to keep abreast with the frontiers of knowledge and to help maintain effectiveness of instruction. The research activities of a teachers college should be directly related to its instructional programs. In other words, there is a desire to maintain the links between research and teaching for the benefit of the students. In the teachers college, the function of research has been specified in the Teachers College Act (1975, 1984).

The third function of higher education is service. Kerr (1963) stated that "the university as producer, wholesaler, and retailer of knowledge cannot escape service" (p. 114). Service in Kerr's concept means public or community service, but in this study the researcher includes institutional service as well. The last but not least of the four basic functions is the function of culture. Historically, Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) stated that the function of culture first appeared in the Chulalongkorn University Act in 1943. Since then the mission of culture has been adopted by every university except the National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA) and teachers colleges.

The new mandate of the teachers colleges as regional multi-purpose higher education institutions should be beneficial to the communities they serve and to the country as a whole. They will help to locate effective human resource development outside of Bangkok, provide a more equalized opportunity to obtain higher education, and respond to the needs of the local people. Professional development of faculty appears to be a necessary element for the effective discharge of the expanded role of the newly reformed colleges.

Figure 1.1 presents a model depicting the transformation of teachers colleges from single-purpose institutions to multi-purpose institutions. Teachers colleges have diversified their roles beyond teacher education and adopted the traditional functions of Thai universities. After transformation, these reformed colleges have made an effort to be upgraded to university status. It is evident that a college or a university earns national and international reputations through the achievements of its faculty and the quality of its

students. As Flexner (1930) and Hutchins (1936) stated, the faculty are the most essential element of the university, therefore, attention must be paid to assess the teachers college faculty perceptions of role performance, their need for professional development, and their job satisfaction in order to reveal their actual performance and their need for improvement. A constructive professional development program was recommended for the teachers colleges by Greenaway and Harding (1978) as a means of helping staff perform as effectively and productively as possible in their emerging role and also to enhance their job satisfaction.

The conceptual framework shown in Figure 1.1 enables the researcher and the study's readers to see and understand the whole picture of the study. In other words, the model revealss the scope or limits of this study. In terms of application, the model has much to contribute to higher education institutions which are in the process of transformation to become aware of the particular elements essential to help enhance the emerging role.

Definitions of Terms

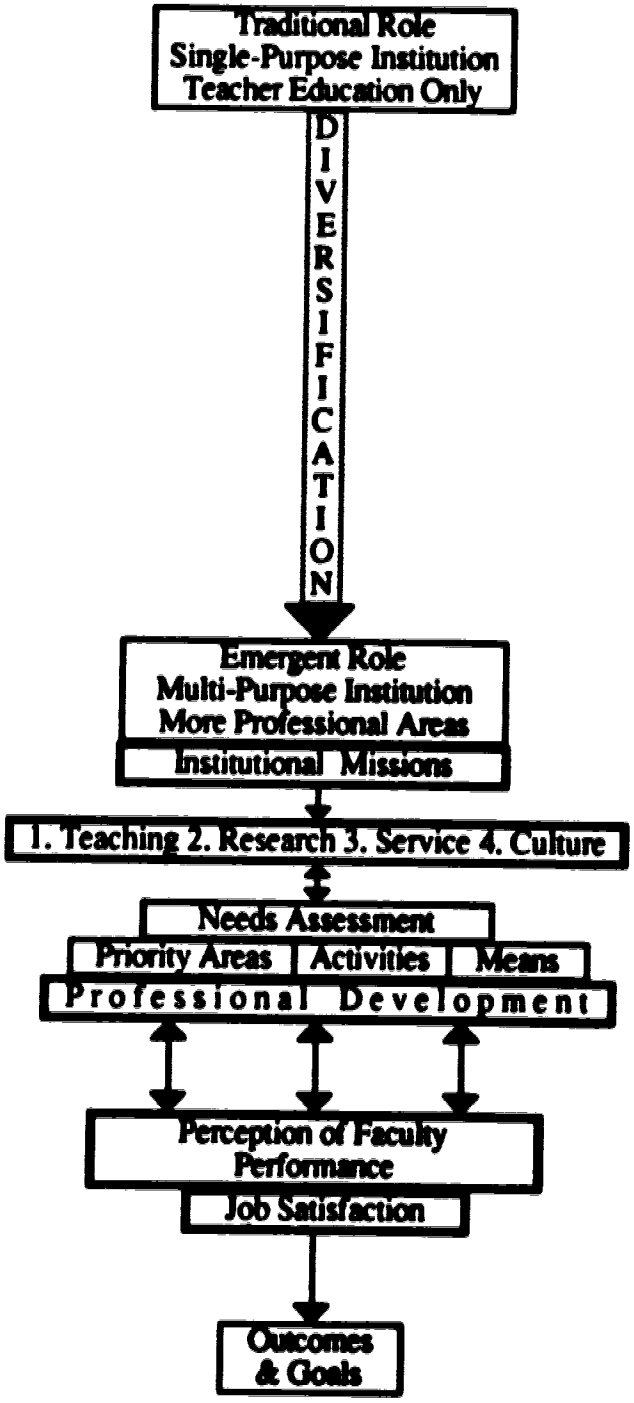
For the purpose of this study the terms used are defined as follows:

Reformed College. The term reformed college refers to the emergent institutional form of the teachers colleges as comprehensive postsecondary institutions.

Teachers Colleges. Government-administered higher education institutions under the jurisdiction of the Department of Teacher Education, the Ministry of Education.

United Colleges. Thirty-six teachers colleges were consolidated geographically into eight college systems to perform the tasks of higher education institutions.

University. University in this study refers to government higher education institutions under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of University Affairs.



Conceptual Framework of Perceptions of Faculty Role Performance

Figure 1.1

Staff/faculty/professional development. In this study the terms staff development, faculty development, and professional development are used interchangeably. Staff development refers to organized programs, activities, practices, and strategies intended to maintain and to improve the professional competence of individual college instructors in fulfilling their new role expectations.

College instructor/staff member/faculty member/lecturer. In this study, college instructor, staff member, faculty member, and lecturer are used interchangeably. A college faculty member is defined as a full-time faculty member who is primarily responsible for conducting learning activities for college students.

Needs assessment. Needs assessment is the process of determining the gap between what and where one is and what and where one ought to be.

Significance of the Study

If Thailand wants to compete in the world market, it must not only develop the required skills for its labour force but also a technical base for the business sector with the full and effective support from government. Thailand has to take part in this competition willingly with appropriate knowledge and technology not merely to survive but also to prosper. However, Thailand's economy can flourish only if it creates the kinds of educational opportunities that will draw out the full potential of its human resources. McConnell (1966) predicted that the need for education will continue to increase as society demands more highly educated human resource. McConnell (1966) further indicated that "social as well as economic pressures for access to higher education will increase" (p. 21). He reasoned that only higher education institutions, especially universities, can provide the kind of knowledge and technology needed to compete in both the local labour market and the world market.

The current problem of unequal opportunities to access higher education in Thailand still needs to be resolved. Watson (1991) revealed that 16 of the 24 government university

and 13 of the 25 private universities and colleges are located in Metropolitan Bangkok. There is a perception that people who live in remote areas are being ignored and therefore are losing their chances to compete equally for better lives. Furthermore, while there were 176,650 students graduating from grade 12 in Thailand in 1987, excluding the numbers of students who failed to enter the universities in the past years, the traditional universities could accept only 22,310 students (United Colleges of Isan-Nua 1987, p. 3). This fact indicates that Thailand still needs a lot more universities so that more of its people can access higher learning throughout the country. In fact, Olanvoravuth (1983) stated that the demand for university studies has far exceeded the capability of the government universities. Therefore, the upgrading of teachers colleges to universities may be one of the best possible answers available at the moment. If the teachers colleges were to be upgraded to university status, the quality of performance and academic qualifications of their faculty must meet accepted university standards. Whether the teachers colleges are able to make this transition is difficult to determine. One possible way to determine their potential for doing so is to assess the qualifications, functions, competencies, professional development needs, and job satisfaction of faculty in teachers colleges. The study should have practical significance in addressing staffing needs in these colleges in transition.

As noted earlier by UNESCO (1989), rapid socio-economic changes and the accelerated advance of knowledge in this information age have encouraged the expansion of higher education. The trend to transform postsecondary institutions in this way is evident not only in Thailand but also elsewhere. This particular awareness of expansion is important in helping educational administrators and the government leaders to plan more effectively for the benefit of the local community and the country in general. McConnell (1966) claimed that university education can provide the kind of knowledge and technology needed by individual citizens who wish to compete in the labour market and for nations to compete in the world market. When asked why university education is that important, Mactaggart (1991), current Chancellor of the University of Alberta, had a very thoughtful

answer. He sees the university as a community of scholars who are not only involved in transferring knowledge but "are actively involved in discovering new information, in the reappraisal of existing information, in tearing down old theories and erecting new ones, in questioning accepted truths, and in the quest for new ones" (p. 6). This insightful statement provides reassurance that university education is a very promising way to draw out the full potential of a country's human resources for the betterment of society.

Practically, the need to assess the quality of teachers college faculty members is very important for Thai teachers colleges to enable them to plan for professional development programs, to make decisions on grants, to determine resource allocation, etc. The findings from this study, hopefully, will have direct and indirect impact on the actual practices of administrators in transforming higher education institutions in Thailand and perhaps elsewhere.

Assumptions

Throughout the period of the study the researcher was guided by six assumptions.

1. The four teachers colleges in this study represented all teachers colleges in Thailand.

2. The respondents were sufficiently representative of all faculty members in Thai teachers colleges for the purpose of statistical analysis of questionnaire data.

3. All respondents were honest and sincere in their responses to the questionnaire and interview items.

4. All respondents were well aware of the four basic functions they are supposed to accomplish.

5. All respondents were well aware of inhibiting barriers they are facing in accomplishing their institutional functions.

6. All respondents could comprehend the items in the questionnaire in the same way as intended by the researcher.

Delimitations of the Study

The study was confined to the four teachers colleges selected randomly by drawing from United Colleges of Rattanakosin (UCR) and United Colleges of Lanna (UCL). The respondents were drawn from all full-time academic faculty members for the academic year 1992-1993. The focus of this study was to explore the role perceptions held by academic faculty members. Aspects of professional development and job satisfaction which are related to role enhancement were also explored.

Limitations of the Study

Descriptions of the role perceptions held by academic faculty members, together with aspects of professional development and job satisfaction which are related to role enhancement, were made from data collected by means of the Thai version of the questionnaire as well as by interview. In spite of the systematic and careful process of questionnaire development and pilot-testing, some errors might have occurred. Therefore, the following limitations concerning the study are noted:

1. Some respondents may have misinterpreted and misunderstand some questions.
2. Some respondents may have not responded to some questions.
3. Some inconsistencies may have been created between the Thai and English versions of the questionnaires due to inaccuracy in translation.
4. The return rate of usable questionnaires may have biased the results.
5. Quotations attributed to respondents have been translated from Thai to English, and in the process some meaning might have been lost.

Organization of the Thesis

The thesis contains nine chapters. This chapter provides an introduction to the study with particular emphasis on the purpose, statement of the problem and research questions, conceptual framework, definitions of terms, significance, assumptions, delimitations, limitations, and organization of the thesis. Historical background of the

study is addressed in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 examines the related theoretical and research literature. Details of the research design, methodology, the pilot study, the data collection, and the analysis of data are provided in Chapter 4. In Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8 the results of the data analyses are reported. Chapter 9, the final chapter, provides a summary of the thesis, its conclusions, some applications, and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Historical Background of Thai Universities

According to the Ministry of University Affairs (1988), the development of Thailand's universities can be divided into three periods marked by major events: (i) Early Modernization Period (1989-1931), (ii) Post-Revolution of 1932 Period (1932-1949), and (iii) Development Planning Period (1950-present).

The Early Modernization Period

Watson (1989) stated that Thailand, which has never been colonized by western powers, had established her own university system long before most colonized nations in either Asia or Africa. Thailand's first university, Chulalongkorn, was established in 1917 by the amalgamation of the School of Civil Servants, the Engineering School, and the Royal Medical College (Ketudat and Srisa-an, 1978). The idea of establishing a university was originated by Thailand's beloved King Chulalongkorn (1868-1910) but the first university was not established until the reign of King Vajiravudh. Nimmanheminda (1970) stated that the main motive for the establishment of the first university in Thailand was to train civil servants who were expected to serve a country which was emerging from a feudal past and becoming a modern state. The establishment of the university was to meet human resource needs during the country's period of modernization. Watson (1989) reported that the first university offered "training in education, agriculture, medicine, law, commerce, foreign relations and public administration" (p. 71).

The Post-Revolution of 1932 Period

After the Revolution of 1932 which transformed Thailand from an absolute monarchy to a parliamentary democracy, the growing need for political study was evident (Ministry of University Affairs, 1988). In response, the University of Moral and Political Science (now known as Thammasat University) was founded in 1933. Ketudat and Srisa-

an (1978) noted that the University of Moral and Political Science, the second university, was initially "an 'open' university offering courses in law, economics, politics, and related social sciences" (p. 1). In 1943, three more universities specializing in agriculture, fine arts, and medicine, were established: Kasetsart University, which literally means the University of Agricultural Science, was established to serve the need of the Ministry of Agriculture; Silpakorn University, the University of Fine Arts, was founded to serve the need of the Ministry of Education in the study and preservation of Thai art and archeology; Mahidol University which specializing in medicine was developed from the Siriraj Hospital Medical School.

Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) observed that the first five universities were all located in the capital city, Bangkok, and were under the supervision of different government ministries.

The Development Planning Period

Thailand's first national economic development plan was proclaimed in 1961 (Ministry of University Affairs, 1988). Within a decade after the implementation of the first national economic development plan, university education expanded to provincial areas outside Bangkok. The three regional universities were Chiang Mai University in the north (1964), Khon Kaen University in the northeast (1965), and Prince of Songkhla University in the south (1968). Watson (1989) indicated that these three regional universities have demonstrated their concern for the local culture, environment, history and languages.

The Ministry of University Affairs (1988) stated that an open university would democratize university education and promote the concept of life-long education. In 1972, Ramkamhaeng University, the first open university, was established as an "open admission" university to meet the needs of students seeking access to higher education. The new open university, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University, was created in 1978. All of these aforementioned universities are now under supervision and coordination of the

Ministry of University Affairs. Currently there are 20 state universities/institutes, and nine private universities located throughout Thailand (Ministry of University Affairs, 1991).

Ketudat (1972, cited in Watson, 1989) depicted these universities as "finishing schools" or as "professional training schools for government . . . rather than as communities of scholars" (p. 72). Srisa-an (1981) supported this claim by stating that their status as universities could be questioned. Relf (1977) observed that higher educational development in Southeast Asia has traditionally embraced three strands: rote memorization of knowledge, liberal arts of the western world, and job preparation. These strands are undeniably present to this day.

Historical Background of Thai Teachers Colleges

Thailand has a well-established system of teacher education, dating back to 1892 when the first teacher training school for men was opened in Bangkok to prepare elementary school teachers. A year later, a secondary teacher certificate program was activated. It was not until 1909 that the first teacher training school for women was opened. This latter school became a pattern for several teacher training schools established later in the provinces. In later years, as the government made efforts to expand human resources in various fields, more teacher training schools were set up.

In 1920, the Teacher Education Division was founded and given responsibility for organizing teacher training and producing teachers for schools all over the country. Twenty years later, the Teacher Education Division was transferred to the Department of Primary Education, and entrusted with the following responsibilities (Department of Teacher Education, 1989):

1. Preparing preservice teachers for the primary certificate of education.
2. Preparing preservice teachers for the higher certificate of education.
3. Inspecting schools under Teacher Education Division and training teachers.

As general education became more widespread, there was an urgent need for teachers. Despite the fact that in 1928 there were 25 teacher training schools in operation offering programs leading to primary and secondary teacher certificates, the demand for qualified and certified teachers remained critical.

The year 1954 marked a turning point for teacher education in Thailand. In that year, the Department of Teacher Education was set up in the Ministry of Education. This elevation from the status of a division in what was the Department of Primary Education to that of a Department was in response to the need and demand for qualified teachers. The new status also set the stage for a major reorganization of the teacher education system.

During the 1960s, a period of teacher education expansion, 17 new teachers colleges began graduating teachers to meet the urgent demand. This expansion was precipitated by three major forces, namely the high rate of population growth, the extension of compulsory education, and the availability of secondary education to a larger percentage of the population. Unfortunately, the accelerated production of a large number of teachers during the third National Education Development Plan (1971-1976) resulted in a large number of teachers and graduates becoming unemployed. Therefore, as Chantavanich (1981) reported, during the fourth plan (1977-1981) the training of teachers at the higher certificate level progressively decreased and finally was terminated in 1981.

A 1975 amendment to the Teachers College Act authorized teachers colleges to offer programs leading to a degree in education. Accordingly, 17 teachers colleges under the administration of the Department of Teacher Education were authorized to award B.Ed. degrees.

> The Teachers College Act stipulated the teachers college to perform the task of higher education institutions offering a bachelor degree in education. The college missions are to conduct research, preserve and promote art and culture, and provide academic services to the community. (Department of Teacher Education, 1986, p. 21)

A 1984 amendment to the Teachers College Act authorized the teachers colleges to diversify their roles beyond teacher education because of the increased human resource

needs of Thai society and the greater need for local access to higher education. The Department of Teacher Education (1985) reported that after the diversification, the following five categories of responsibilities were assigned to the teachers colleges:

1. Provision of educational programs in various fields demanded by the community at the baccalaureate level.
2. Conducting research on teacher education.
3. Promotion of teachers and educational personnel in their academic and professional status.
4. Preservation and promotion of arts and culture.
5. Provision of academic services to the community. (p. 15)

Under the provision of the Teachers College Act (1984), the Department of Teacher Education (1989) reported that the role of the teachers college (36 teachers colleges altogether) was diversified to that of a higher education institution. In addition to the preparation of teachers at the bachelor's degree level, the teachers colleges today also offer programs leading to the bachelors degree in areas other than teacher education, i.e., science and technology, agriculture, liberal arts, and management science. Moreover, every teachers college conducts research, and provides academic service to the community where it is situated.

In 1986, the 36 teachers colleges were consolidated geographically into eight college systems namely "the united college." A task force to upgrade the eight united colleges to universities was established. Currently, the eight united colleges are under the supervision and administration of the Department of Teacher Education. These 36 teachers colleges are evenly distributed geographically and by population throughout the country. On the average, there is one teachers college for every two neighboring provinces.

Since 1984 these new higher education institutions have been gradually expanding their programs to other than teacher education and are becoming multi-purpose four-year institutions. In 1987, in order to provide better and wider service, the Department of Teacher Education (1989) adopted the following aims as its major commitment during the period 1987-1991 (The Sixth National Economic and Social Development Plan):

> The United Teachers Colleges will be organized, and will perform the tasks of "higher education institutions." The teachers colleges will produce quality graduates in the areas either of teacher education or other professional areas. The Department will improve the academic status of its personnel, conduct research, preserve and promote art and cultural development, and provide academic services to the community. Such effective and efficient measures should be beneficial to national economic and social development. (Department of Teacher Education,1986, p. 49)

The purpose of educational diversification is to serve a more varied clientele. Thai systems of higher education must now begin to serve both the younger and the older generations, and both full-time and part-time students. In addition to becoming regional higher education institutions and graduating many more well qualified personnel for the professions, industry, and commerce, teachers colleges also must serve the local community's needs for continuing education.

Furthermore, the diversification of teachers colleges has also been designed to serve the needs of the more remote parts of the country. This diversification is meant to fill a social need which the universities failed to meet either by default or design.

The trend in the evolution of the teachers colleges in Thailand is similar to what has occurred in the United States of America. The move (a) to eliminate the word "teacher" from the description of the college (b) to consolidate 36 teachers colleges geographically into eight college systems namely "the united college" in 1986, and (c) to hold conferences on the upgrading of the united colleges in 1987 and 1989 really explains the story behind the transformational effort. In its efforts at upgrading these colleges to university status, the Department of Teacher Education (1985) stated, "The teachers college has already performed the roles of the 'real higher education institution.' It is only the name that differentiates the Thai teachers colleges from other Thai universities" (p. 18). Furthermore, one of the policies of the Department of Teacher Education (1989) shows support "to develop individual united colleges to resume full status as institutions of higher education" (p. 50), and the Department of Teacher Education (1989) obviously encouraged the colleges to "affiliate with other institutions of higher education within and outside the

country in providing graduate programs to its clients" (p. 51). In fact Uttaradit Teachers College affiliated with NIDA in 1990 and began providing a Master of Education program. In short, the eight united colleges, with full support of the Department of Teacher Education, are working their way to be upgraded to regional universities in the future.

To perform the functions of a university effectively and productively, the teachers colleges must become competent in the four basic functions of Thai universities namely teaching, research, service, and culture. The teachers college faculty must study these missions carefully and act accordingly. The staff of these transforming institutions need to possess a willingness and capacity to live with the process of transition. The teachers colleges and the people within them must be able to adapt to changing needs and situations. A rapid transition to this new mandate for the colleges is not likely to occur; this change is likely to take considerable time. Therefore, the college staff have to think in terms of a constant process of staff adjustment, institutional reorganization, and staff development in order to perform their new functions effectively and productively and thereby gain public trust.

It is obvious that the teachers colleges will not return to their previous status. It is necessary, therefore, for the internal academic structures in these colleges to respond to this change and effort. The old departmental structure, the administrative unit which is based on the current approach to teacher training, may no longer be appropriate. Thus, change to a much different academic structure within colleges is inevitable. What is desperately needed now is an initial period of development of staff to prepare them to engage in the radical changes implied by the recent demands for diversification and transformation.

The questions being raised along with the move to upgrade the teachers colleges to the university status is whether the teachers colleges are ready to undertake such a move or not. Certainly, there are public doubts and criticisms of this transformational effort. But when one studies the development of teachers colleges overseas, most teachers colleges have been upgraded to university or university status. Western Michigan University in the

United States, for example, has developed from a teachers college. The aftermath of the development of teachers colleges may shed some light on this problem. In fact, Srinakharinwirot University, before upgrading to a university, was also under the jurisdiction of the Department of Teacher Education. Teachers colleges may gain public trust over time if provided opportunities to prove that they can grow.

The following two conditions must be reexamined and reconsidered carefully by the teachers colleges themselves before making particular moves in the future--the academic qualifications of the faculty and the competence in teaching and research of the faculty. The teachers college faculty must prove themselves in these two ways if they are to gain the public trust through quality performance.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This review is divided into five main sections. In the first, the mission of western higher education is presented. This is followed by the literature on higher education in Thailand. The third section presents faculty development practices in higher education in both North America and Thailand. Next, the historical development of teachers colleges outside Thailand is presented. Job satisfaction is the focus of the final section.

The Mission of Western Universities

The major functions of universities in North America have been and will be the provision of freedom of thought and expression, transmission of knowledge, and advancement and enhancement of knowledge. Perkins (1966) claimed that unless people accept the three aspects of knowledge they cannot understand modern universities. They are "the acquisition of knowledge which is the mission of research; the transmission of knowledge which is the mission of teaching; and the application of knowledge which is the mission of public service" (pp. 9-10). The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1973) stated that higher education is the best place to conduct pure scholarship, research, and service. To these should be added social criticism because it is essential to advancing social justice, and the nation benefits from the critical evaluations initiated on campus. Rudy (1984) gave a comparatively clear picture of the mission of higher education in the Western world:

> The university is the key institution devised by Western civilization for the advancement of knowledge and the training of society's most highly skilled workers. Originating in the European Middle Ages, it has become the primary vehicle in all parts of the world for the preservation and transmission of the highest learning, the advancement of scholarship, the training of specialists in fields of endeavor vital to society, and the improvement of national life. (p. 11)

In order to fulfill this multiple role, Hutchins (1936), Seeley (1948), Kerr (1963) and Perkins (1966) concurred that colleges and universities have devoted themselves to three main functions--*Teaching*, *Research*, and *Service*. Teaching, the first and the oldest

function of higher education, preserves knowledge by transmitting it from one generation to another. Also, teaching integrates the schools, colleges, and universities into an overall system of public education. The function of research, or the acquisition of knowledge, which distinguishes colleges and universities from other educational institutions, allows higher education institutions to expand their knowledge-base through new discoveries. Last but not least is the application of knowledge or the function of public or community service. Public service by educational institutions serves the notion of Bacon that knowledge should be for the benefit and use of mankind (cited in Kerr, 1963, p. 2). Through community service, colleges and universities enable society to apply knowledge and technology more effectively.

The Teaching Function

Teaching has been and will be one of the main functions of colleges and universities. Rudy (1984) reported that the lecture has been the principal method of instruction since the formation of medieval universities. Centra (1989) also depicted the main mission of faculty members before the adoption of Germanic model of university research this way: "Faculty were expected to teach and counsel students" (pp. 155-156). Common (1987) believed that teaching is an essential element of higher education. He stated that "universities would not be universities but, rather, research institutes if teaching were not to occur" (p. 59). By 1852, the German university, which put emphasis on research, was becoming the new model. According to this model, the lecture was supposed to be a means of informing students about the latest research. Peisert and Framhein (1978) stated that "the purpose of university instruction and studies was not to transmit knowledge by rote learning, but to acquaint students with research and to allow them to actively participate in it" (p. 3).

Since the advent of the German model, teaching has been less recognized among professors. In his classic *The uses of the university*, Kerr (1963) pointed out that the

condition of teaching has been degraded: "Teaching is less central than it once was for most faculty members; research has become more important" (p. 42). Oakley (1992), after reviewing the literature, concluded that a research-oriented incentive and reward structure dominated postsecondary institutions--a situation that needed to be changed. Mathis (1974) saw no hope of upgrading teaching in universities unless higher education gave teaching the same priority now given to research and scholarship. However, Eble (1974) saw a way to improve the status of teaching. The author pointed out that if college professors accept "the fact that preparation for research and preparation for teaching require distinctly different skills" (p. 45), then the acceptance of the need of different skills in performing these two functions may be the key which leads to the upgrading of college teaching to have the same status as research in the future.

Justman and Mais (1956) argued that most faculty members would agree that the aims of teaching are broader than the simple mastery of subject matter. They further discussed that teaching aims at human growth--in mind, spirit, character, and effective behavior--and every subject of instruction is an educational instrument to achieve this end. Stones (1992) showed that quality teaching can be achieved solely by the awareness of the interaction between the structure of knowledge within the subject being taught, the processes by which students acquire knowledge, and the context in which the teaching is being done. Elton (1987) argued that the fundamental aim of teaching is to promote independent thinking, so that by the time students leave college "they should be able to learn on their own and that they should be able to learn in such a way that they not only know but also understand what they know" (p. 112). In order to achieve these outcomes, Rosecrance (1962, cited in Mayhew, Ford & Hubbard, 1990) believed that teaching must be improved:

> The improvement of college teaching is central to the improvement of higher education and deserves more attention than it has heretofore received. Students come to college to learn from persons whose scholarship is greater than their own. They deserve the best that can be provided. The institution itself depends in great part on the quality of faculty, and the instruction given by it. (p. 143)

Higher education and quality teaching. Students have not been very happy with the state of teaching in colleges and universities. Concern for the quality of teaching has appeared in several public documents in different countries. The Smith Report (Commission of Inquiry on Canadian University Education, 1991) claimed the undervaluing of teaching, especially in undergraduate education in Canadian universities. Michael Robb was quoted in the Smith Report (1991) as saying: "The quality of undergraduate education in our larger universities has deteriorated rather badly and universities don't seem to show many signs of arresting this deterioration, much less even acknowledging it " (p. 32).

Improvement of teaching at higher education levels has been a critical issue throughout the world. Gaff (1975) stated the problem succinctly:

> Our colleges and universities are now staffed by faculty who, in general, have never studied the history of their profession, are unfamiliar with the topography of the educational landscape, are unaware of the professional literature in higher education, and have never been expected to formulate systematically their own philosophies of education or their views about teaching and learning. (p. 16)

Seldin (1990) supported Gaff by stating that teaching is undervalued today. Seldin (1990) further noted that higher education institutions have turned to research and publication rather than outstanding teaching.

Knapper (1988) reported that in the United.States the quality of university instruction has recently been the subject of hot debate. A number of national reports such as the Task Group on General Education (1988), the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (1986), the Education Commission of the States (1986), and the National Institute of Education (1984) have criticized the quality of undergraduate teaching. The prevailing view is that teaching at this level has failed to equip students with certain cognitive skills needed to cope with more complicate activities in this ever changing world.

The concern for quality of instruction in Australian universities is also evident. Cannon (1983) stated that there are three points which emerged from the recapitulation reported by the Tertiary Education Commission, Australia. They are as follows: (a) the

concern for the improvement of teaching has been expressed over a considerable period of time; (b) there has been a broadening of concern for the quality of teaching in universities; (c) the pressures for change have largely come from outside the universities.

Since 1940, the literature concerning college instruction has been replete with exhortations that teaching must be improved. Mayhew, Ford, and Hubbard (1990) summarized three categories of criticisms of college teaching and offered suggestions for its improvement:

> (1) a kind of generalized anxiety and belief that college teaching is not as good as it might be, and that, somehow, it can be improved; (2) there is too much lecturing that is not done well, it does not provide adequately for individual differences, there is too much use made of teaching assistants, that a doctoral degree is a research degree that does not prepare people to be teachers, and that, therefore, teaching is somehow bad; and (3) college teaching is deficient because it does not attend to the many facets of human development and is not based on psychological knowledge and research. (pp. 143-146)

Public pressure resulting from the disenchantment with college instruction, therefore, compels institutions of higher education to improve the quality of instruction through faculty and instructional development.

The nature of college teaching. Knapper (1988) surveyed the University of Alberta faculty about issues relating to teaching and learning at the undergraduate level. He asked respondents to indicate the teaching methods they had used. The following are the most typical teaching approaches:

1. Lectures (used by 98% of respondents)
2. Seminar (89%)
3. Use of audio-visual aids (84%)
4. Group discussions (80%)
5. Individual student projects (80%)
6. Directed study (74%)
7. Use of outside resource persons (72%)
8. Labs (59%)

9. Team teaching (57%)
10. Group projects (57%)
11. Use of students as teachers (50%)
12. Games and simulations (32%)
13. Use of the community as a learning laboratory (24%)
14. Computer-based instruction (24%)
15. Self-paced instruction (24%)

From this study, it is evident that the lecture method has continued to predominate at the University of Alberta, but other methods also are widely used. As well, there are strenuous efforts, besides the survey study on teaching by Knapper (1988), to promote excellence in teaching among faculty members at the University of Alberta. The University has established an office of University Teaching; many visiting scholars have been invited to discuss with faculty members ways to enhance their teaching effectiveness. In addition, the Rutherford Award for Excellence in Undergraduate Teaching is a means to recognize excellent teaching at the University of Alberta (Folio, 1991).

The Research Function

The reforms in German higher education in the nineteenth century enlivened research in this type of institution (Altbach, 1987). From then on, research has played a key role in colleges and universities. What is research? The word "research" which is not easy to define is a generic term used in different ways by different constituencies in colleges and universities to reflect their particular philosophical and political perspectives. Research can be both quantitative and qualitative depending upon the nature and objectives of the study. The definition given by the OECD's Frascati Manual (1973) is worthy of consideration: "Research and experimental development may be defined as creative work undertaken on a systematic basis to increase the stock of scientific and technical knowledge and to use this stock of knowledge to devise new applications" (p. 13).

Lindsay and Neumann (1988) gave a broader perspective which helped to clarify what research is. They contended that

> an understanding of "research" is best gained by looking at the context within which the term is used. Each discipline has its own knowledge paradigm, which determines the appropriate manner of approaching a research problem. Hence, in some disciplines "research" is what is done in "project," whereas in others it involves field work or laboratory experimentation and in others still is the study of documents in a library. (pp. 32-33)

Scientific research which has played a very important role in university research is worth discussing. Bowen and Schuster (1991) clarified that scientific research is categorized into basic research which is meant to discover the law of nature no matter whether it can be applied to human society or not; and applied research which is meant to discover ways of putting this particular knowledge to practical use.

Furthermore, Neumann and Lindsay (1988) identified the general characteristics of university research as follows:

1. Research receives its main impetus from problems defined within the framework of a discipline. That is, the contribution that a research project may make to the field is the primary consideration, with any direct economic or social benefits being secondary. As a result, both research proposals and outcomes are judged mainly on the basis of excellence rather than [on] their immediate utility in terms of direct industrial or social relevance.
2. Both individual researcher and their departments/centers require a high level of freedom from external interference . . . to adequately pursue specific research goals [and] the general purposes of higher education.
3. An integral part of the research process is the publishing of results for scrutiny by other researchers.
4. Diversity in approach is valued and fostered. Consequently, research is conducted in many different ways.
5. The majority of academics are involved in both teaching and research, [although the balance varies, depending on preference, capability, and stage of career]. (pp. 308-309)

The Council of Europe Conference (1983) concluded that the universities in Europe are research institutions and research is evidently ranked higher than teaching. The reason given is that teaching draws its strength and its ideas from research. Seeley (1948) stated succinctly that "it is necessary for us to emphasize the fact that a university ceases to be true to its nature unless its members are engaged in research" (p. 6). Horowitz (1982) noted

that "unless we invest, and invest handsomely, in basic research, we shall not be able to solve the most pressing problems of our time" (p. 19).

Gray and Hoy (1989) revealed the benefit faculty members may obtain from research:

> Research has always been valued highly and it is for research that lecturers are normally promoted, certainly to professorships. Most university lecturers would say that their research is the most important thing they have to do. It is by their research that they gain a reputation and through research they meet their peers in other institutions. Research is also the means of getting money to travel to other academic institutions at home and overseas. (pp. 39-40)

The relationship between teaching and research. The expectation that university faculty members display almost equal competence in research and teaching is vital. Enns, Harris, Holdaway, Jopling, and Kreisel (1986) agreed that these two primary functions of universities cannot be sharply separated. Holdaway (1990) also confirmed the close relationship between the two functions. He indicated that members of the President's Advisory Committee on Campus Reviews (PACCR) of the University of Alberta did not accept the notion that "heavy involvement in one activity will necessarily have a negative impact upon the other" (p. 13). Nonresearchers blame their lack of productivity on lack of time. But Yuker (1984) argued that "data indicate that providing time for research seldom results in increased research productivity" (p. 50). Again Enns, Harris, Jopling, and Kreisel (1990) did not believe that decreasing teaching load would increase research productivity. Conversely, less research activity would never enhance effective teaching. In other words, Yuker (1984) revealed that no relationship was evident between scholarly publication and teaching effectiveness. The Council of Europe's (1983) conference agreed that "teaching without research would be deaf, research without teaching would be mute" (p. 58). Van Horn (1985) confirmed that strong university research programs also lead to high quality education at both levels--undergraduate and graduate. He argued that "the long-standing myth that research conflicts with good teaching is not and never was true" (p. 28). But Gray and Hoy (1989) did not agree with him and argued that the current

practice in higher education puts more emphasis on competence in research: "The more money an academic brings in for research, the higher his reputation with his employing institution and the better his prospects of promotion" (p. 42). They questioned if the concept of "centers of excellence" with its reference to only research is valid.

In theory, a unity of teaching and research is essential--a faculty member must be a researcher. But in practice, it is difficult to bring about this unity for all faculty members. From its report, the Council of Europe Conference (1983) revealed this insight:

> Unity of teaching and research has played a decisive role for the development of higher education and of our societies. However, in a mass education system and with a rapid expansion in the various fields, it becomes increasingly difficult for every professor to continue to combine teaching with creative research. Yet, since teaching is enlivened and illuminated by research, a university teacher should be expected to be engaged in some sort of research in order to be able to follow the latest developments in a field and appreciate their importance. A most probable development in the near future would be to preserve unity of teaching and research at an institutional rather than a personal level. (p. 97)

Elton (1987) concluded that colleges and universities should not be divided into teaching institutions and research institutions, but to make certain that "scholarship flourishes in them all and supports both teaching and research" (p. 161).

How to allocate time effectively and properly has become a critical issue in a university where faculty members face many competing demands--to teach, to research, to publish and to advise. Enns, Harris, Holdaway, Jopling, and Kreisel (1986) when addressing the issue of balance between teaching and research stated:

> What is not so clear is the proportion of each that may be appropriate for individuals in the various disciplines. In the natural sciences a strong emphasis on laboratory research is traditional. In the humanities the tendency has been to emphasize teaching . . . . (p. 44)

Again in striking a balance, Bok (1986) described how different schools arrive at different solutions:

> Medical faculties are plainly oriented toward research, and most of their professors have teaching loads that seem puny to their colleagues in law and business schools. They care much less about the quality of their instruction than about their progress in the laboratory, where the rewards of professional recognition and status are chiefly to be found. In contrast, law schools put much more emphasis on the quality of teaching. Even the law faculties most renowned for the scholarship have traditionally attached as much importance to instruction as they have to research. (p. 82)

In order to clarify the cause of this difference, Bok (1986) explained that the role of medical research in improving human health is vital and this is the main concern of the public. Therefore, the federal government provides billions of dollars each year for this purpose. Whereas schools of law receive almost no government support for research and the concern of the public regarding legal affairs is much less than that of conquering disease. No wonder the faculties of medicine place a higher priority on research than do faculties of law. He further explained that most leading business schools put more attention to publications than to the quality of instruction. Evidently, these patterns of behavior help explain how different professors from each school strike a balance between teaching and research.

The Service Function

Birnbaum (1988) and Perkins (1966) believed that the acquisition, transmission, and application of knowledge are organically related. Birnbaum (1988) also stated that these three main functions are "mutually reinforcing production processes in the higher education system as a whole" (p. 12). Perkins (1966) argued that institutional neglecting "one function in favour of the others build a low ceiling indeed on institution's future growth and vitality" (p. 15). Martin (1977) believed that the fundamental purpose of higher education is to provide a service: "the need for services brought colleges and universities into existence and it will be through their services that they will survive" (p. 98). He confirmed that the significance of colleges and universities is measured by their service to their surrounding societies, to their students, and to the truth itself. His view that academic service may take many forms--from outside consulting, and international

assistance to local aid--permitted him to see both teaching and research as forms of service. He further explained that the importance of faculty service is its work with ideas of value: "when ideas of value are developed, criticized, revised, synthesized, and linked to each other, then teaching and research take on a meaning that justifies every investment" (p. 98). He concluded that "teaching, research, and service--effectiveness in these functions is still the key to success and usefulness" (p. 99). Roskens (1985) argued that research efforts in colleges and universities represent an essential first step in the process of seeking a better world. He noted:

> The relationship between research and service is symbiotic and synergistic. As important as new research discoveries will be, they can become widely effective only if the university is in a position to offer assistance in the application of new technologies and methods at the consumer level. (p. 91)

The service function has two main dimensions, public service and institutional service.

Public service. Crosson (1983) pointed out that public service has long been part of higher education in the United States. Crosson (1983) claimed that the term "service" in this sense is taken to mean the fulfillment of teaching and research. Seeley (1948) provided a vivid concept of public service:

> The confidence that comes from seeking after truth can never be complete if it is an intellectual concept of truth alone. Truth as it is unfolded to us embraces the whole man. We see that our search for truth makes us look outward from ourselves and use the benefits of knowledge for the happiness of mankind. (p. 79)

A definition of public service made by the University of Massachusetts (1971; cited in Crosson, 1983) includes three major areas:

1. advice, information, and technical assistance to business, government, neighborhood groups, and individuals on problems which the University has competence to assist in solving;
2. research toward the solution of public policy problems, whether by individual or groups of faculty members or by the formal institutes and centers of the University;
3. conferences, institutes, seminars, workshops, short courses, and other nondegree-oriented upgrading and training for government officials, social service personnel, various professional people, business executives, and so on. (pp. 6-7)

Fife (1983) believes that colleges and universities that obtain public financial support have a responsibility to get involved with public service because of their essential position of being the center of knowledge. He stated that they have the obligation to share their knowledge not only with their students and faculty members but also with their surrounding societies.

Although Crosson (1983) stated that public service is usually considered a distant third behind research and teaching, it is important to higher education. Fife (1983) clarified the issue by stating: "From the position of intellectual self-interest, public service provides a laboratory for testing current knowledge. Putting knowledge into practice permits discovery of what is still unknown, what works and what does not" (p. foreword).

At present, public service is gaining more and more status in higher education institutions because of scarce financial resources. Colleges and universities have to gain more public trust and support through community service in order to get funding from the government or private organizations.

Kerr (1963), Crosson (1983), and Bok (1986) all believed that the best form of public service is that which most closely resembles teaching and research. What differentiates "public" service activities from other research and teaching activities is that they are performed for groups that have not traditionally been involved with higher education.

Even though colleges and universities accept that they should be involved with public service, Fife (1983) indicated that there were still some barriers hindering the fulfillment of this mission:

(1) Individual faculty members are not generally rewarded for their public service; publishing and teaching normally receive the greatest peer recognition and promotion/salary support. This is due partly to the perception that public service is not part of the intellectual process of higher education.
(2) The mission of public service is not well defined by the institution and therefore not built into reward system.
(3) Institutions are reluctant to spread their already scarce resources beyond what they consider their primary functions, teaching and research.
(4) There is a concern that many public service activities may be seen as politically partisan, indirectly (e.g., social and environmental issue) or directly (e.g., serving an administration dominated by one political party). (p. foreword)

The issue that emerges from the notion of service is how much and how far should colleges and universities serve their surrounding societies? In answer to this question, Horowitz (1982) stated that universities must be careful not to commit themselves to serving society so much that their two main functions--teaching and research suffer. Ashby (1971, cited in Crosson, 1983) noted that "it is only recently that American universities have been faced with the cost of barter: a servant cannot be an independent and objective critic, and just now the nation needs criticism from its faculty members more than it needs service" (p. 11).

On the issue of service through criticism, Lauria and Lauria (1970) stated clearly that there is no other agency in society better suited than higher education to carry out the function of criticism and revision for society's renewal. The question raised by Martin (1977), about whether higher education institutions serve a community best "by being creative, critical, and independent rather than by providing largely technical services desired by students and public" (p. viii) is vital and needs further discussion. Wolff (1969) argued that colleges and universities would serve the public well if they could differentiate "the concepts of effective or market demand and human or social need" (p. 36). He concluded that the failure to differentiate market demands from social and national needs leads to "a covert ideological rationalization for whatever human or social desires happen to be backed by enough money or power to translate them into effective demands" (p. 39), thus believing that it would be more appropriate for higher education to take the role of social criticism. Crosson (1983, p. 15) argued that social criticism "is the most important service

of the college or university" primarily because higher education institutions are the only institutions providing valuable scientific and systematic criticism capable of leading their surrounding societies to modernization and prosperity. Bok (1982) concurred with the "social criticism" role of the college and university and further commented that the factor of autonomy and academic freedom do support the role of social criticism and vice versa.

Another aspect of service is consulting. Traditionally, outside professional consulting has been viewed as a vital form of public service for faculty in colleges and universities. However, there are some concerns about the appropriateness of these activities of full-time faculty members. Boyer and Lewis (1985) contended that the main concern appeared to be the same today as it was in the past, that outside professional consulting by individual faculty members resulted in the shirking of their institutional responsibilities. Boyer and Lewis (1985) articulated the two views on this matter:

> On the one side are those who agree that faculty consulting may result in neglect of students and other university responsibilities, abuses of academic freedom, conflicts of interest, and illegitimate use of institutional resources. On the other side are those who argue that faculty consulting enhances both research and teaching, that conflicts of interest and other abuses are very uncommon, and that faculty consulting benefits both the institution and society as well as the individual. (p. 177)

Much of the criticism and argument against outside professional consulting is based on misconceptions. Boyer and Lewis (1985) argued that the misconceptions result mainly from a lack of current knowledge about the nature and extent of faculty consulting activities. These authors further stated that several recent studies on the advantages of external consulting confirmed the personal benefit of external consulting work for individual faculty members.

Boyer and Lewis (1985) indicated that outside professional consulting can benefit not only the individual faculty members but also the institution. Consulting enables the staff members to teach better by providing "valuable resource of real world examples for the concepts and theories taught in the classroom" (p. 182). In addition, outside professional consulting enhances the staff members' awareness of practical needs and

developments in their fields. Boyer and Lewis (1985) concluded that faculty members can obtain "ideas and inspiration for further research, [and] build the faculty member's professional competence and reputation" (p. 182).

Institutional service. Besides public service, faculty members play a very vital role in institutional service. Yuker (1984) defined institutional service to include meetings, student services, other organized activities, and general administrative duties. He noted that "the amount of time devoted to all categories of institutional service depends on the person, institution, discipline, and rank" (p. 58). He found that faculty members spent about 19 % of their time on institutional services and that faculty members from fine arts, education, and social work have the tendency to spend more time on institutional services than faculty from physical sciences, law, and engineering. Full professors tended to devote more time to such activities than instructors. He concluded that the percentage of faculty time spent on administrative duties ranged from 8.2 percent to a high of 21.2 percent.

Fairchild (1981, cited in Yuker, 1984, p. 58) reported:

> Faculty spent 289 hours per year on institutional service--113 hours on correspondence and paperwork, 75 hours on travel to conferences, 40 hours on professional growth . . . 39 hours on meetings and committee work, and 22 hours on program development. (p. 58)

In fact the percentage of time faculty members spent on institutional service is far more than on public service. Baldridge, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley (1978) revealed that faculty members in all types of postsecondary institutions spent three or four more times on internal service than on public service. This study also found that among faculty members in postsecondary institutions, those faculty in community colleges spent the most time (21 %) on internal service while faculty members in private universities spent the least time (16 %). Surprisingly enough, faculty members in community colleges spent only 4 % of their time on public service whereas 21% was spent on institutional service.

Etzioni (1964, cited in Birnbaum, 1988, p. 10) suggested that college and university faculty members should hold the major authority and administrators the secondary staff authority because administrators are in charge of secondary activities in order to support the major activity carried out by faculty. By inference, faculty should play a major role in the governance of the institution. The type of institutional services ranging from administrative work to committee works do indeed occupy a large portion of faculty members' time. Bowen and Schuster (1991) noted that faculty members cannot ignore or avoid the institutional service activities because the task of most higher education institutions is "divided among many highly specialized and abstruse disciplines, each of which is well understood only by the faculty members engaged in it" (p. 326).

Faculty Role Performance in Higher Education Institutions

Flexner (1930) and Hutchins (1936) believed that faculty members are the most important element of the college and university. Faculty members in colleges and universities are expected to perform all three roles well: teaching, research, and service. Bess (1982) pointed out that in order to fulfill these roles faculty require "many and diverse kinds of behaviors and a wide variety of talents and interests, a number of which may be incompatible with one another" (p. 19). He argued that all faculty members may enjoy aspects of all three roles, but it is rare to find a faculty member who performs equally well in all them.

Martin (1977) revealed that less than 20 percent of faculty members in American colleges and universities engage in substantive research, and an even smaller number of these faculty members are doing significant research and publishing their findings. Argyris (1964 cited in Bess, 1982) also revealed from his study that "most faculty simply tolerate or give minimal attention to the part of their role they find less desirable" (p. 19). Berger (1964, cited in Bess, 1982) found that "the effect of such negligence is deleterious to their institutions and to themselves" (p. 19). Therefore, Bess (1982) stated:

> Some faculty tend to give less effort to their teaching responsibilities and hence teach poorly, leaving many of their students less educated and less satisfied. They also leave themselves with feelings of guilt having not been able to fulfill their own conceptions of the requirements of their roles. On the other hand, there are those faculty who teach well, but are constrained by the role to spend considerable time doing research in order to meet the publication requirements of their institutions. Doubtless, the research is often superficial and contributes little to knowledge in the field. Again, faculty dissatisfaction with the role is incurred. (pp. 19-20)

Bess (1982) believed that each of the three roles is supportive of excellence in the others. He suggested:

> Doing research, in other words, allegedly helps one to be better teacher; having to transmit the existing body of knowledge gives rise to ideas for research; and performing public service preserves the integrity of the institution and keeps research relevant. (p. 21)

Bowen and Schuster (1991) also saw the work of the college and university faculties as the combination of four overlapping tasks which are teaching, research, public service, and the institutional governance and operation. Baldridge, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley (1978, cited in Bowen & Schuster, 1991, p. 322) studied the percentage of time spent by faculty members on each of the four tasks. From this study Bowen and Schuster (1991) concluded that most faculty members, even at research universities, devoted most of their time to teaching. Faculty members may be involved with students in classrooms, laboratories, studios, gymnasia, and field settings. Bowen and Schuster (1991) explained that teaching requires faculty members to keep up with the literature of their fields, prepare for their classroom presentations and discussion, and evaluate the work of their students. Last but not least, faculty members are expected to serve as "exemplars whom students might emulate" (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1977, cited in Bowen & Schuster, 1991, p. 322).

Although faculty members in all disciplines are expected to devote their time and energy to teaching and research, Bowen and Schuster (1991) and Orlans (1962, cited in Yuker, 1984) found the amount of research conducted in the humanities and fine arts and in professional fields is comparatively less than in the natural and social sciences.

Another finding reported by Bowen and Schuster (1991) was that research conducted by faculty members in colleges and universities is by and large produced jointly with teaching. They revealed that even though the faculty members in American universities devote more time than in any other countries to research, only one fifth of all faculty time is spent on research (Bowen, 1977, cited in Bowen & Schuster 1991, p. 324).

According to Bowen and Schuster (1991) faculty members devoted less time to public service activities than to either teaching or research. To them public service activities are considered mere byproducts of teaching and research. Concurring with Crosson (1983) and Martin (1977), Bowen and Schuster (1991) revealed from Baldridge, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley's (1978) study that the faculty member time spent on public service is quite small--only four or five percent.

Zey-Ferrell and Baker (1984, p. 405) constructed a typology of eight categories of faculty workstyles found in university departments:

Type 1. Teaching-research-service (Trs). Single role emphasis
Teaching is prime commitment; research and service are of less importance.

Type 2. Teaching-research-service (tRs). Single role emphasis
Research is prime commitment; teaching and service are of less importance.

Type 3. Teaching-research-service (trS). Single role emphasis
Service is prime commitment; research and teaching are of less importance.

Type 4. Teaching-research-service (TRs). Dual role emphasis
Teaching and research are significance and have equal importance; service is of less importance.

Type 5. Teaching-research-service (TrS). Dual role emphasis
Both teaching and service are significance and have equal importance; research is of less importance.

Type 6. Teaching-research-service (tRS). Dual role emphasis
Both research and service are significance and have equal importance; teaching is of less importance.

Type 7. Teaching-research-service (TRS). Triple role emphasis
Extensive commitment in all three areas.

Type 8. Teaching-research-service (trs). Triple role de-emphasis
Minimal commitment in all three areas

Zey-Ferrell and Baker (1984) revealed from their study that faculty members preferred the twin role of teaching and research (TRs) and believed that teaching and research both support each other. Similar preferences were expressed by deans and department chairs. Zey-Ferrell and Baker (1984) further contended that workstyles TRS and TRs were chosen more often than any other workstyles by faculty members as appropriate for university departments. Zey-Ferrell and Baker (1984) finally concluded that

> all four workstyles (Trs, TRs, TrS, TRS) mentioned by deans and chairpersons emphasized teaching as a dominant component in faculty work. While administrators may be in some disagreement about the appropriate weight to give research and service they all agreed on the central importance of teaching. (p. 415)

Bowen and Schuster (1991) commented succinctly about the qualifications of college and university faculty members. They stated that the Ph.D. is most desired for faculty members of four-year institutions, and the master's degree for two-year colleges.

The need for autonomy and academic freedom. Hurtubise and Rowat (1970), in their report on the relationship between universities and government, stated "Institutional autonomy is the relative ability of a university's governing body to run the university without any outside controls" (p. 67). Eurich's (1981) definition of autonomy is similar: "A state of independence in governance without outside control" (p. 74). Brubacher (1977) believes that "the ultimate legitimation of autonomy must be loyalty to the truth" (p. 30). Historically speaking, autonomy of higher education is not, and perhaps never has been, absolute. Brubacher (1977) and Hurtubise and Rowat (1970) do not believe in complete autonomy because complete autonomy would require complete financial independence. Hurtubise and Rowat (1970) agreed that as long as colleges and universities have to depend on state or government funding, the state has some rights in the sphere of higher education. However, they stated that colleges and universities should possess autonomy in certain key areas such as control over admissions, academic staff, and instructional programs. After studying systems of higher education from twelve countries,

Eurich (1981) concluded that academic autonomy should include: teach one's subject as one knows it and sees it; appoint and promote faculty; choose and conduct research; set standards for admission and graduation of students. These are most frequently cited as the essential elements of genuine college and university autonomy. Furthermore, Eurich (1981) and Hurtubise and Rowat (1970) confirmed that institutional autonomy is needed to protect academic freedom.

Historically, accusations against colleges and universities that they are "ivory towers" are popular and persistent. Wolff (1969) depicted traditional colleges and universities as sanctuaries, protected by clearly established boundaries between the surrounding communities and their institutions. Seeley (1948) stated succinctly why higher education institutions need some "privacy"--autonomy and academic freedom:

> Accusations have been made from time to time against the universities that they live a life apart, that they are detached from the march of events and from the ideas, motives and pressures which are agitating the life of the larger world. There is a sense in which the universities must stand apart, must be outside the main stream of events so that they can bring to bear on events maturity of judgement and may be able to assess the worth of trends of society. Let us now turn to another aspect of relation of the university to the community, namely the sense in which it must preserve an independence. The university as the body in the community which is committed to the pursuit of truth must command the trust of the community to pursue that truth without fear or favour. (p. 66)

In fact, college and university teachers have traditionally had a high degree of autonomy, particularly in teaching and research (Altbach, 1987). Horowitz (1982) stated that universities must be allowed to do what they can do best with minimal outside interference in order that they can make a productive contribution to society. Altbach and Berdahl (1981) believe that colleges and universities have guarded their internal independence and their commitment to autonomy and academic freedom in order to prosper and survive. In fact, internal autonomy is indeed a strong tradition which European higher education has succeeded in preserving.

Kirk (1977) stated that the concept of academic freedom had its genesis in the Medieval universities where university scholars who were searching for truth were

protected from the oppression of the nobility. After a long period of the development of academic freedom, Kirk (1977) gave a similar definition from its genesis: "Academic freedom is a security against hazards to the pursuit of truth by those persons whose lives are dedicated to conserving the intellectual heritage of the ages and to extending the realm of knowledge" (p. 3). Altbach (1987) defined the same concept in different words:

> The freedom of a scholar in his or her teaching and research to pursue a scholarly interest wherever it seems to lead and without fear of termination of employment for having offended some political, religious, or social orthodoxy. (p. 9)

Jones (1969) stated that the German concept of academic freedom included two complementary elements: Lernfreiheit and Lehrfreiheit--meaning freedom of learning and freedom of teaching respectively. In the United States, Canada, and Thailand, the concept of academic freedom has primarily focused on the later element--freedom of teaching.

Currently, higher education in North America enjoys a fairly high degree of academic freedom and autonomy compared to colleges and universities in the developing countries where there is more concern for political, religious, or social orthodoxy (Altbach, 1987).

As the demands for higher education continue to grow, colleges and universities are forced to adapt to meet the changing expectations of society. At the same time, institutions cling to images of ideal forms to which they aspire. This is epitomized in the words of Clark Kerr (1963):

> A university anywhere can aim no higher than to be as British as possible for the sake of the undergraduates, as German as possible for the sake of the graduates and the research personnel, as American as possible for the sake of the public at large. (p. 18)

To this it is tempting to add: As Canadian as possible for the sake of the institution.

Higher Education in Thailand

Nimmanheminda (1970), the former Minister of Education of Thailand, observed that "the chief motive for the establishment of the first university [Chulalongkorn University] in Thailand was mainly to train civil servants to serve the numerous branches

of government of the country which was emerging from a feudal past into the new era as a modern state" (p.11). Nimmanheminda (1970) further explained that the intent of the establishment of the university was to meet the needs of human resource during the modernization of the country. Srisa-an (1981) and Olanvoravuth (1983) concurred and stated that the initial function of the institute of higher education was basically to train civil servants to serve the government's departments. Therefore the universities established at that time were meant to meet the human resource needs essential for national modernization. Watson (1991) studied the development of Thai universities and concluded that although the genesis of the first university was triggered by the Thai monarchy, the model used was that of the French *grandes ecoles*--training institutions for different government ministries. Watson (1991) observed that since universities became associated with specific government ministries, the result was that all were to be found in and around the capital, Bangkok. Ketudat (1972, cited in Watson, 1989) depicted that these universities were seen as "finishing schools" or as "professional training schools for government. . . rather than as communities of scholars engaged in research and the pursuit of truth" (p. 72).

Relf (1977) observed that higher educational development in Southeast Asia has traditionally embraced three strands: (1) rote memorization of knowledge; (2) liberal arts of the western world; and (3) job preparation. This trend and practice are undeniably true in the current development of higher education in Thailand.

Furthermore the International Association of Universities (1979, cited in Watson, 1989) stated:

> Universities in developing countries should try to produce manpower not only at the highest level but also at critical sub-degree levels necessary for development; that their research programs should emphasize not so much production of new knowledge as the application of existing knowledge to local problems. . . and that they should emphasize their responsibilities to offer public service in terms of extension programs in adult education, community health and delivery health care, extension services in agriculture, liaison with Ministries of Education and Teacher Training Colleges. (p. 69)

Srisa-an (1981) supported these ideas and stated that "universities in a developing country like Thailand perhaps should play a more active role directly related to national development, and be a source of 'knowledge industry' to foster academic advancements" (p. 13).

Objectives and Functions of Higher Education

Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) revealed that the objectives of higher education in Thailand have never been formally stated. Only the institutional functions were explicitly stated in the University Act. Setamanit (1981) reported that in 1974 the Subcommittee on Higher Education of the Committee for establishing the Framework for Education Reform proposed the following objectives of higher education:

1. The full development of intellectual abilities to accord with the advancement of technology and progress of mankind.
2. The production of professional manpower capable of expanding social development.
3. The dissemination of knowledge for the benefit of the community.
4. The preservation of the cultural and artistic heritage.
5. The development of man in terms of morality and ethics to achieve individual and social harmony. (p. 232)

Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) indicated that the Chulalongkorn University Act stipulated the institutional functions which reflected the Thai university commitment to the society: "Chulalongkorn University shall be an education and research institution providing higher academic and professional education and preserving cultural heritage" (p. 24). In spite of the university's commitment to four main functions namely teaching, research, public service, and culture, Srisa-an (1981) observed that the prime mission of the Thai universities was to be "the suppliers of higher level manpower" (p. 13).

Evidently the aforementioned philosophy, ideas, and practice in the system of higher education caused a considerable impact on the way Thai universities perform their main functions.

The Teaching Function

Chandarasorn (1978) stated succinctly that teaching is the most important mission of university faculty members. Later Setamanit (1981) confirmed that it is not uncommon to find university faculty who think that their sole responsibility is to teach and do nothing else. Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) supported the idea when they revealed the result of two survey studies of the work load of permanent faculty members at both Srinakharinwirot University (1975) and Chulalongkorn University (1976). The study found that 54.4 % of faculty members at Chulalongkorn University spent most of their time teaching while 75% of Srinakharinwirot University faculty members engaged solely in teaching.

Instruction in Thailand, as in other countries, has been the object of criticism. Nakata (1975) commented: "It is not the custom of Thai students to argue, to criticize, to analyze or even to express ideas since they are not trained to have this kind of participating experience" (p. 85). Indeed rote learning is encouraged and lectures are the dominant form of instruction. Watson (1989) indicated that students have to write down the dictations to learn, to memorize for examination purposes, and that "much of what is taught is either very erudite or unrelated to the needs of Thai society. Too much of the course content is either based on western texts, especially American ones, or has a western orientation" (p. 89).

Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) also expressed their concern for the quality of teaching in universities. They indicated that based on the distribution of teaching faculty members in government universities [Ph.D.s (15%); master's (50%); bachelor's (35%)], faculty member qualifications are still less than desired. However, they stated that in recent years the percentage of faculty members holding doctoral and master's degrees is increasing. Olanvoravuth (1983) reported later that the desired ratio of teaching staff of government universities prescribed by the Ministry of University Affairs is Ph.D.s 20%; master's 55%; bachelor's 25%. By 1990, the distribution of teaching staff in government universities has

improved to Ph.D.s 21%; master's 63%; bachelor's 16% (Personnel Division, Ministry of University Affairs, 1990).

Even though Olanvoravuth (1983) believed that the university should be accountable for the effectiveness of its faculty members in imparting the knowledge and skills which are sought by students, in reality not enough attention has been given to improving the teaching effectiveness of the faculty members.

The prime function of the teachers colleges before the pronouncement of the Teachers College Act (1975) was teaching. As a result, the general structure of the colleges was organized around instruction. Further, the main tasks the teachers colleges performed after the Teachers College Act (1975) were to produce quality graduates in the area of teacher education and to academically serve the surrounding regions. In summary, Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) Srisa-an (1981) concluded that the academic system of the teachers colleges before and after the enactment of the Teachers College Act (1975) was largely oriented toward teaching.

The Research Function

Although research is a basic component of higher education in Thailand, Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) and Srisa-an (1981) reported that the extent of research is limited and its impact on faculty members and programs of studies is comparatively weak by western standards. Suvanajata's (1975) study of the Thai professorial role found that during 1971-1973 only 43 % of faculty members were engaged in research. About one year later a Chulalongkorn University survey reported by Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) revealed that only 6.2% of time was spent on both research and writing texts and papers. In a similar study conducted at Srinakharinwirot University in 1975, Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) revealed that only one-fourth of the faculty members engaged in research work or writing texts and papers. Setamanit (1981) explained the reason why the conduct of research among faculty members was so low; it is because the teaching load was officially

recognized, but the research work was not. However, Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) reported that significant research in medical science and agriculture had been conducted by Mahidol University and Kasetsart University respectively. Setamanit (1981) indicated that the number of faculty members engaged in research work was increasing. In order to involve faculty members in research Chulalongkorn University has started to promote sabbatical leaves to enable faculty members to research, write textbooks, or to pursue other approved academic activities. Olanvoravuth (1983) reported the same practices in Khon Kaen University in order to promote engagement in research among faculty members. Olanvoravuth (1983) advocated cooperative research among university scholars. UNESCO's (1981) meeting recommended that regional cooperation among ASEAN higher education institutions on collaborative research would strengthen the standard of higher learning in this part of the world.

Even though the function of research has been specified in the Teachers College Act (1975), Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) reported that the teachers colleges were just starting in their role as research centers.

The Service Function

Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) indicated that the term "public service" first appeared as a stated goal in the Srinakharinwirot University Act in 1974. Even though the function of public service was not stated in the university law prior to 1974, Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) revealed that public service has long been recognized as an important mission of Thai universities. Likewise, Olanvoravuth (1983) stated that "Services are important to the university and its staff because the university must serve the interests of the community as the welfare of the university cannot be separated from the well-being of its society" (p. 36).

Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) reported that the community farmers in Chiang Mai were educated, and informed by Chiang Mai University faculty members through community service programs. Olanvoravuth (1983) categorized services to community as

research and training because research findings are used to improve various training programs such as medical mobile programs, farm and fishery programs, and nursing home programs. McNabb (1978) studied the study-service programs--namely Maeklong Integrated Rural Development Project (MIRD)--which involved faculty, graduate volunteers and students from Thammasat University, Mahidol University, and Kasetsart University in Bangkok in an effort to apply social sciences, medicine and agriculture to the problem of rural development. McNabb (1978) saw this as a means of universities bringing together the expertise of their faculty to serve the country through community services.

Setamanit (1981) made clear that "teaching, research and publication, administration, student affairs, community services and committee work" (p. 240) are considered to be the normal duties for Thai university faculty members. He also stated that it was accepted that all of the five duties were equally important. Setamanit (1981) listed faculty members' duties at Chulalongkorn University, the most prestigious university in Thailand. They are as follows: teaching, work connected with teaching, student counselling, curriculum development, specific programs in academic affairs, education and professional promotion, student affairs, administration, committee work, and social services (within and without campus). Setamanit (1981) reported that faculty members spent about 2.96 hours a week in the performance of social services.

The Culture Function

Culture is another element of Thai colleges and universities. Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) revealed that the term "cultural preservation" first appeared in the Chulalongkorn University Act in 1943. Since then the words have been added to every university mission except that of NIDA. Teachers colleges have also adopted the same four missions--education, research, service, and culture. The role of preserving and promoting culture in government universities became distinct and eminent when the three regional universities

were established--Chiang Mai University (1964), Khon Kaen University (1965), and Prince of Songkhla University (1968). Kalakicha (1973) stated this particular function of the regional universities as follows:

> A regional university should be the center for preservation and promotion of the cultural heritage and traditions of the region, each having its own natural resources, socio-natural environment and problems of development which differs from others. The university would be the best place as a center of research to preserve the cultural assets as well as attempting to develop the local communities and human resources to make the best use of its natural resources. (p. 11)

Watson (1989) indicated that those three regional universities have committed their concern for the local culture, environment, history and languages and "all have not only tried to become centers for higher learning in the regions but they have become centers for the preservation of the cultural heritage and traditions of the region" (p. 78). Olanvoravuth (1983) supported the idea in his report for Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development (RIHED) that Khon Kaen University serve as a center for culture. Watson (1989) concluded that even though the philosophy of Thai higher education has undergone tremendous change in the past three decades, the preservation of Thai culture has been the hallmark of Thai universities.

Faculty Development in Higher Education

This review examines the literature on faculty development in higher education institutions, particularly colleges and universities in North America because the literature on faculty development in this part of the world is established and still growing rapidly. The literature on faculty development has accumulated at a rapid rate since the early 1970s (Centra, 1989). By 1976, Centra's survey disclosed that 60% of the U.S. institutions that responded had programs for faculty or instructional improvement. In Thailand, the term "staff development" has come into use in university institutions since 1977 (Srisa-an, 1982). However, it seems that the concept is still not widely recognized or implemented. To those who see merit in the idea, staff and faculty development can be part of organizational policies, and programs and procedures to facilitate and support the

professional growth of staff so that they may more fully serve their own, their students' and their institutions' needs. According to Greenaway and Harding (1978), faculty development may be said to have four aims:

1. to help staff perform as effectively as possible in their existing roles;
2. to provide opportunities for staff to prepare themselves for changing duties and responsibilities;
3. to provide opportunities for staff members to equip themselves for increased responsibility and career advancement;
4. to enhance job satisfaction. (p. 13)

Need for Faculty Development in Higher Education

Rapid socio-economic changes and the accelerated progress of knowledge as well as its application to widely different fields, are among the variables which have given rise to and encouraged the diversification of higher education (UNESCO, 1989). Thus, the need for staff and faculty development in these higher education institutions is evident. Many writers such as Centra (1989), Eble and Mckeachie (1985), Mathis (1982) Bergquist and Phillips (1975), and Gaff (1975) agree that colleges and universities should have an organized system for faculty development as an integral part of the institution to sustain effective instruction. Related to this matter, Fishburne (Folio, 1992), [the Elementary Education professor who received the Rutherford Award for Excellence in Undergraduate Teaching in 1987 and the national 3M Teaching Fellowship for Excellence in University Teaching in 1990], stated that "professional development is vital if teaching at the University of Alberta is to improve" (p. 2). In order to organize effective staff and faculty development programs and activities, a needs assessment was recommended as an integral and crucial part of planning and organizing faculty development programs.

Higher education has expanded rapidly in Thailand especially in the recent past. This rapid rate of expansion has increased the complexities of the system as a whole. This has caused serious stresses and strains on higher education which in turn is restricting its capability to contribute to national development. Being at the apex of the educational system of higher education, colleges and universities take the responsibility for creating and

delivering new knowledge on which society depends for its progress, and for producing the highly skilled manpower needed to lead society and for better living standards for all people in Thailand.

Understanding the nature of faculty members need for professional development can provide the basis for creating suitable staff development programs. Gaff (1975) indicated that:

> it is becoming apparent that in the years ahead colleges and universities will have to rely on their current faculty members to provide fresh perspectives, infuse new ideas, and give leadership to innovative programs if they are to maintain vigorous educational climates. (p. 1)

Small, Konrad, Hassen, and Pickard (1976) stated although higher education institutions attempt to recruit people with the certain capacities and talents needed by the institutions, this is not always possible. Similarly, because of changing educational needs, the need for renewal, retraining or redevelopment of faculty members arises so that existing staff members can cope effectively with new demands placed upon them. While many faculty members in higher education institutions are constantly engaged in personal programs for faculty development, Small et al. (1976) and Prachongchit (1984) stated that there is a growing need for a more systematic institutional approach to ongoing staff development of all staff members in higher education.

To try to maintain high quality of instruction in higher education within the context of these constraints and demands, colleges and universities will have to search for programs to bring about both improvement in the teaching-learning process as well as quality of faculty staff. In other words, an appropriate and effective professional development program is urgently needed. Watson (1989), Elton (1987), Prachongchit (1984) and Setamanit (1981) indicated that there was a perceived need for staff and faculty development in the Thai universities and the highest needs for staff development are in the areas of instructional and personal improvement. These findings may apply most to

teachers colleges since, in Thailand, universities are more prestigious and can hire more qualified faculty.

Components of Staff and Faculty Development

Three of the most widely accepted faculty development models were developed by Gaff (1975), Bergquist and Phillips (1975), and Toombs (1975) and all agreed that high quality staff development has the following three components: (a) instructional development; (b) personal development; (c) organizational development. These are the activities which aim both to maintain and to improve the professional competence of individual faculty members within effective institutions.

Staff development activities play an essential role in staff and faculty development processes. Since an array of activities is used to promote the objectives of staff development, the models developed by Gaff (1975), Bergquist and Phillips (1975), and Toombs (1975) are helpful to classify activities. Konrad (1983), Centra (1978, 1985), Gaff (1975), Bergquist and Phillips (1975) and Toombs (1975), discussed at length the array of activities used as a means to reach the goals of staff development. These scholars agreed on classifying the various development activities into three broad categories. The three categories proposed by Aidoo-Taylor (1986) as the result of the discussion are as follows:

1. Personal development activities: (a) workshop; seminars and presentations that explore general trends in education; (b) specialist and personal assistance to the individual staff members; (c) sabbatical and study leave; (d) professional conference; (e) work experience; (f) research projects; and (g) interpersonal skill training;
2. Instructional development activities: (a) Training in educational methodology and technology; (b) curriculum development; (c) microteaching; (d) peer evaluation; and student evaluation;
3. Organizational development activities: (a) department decision-making; (b) conflict management; (c) team building; (d) management development; and (e) information communication (p. 41)

Blackburn and Siegel (1980, cited in Centra 1989, p. 171) revealed from their studies that grants for teaching improvement, research projects, sabbatical leaves, and

travel awards were highly rated by respondents. Baldwin and Blackburn (1981, cited in Centra, 1989, p. 173) found that whereas senior faculty members enjoyed personal growth opportunities, younger faculty members seemed to enjoy workshops and seminars. Fulton and Trow's (1974, cited in Centra, 1989, p. 173) study showed that many professors turned more to teaching than research when they became older. Centra (1985) noted that sabbatical leaves were widely accepted as contributing to faculty members' research productivity. Centra (1989), then, concluded: "So the issue may not simply be which practices work best, but which practices work best for individuals at different stages of their careers" (p. 173). However, Bergquist and Phillips (1975) argued that effective faculty development must specifically have to do with the primary function of the faculty members--instruction in the classroom. In this concept, instructional development components are the most important.

Assessing Faculty Development Needs

The term "need" has many different meanings. Taba's (1962) definition of need was widely accepted and used by many writers, including educators in Thailand. She defined need as "the gap between the present stage of an individual and the desired objectives" (p. 286). Educational needs assessments have been conducted all over North America and elsewhere because of the underlying premise that effective faculty development must be based on the needs of the staff members. For example, Burrello and Orbaugh's (1982) study revealed that successful staff development programs must be based on the expressed needs of the staff. Prachongchit's (1984) and Ramaiah's (1984) studies concentrated on the need for faculty development at Srinakharinwirot University and instructional development at the University of Malaya respectively. The results from both studies revealed that there was a need for faculty or instructional development.

Faculty development programs must address both the needs of the institution and the needs of individual members. In selecting goals and objectives it is assumed that some

needs assessment have been undertaken, formally or informally. Harris (1989, p. 57) contended that assessing needs is a part of the goal-setting process. In an educational context, if one accepts the notion that clientele should serve as major guides to educational services provided by institutions, then there is a good deal of merit in surveying the idea of needs assessment in more detail.

Faculty Development in Thailand

Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) indicated that some activities of staff and faculty development such as professional conferences and scholarships for faculty members to pursue their studies abroad at a higher level have been common in universities in Thailand since 1977. Chulalongkorn University was the first university to initiate a staff development program in order to improve the quality of faculty teaching. Further, Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) reported initial concern within the system over the low qualifications of teaching staff of colleges and universities. Later, the cabinet approved and established a University Development Commission (UDC) to produce qualified teaching staff by utilizing domestic resources. Within 10 years, Ketudat and Srisa-an (1978) reported that over 8,000 students were enrolled in graduate programs throughout the country. A few years later two universities established extension and training centers--The Extension and Training Center at Kasetsart University and the In-Service Training Center at NIDA. Both centers have faculty status with a director as head of the center. The centers provided training courses for both staff members and outside agencies. Besides providing training programs for participants, the In-Service Training Center at NIDA also gave technical assistance and advice to government and state enterprises. Currently, Prachongchit (1984) revealed that most of the universities have their own faculty development programs emphasizing instructional improvement.

Historical Development of Teachers Colleges Outside Thailand

A study of historical development of teachers colleges overseas would shed some light on what have happened to those teachers colleges and what has become of them. This information will enable teachers colleges to anticipate the kind of changes which might lie ahead.

Development of Teachers Colleges in Canada

Wideen and Hopkins (1983) stated that the most significant change that had occurred in Canadian teacher education in the past 38 years was the shift from college/school setting to the university campus. This type of development first occurred in Newfoundland (1945), followed by Alberta in 1945. By 1970, all teacher education in Canada was assigned to universities.

Patterson (1976) reported that the study of teacher education in the province of Alberta started in 1906, one year after the Province of Alberta was established, when the province created its first "normal school" in Calgary. A rapid increase of immigrants into Alberta created demands for schools and qualified teachers, therefore more normal schools were needed. The Edmonton Normal School was opened in 1920. By 1921 the University Department of Philosophy and Psychology began offering courses in Education. Later in 1928 plans for a School of Education to train high school teachers were announced by the Senate of the University of Alberta. With the establishment of the School of Education, teacher education finally gained a place in the university community. In 1939, the University of Alberta School of Education became the College of Education. Attempts to upgrade the College of Education to the Faculty of Education had started in 1943 when a proposal to integrate teacher education under the Faculty of Education was initiated by the University of Alberta. Later the same year, legislation was passed which allowed teacher training to be moved out of the government-operated normal schools and over to the University of Alberta. All teacher training was assigned to the University in 1945.

Development of Teachers Colleges in the United States

In spite of the recognition of a need for better-qualified teachers, Cushman (1977) reported, it was not until 1823 that the first private teacher training institution or normal school was established in the United States. Johnson, Collins, Dupuis, and Johansen (1991) reported that by the early part of the twentieth century, normal schools were forced by several factors (e.g. the population growth and the need to keep up with the advancement of technology) to expand their programs. More education and more qualified teachers were needed by society to keep up with the accelerated progress of knowledge and its application to broadly different fields. To meet this growing demand, Cushman (1977) described how the normal schools lengthened their teacher education program to two years and became known as "teachers colleges" in 1920s and 1930s. Not long after, teachers colleges expanded their programs to four years and began granting baccalaureate degrees. Eventually normal schools were called state teachers colleges. Within 20 years, teachers colleges began changing themselves into multi-purpose state colleges or state universities which granted degrees in liberal arts, education and other degrees. One of the main reasons for this transition was that more and more students entering the colleges demanded a more varied education. Some of the United States' largest and most highly regarded universities such as Western Michigan University have developed from teachers colleges.

Development of Teachers Colleges in England

England has a very long history of teacher education. In 1963, the Robbins Committee made several recommendations in relation to teacher education (Khan, 1983). One recommendation made at that time was that the teacher training colleges should be known in the future as Colleges of Education. According to the recommendations, the teachers colleges were renamed. But the Robbins' recommendation that the College of Education became part of the universities was not put into effect. In 1972, the recommendations of the White Paper (James Report) on educational reorganization made

significant changes in the organization of teacher education. One of the major objectives of the James Report was the integration of colleges of education into the higher education system.

Eggleston (1975) stated that four main patterns were formed from the old teacher training colleges. The first pattern was the linkage of teachers colleges either separately or in groups to polytechnics. The second form of linkage was with institutions of further education. The third pattern of linkage was the amalgamation of existing colleges of education to form larger new units of advanced further education. The fourth form of linkage was that between an existing college of education and a university. In 1978, a number of colleges of education merged either with each other or with other colleges of further education to form liberal arts colleges or institutions of higher education. Some colleges of education discontinued completely the initial training of teachers and some teachers colleges were closed due to the continued decline in birth rate.

Development of Teachers Colleges in Australia

Turner (1943) revealed that the organized preparation of teachers in Australia began in the early 1850s. Turner (1943) stated that in 1940, the state teachers colleges were responsible for the preparation of the majority of teachers in Australia. During that time there were two teachers colleges in New South Wales and one in each of the remaining states. By 1962, Barcan (1980) reported, the number of teachers colleges rose to 28. However, a big change in Australian teachers colleges occurring after the Robbins Committee report on higher education in Britain (Williams, 1978). The significant change, influenced by the British report, was the upgrading of teachers colleges from single-purpose institutions to multi-purpose colleges of advanced education. Each state had its own way to upgrade its teachers colleges. Various forms were: the amalgamation of teachers colleges; an amalgamation of colleges of advanced education; an amalgamation of existing teachers colleges with agricultural colleges or teachers colleges with college of

advanced education. In New South Wales, all teachers colleges were upgraded to colleges of advanced education. In contrast, the government of Victoria made its teachers colleges part of a new organization--the State College of Victoria. Williams (1978) reported that in 1969 there were 26 institutions recognized as colleges of advanced education. In 1977, the number rose to 80. Another later development of some Australian teachers colleges was to become an institution of education within the university. The establishment of Deakin University, from Geelong Teachers Colleges and the Gordon Institute of Technology, is a good example of this.

The study of historical development of teachers colleges outside Thailand helps both faculty members and administrators to realize that the change is inevitable. Most teachers colleges became colleges of education or faculties of education in universities. A number of faculty members as well as some administrators are complacent with being teachers colleges and want to maintain the status quo. They may see more disadvantages than advantages in upgrading teachers colleges to university status. They may not want to become subject to the norms of the university. To keep them informed would bring them back to reality and may accept and support the change.

Job Satisfaction

Johns (1988) explained that job satisfaction "refers to a collection of attitudes which workers have about their jobs" (p. 127). Job satisfaction comprises two aspects--facet satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Facet satisfaction is the tendency for a worker to have some degree of satisfaction with some aspect of the job. Overall satisfaction is "an overall or summary indicator of a person's attitude toward his or her job that cuts across the various facets" (p. 127). In Miklos's (1992) review of doctoral research completed in the Department of Educational Administration, the University of Alberta since 1958, he stated that satisfaction has been treated differently in different studies. On one hand, it is viewed

as "a characteristic that merits attention in its own right" (p. 6-15), on the other hand it is viewed as an indicator of effectiveness.

Many theorists presented their theories concerning job satisfaction. Among these, Herzberg's and Maslow's theories provided fundamental understanding in spite of other theorists' criticism of the treatment of human needs, satisfaction, and motivation in these theories.

Theories of Satisfaction

Motivation-hygiene theory. The basic principle of Herzberg's (1966) theory is that there are two sets of factors--one set of "intrinsic" rewards or motivators contributes to job satisfaction and the other set of "extrinsic" ones or hygiene factors produces job dissatisfaction. Motivators include achievement, recognition, possibility of growth, responsibility, advancement, and the work itself. Hygiene factors comprise interpersonal relationships, technical supervision, policy and administration, personal working conditions, and personal status and job security. Herzberg (1966) concluded that satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on a continuum but exist independent of one another. In his view, a factor such as sense of achievement can produce an employee's satisfaction, but lack of it will not create dissatisfaction. On the contrary, lack of interpersonal relations with supervisors or peers can lead to dissatisfaction.

This theory has gained considerable attention in the study of job satisfaction. Johnson (1988) reported that "within current literature, this theory continues to attract both considerable support and extensive criticism" (p. 31).

Maslow's need hierarchy theory. Hudgins, Phye, Schau, Theisen, Ames, and Ames (1983) claimed that Maslow's need theory "is probably the one that has been best developed" (p. 394). The basic principle of this theory is concerned with what motivates workers. Maslow's (1970) "need hierarchy" comprises five basic need levels ranging from the lowest to the highest. The needs hierarchy is (1) physiological, (2)

safety, (3) belongingness and affiliativeness, (4) esteem, and (5) self-actualization. Maslow (1970) argued that job satisfaction is directly related to the degree to which these five needs are addressed. This theory stated that more basic needs or lower-order needs must be satisfied before the next higher-order need can be satisfied. According to Maslow, growth is the only way to satisfy self actualization in a person. In fact for most people, Maslow's self actualization can never be fulfilled. In relation to job satisfaction, Hudgins et al. (1983) explained that Maslow's self-actualization as a need for continuous process of growth and development builds on needs for achievement, competence, and independence.

Johnson (1988) intensively reviewed the literature on job satisfaction and concluded that the literature showed that job satisfaction is not only important but also a very complex construct. Rice's (1978) study with the principals in Alberta found that major sources of satisfaction are relationships with teachers, responsibility and autonomy, and a sense of accomplishment. Rice (1978) revealed that responsibility and autonomy, and relationships with teachers contributed the most to overall job satisfaction. Similar to Rice's findings, Johnson (1988) found that working with teachers and students made an evident contribution to overall job satisfaction.

Davis (1980) studied job satisfaction among nurses and found that these items ranked highest in importance to nurses: (1) the feeling that one's work is important, (2) opportunities for professional and personal growth, (3) opportunity to plan and organize one's own work and responsibilities, (4) freedom to choose one's own instructional methods, and (5) the extent to which one is kept informed about decisions and events that affect one's work. In addition, Davis' (1980) founding that these items ranked highest in job satisfaction: (1) relationships with students, (2) freedom to choose one's own instructional methods, (3) relationships with colleagues, (4) opportunity to plan and organize one's own work and responsibilities, and (5) respect of the student.

Onuoha (1980) studied the job satisfaction of educators in rehabilitation medicine in 11 Canadian Universities and found that intrinsic job facets contributed more to overall job

satisfaction than extrinsic job facets. Onuoha (1980) further revealed that recognition, achievement, varied and challenging content of work, and good interpersonal relationships with students were among factors contributed to job satisfaction. Bacon's (1971) study of communication and role satisfaction in five Canadian postsecondary institutions reported that satisfaction with communication had a positive relation to role satisfaction for presidents, faculty members as well as students. Generally, Bacon (1971, cited in Miklos, 1992) concluded that "all groups preferred individual contacts over group contacts, oral contacts over written contacts, self-initiated communication over other-initiated, and informal contacts over formal ones" (pp. 6-16). Sroypan's (1988) study of the relationship of job satisfaction of junior high school principals in Alberta to the personal perceptions of school effectiveness revealed that school principals obtained their satisfaction from working relationships with students and teachers. Miklos (1992) concluded from the three studies of satisfaction in schools in Alberta (Gunn, 1984; Sroypan, 1988; Johnson, 1988) that the feature of "'having a sense of accomplishment' was strongly related to overall job satisfaction . . . " (pp. 6-17).

Summary

A literature review of five major areas directly related to the study is provided in this chapter. The literature on the mission of western higher education highlighted different "theory and practice" of the three main functions--teaching, research, and service in western universities. The review showed that while research and publication has become more and more important for higher education institutions not only to retain their prestige but also to compete for financial support, teaching is still considered the most important function of faculty. Service may be considered a distant third behind teaching and research, but it is gaining more recognition in higher education especially in a period of scarce financial resources.

The second area presented in this chapter, higher education in Thailand, compared Thai universities with those in the western world. While the main purpose of the establishment of western universities was liberal education, the chief motive in Thailand was to meet human resource needs during the country's period of modernization. The main functions of Thai colleges and universities were also compared with those of the western universities. Besides the three traditional functions, Thai higher education adds the function of culture to its mission, although in practice it is given the least recognition. Faculty members in Thai universities spend most of their time on teaching and related activities and have very little time for the other functions.

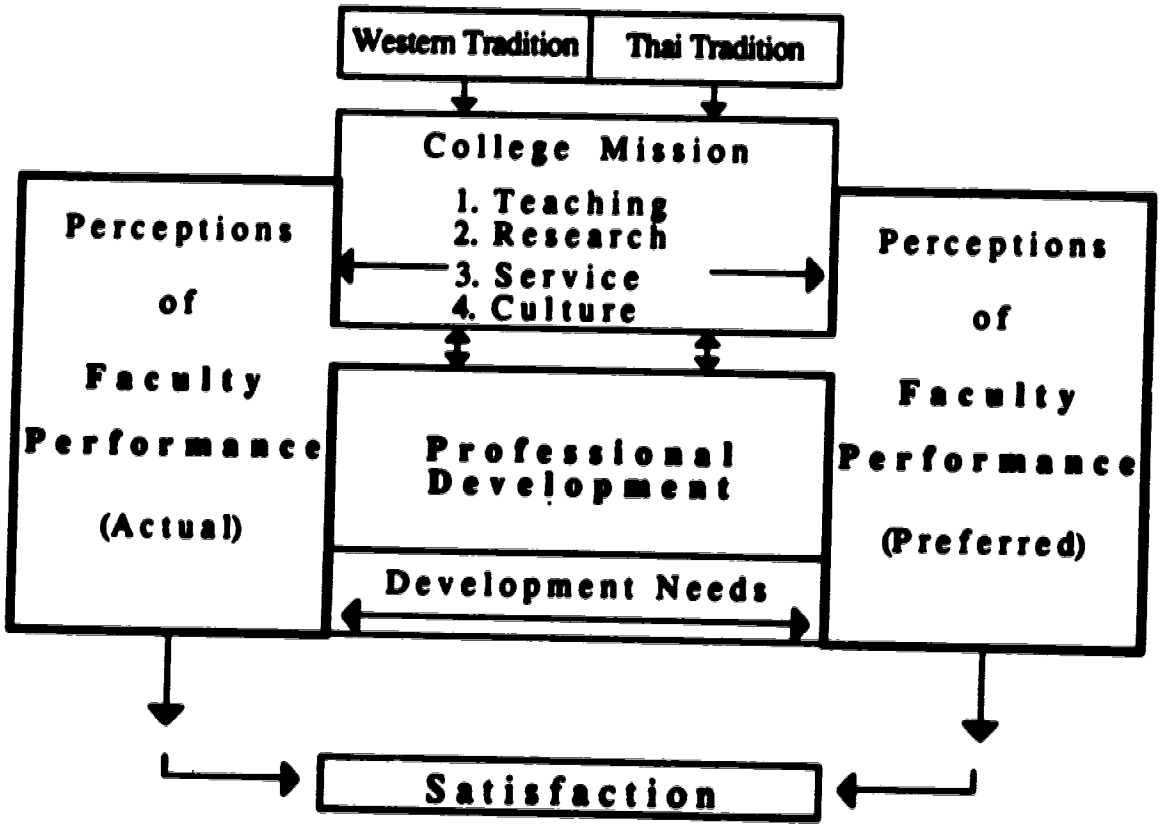
Faculty development practice in both Thailand and North America is discussed as a means for faculty vitality and performance improvement. Whereas the literature on professional development in the western world has been studied and accumulated at a rapid rate since the early 1970s, the history of faculty development in Thai higher education is comparatively short. Thai colleges and universities can benefit from the western experience. Thai faculty members need to become more aware of the importance of faculty development and vitality as a means to academic excellence in the context of life long learning and rapidly expanding knowledge.

The historical development of teachers colleges outside Thailand is presented to provide an international comparison. The information shows that teachers colleges world wide have been subject to transformation. Some have been closed but most of them have become either comprehensive universities or colleges of education or faculties of education within universities or higher education degree-granting institutions.

The last area presented in this chapter is job satisfaction. Two popular theories--Herzberg's theory of motivation and Maslow's needs theory are presented. Various research findings pertaining to job satisfaction are also discussed. Job satisfaction and motivation are key factors influencing role performance.

These concepts comprise the theoretical framework for the study (Figure 2.1). The mission of teachers colleges is a combination of the western tradition of teaching, research, and service, plus the unique Thai concern for cultural preservation. These four functions became the focus for faculty development. Development theory can be applied to the improvement of each of the functions.

The dimensions of faculty performance, which is the central concern of this study, are derived from the four college functions. Perceptions of actual and preferred performance can be gathered and compared. The gap between sets of actual and preferred performance provide the basis for assessment of the development needs which should be addressed by Thai teachers colleges. Satisfaction is conceptually linked to the degree to which faculty members are able to fulfil the performance expectations held for them.



Theoretical Framework
Figure 2.1

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Chapter 4 describes the research design and methodological procedures used in this study. It contains six main sections. They are research design, sampling and data collection, the development of the questionnaire, distribution and returns of the questionnaire, the profile of the respondents, and finally the analysis of the data is outlined.

Research Design

The research design selected for this study is a descriptive survey. Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990) stated that descriptive research is designed to collect data relating to the current status of phenomena. In other words, it describes"what exists with respect to variables or conditions in a situation" (p. 381). Therefore the data collection was done to measure what exists without questioning why it exists. For this reason there were no hypotheses tested in this study. The data relating to the research questions were collected mainly through a questionnaire survey. Interviews were also used to validate and complement the data collected through the questionnaire. Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1990) stated that the survey method was considered to be suitable for a descriptive study because this type of research is designed to obtain information in relation to the current status, preferred status and the means to achieve that desired status. Furthermore, the descriptive survey method with a questionnaire technique has been chosen because it is deemed suitable for this kind of research. There are several advantages of a descriptive questionnaire survey. It is suitable for collecting data in response to specific questions and all respondents answer within the same framework if the structured format or closed ended approach is used (Vockell, 1983). Second, Ary et al. (1990) stated that the questionnaire is very efficient and practical for large samples. Third, Ary et al. (1990) noted that standard instructions are provided to all respondents and researcher bias is avoided. Prior to data collection, two pilot tests were carried out to ensure that all important issues were

investigated and to check the validity of the instrument and the accuracy of its translation into Thai.

Data Collection and Sample Selection

Two united colleges were selected for study. One is the urban united colleges--UCR located in Metropolitan Bangkok and the other is the rural united colleges--UCL located in the northern part of Thailand. The UCL is comprised of four rural teachers colleges, namely Chiang Rai Teachers College (CTC), Chiang Mai Teachers College (CMTC), Lampang Teachers College (LTC), and Uttaradit Teachers College (UTC), while UCR is compriaed of six urban teachers colleges--Chantrakasem Teachers College (ChTC), Pranakhon Teachers College (PTC), Suansunantha Teachers College (SuTC), Suandusit Teachers College (STC), Bansomdetchaophraya Teachers College, and Thonburi Teachers College (TTC). Prior to random selection, TTC was dropped because of its very small size compared to the other five urban colleges, and CMTC was also dropped because of its location in a very big city--Chiangmai. Two teachers colleges, then, were selected randomly by drawing from each united colleges. All faculty members from the four selected colleges (CTC, LTC, PTC, and ChTC) were the subject of survey. In sum, the population of this study comprised all full-time academic staff members listed in the latest calendar from the four selected teachers colleges.

Development of the Questionnaire

The major instrument used for collecting the data for the study was a questionnaire prepared specifically for the study. The questionnaire was developed from three areas of study: role perceptions of faculty members in performing the four main functions, the need for professional development, and job satisfaction. Questionnaire items were developed not only from an extensive and critical review of literature but also from the recommendation of the supervisory committee and two graduate students in the Department of Educational Administration, the University of Alberta. The two graduate students

chosen to review the English language version of the questionnaire had a particular interest and experience in postsecondary education.

Part B of the questionnaire contained 20 activities developed from the four traditional functions. Table 4.1 portrays how these 20 items were developed. In each section (Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture), a model was created and then questionnaire items were developed from the model. Twelve items (60%) were developed from the model of Teaching, 3 items(15%) from the model of Research, 3 items (15%) from the model of Service, and 2 items (10%) from the model of Culture.

Table 4.1

Questionnaire Items Developed from Theoretical Framework

Teaching	Research	Service	Culture
Content = 4 items	Knowledge/ Performance=2 items	Public service=1 item	Knowledge/ Performance=1 item
Student-related activities = 4 items	Student-related activities = 1 item	Institutional service = 1 item	Student-related activities = 1 item
Method = 4 items		Student-related activities = 1 item	
Total = 12 items Percentage = 60	Total = 3 items Percentage = 15	Total = 3 items Percentage = 15	Total = 2 items Percentage = 10

Part D (Professional development arrangements) contained 12 items. These items were drawn from development theory presented in the section *Faculty Development in Higher Education* (Chapter 3). Aidoo-Taylor (1986), Centra (1989), Prachongchit (1984), Ramaiah (1984), and Baldwin and Blackburn (1981, cited in Centra, 1989) proposed the following activities as means for faculty development--workshop, seminar, conference, study leave, work experience, travel grants, circulation of newsletters and articles etc.

Satisfaction items in Part F were drawn from research findings conducted by Johnson (1988), Sroypan (1988), Davis (1980), Onuoha (1980).

Since the collection of data was done in Thailand, the questionnaire was developed in English first and then translated into Thai. Only the Thai version (Appendix A) was used to collect data. The questionnaire was designed to elicit responses about the role perceptions held by academic faculty members and aspects of professional development and job satisfaction which are related to role enhancement.

The questionnaire consisted of six parts:

Part A. This part required the respondents to give their personal data concerning gender, age, academic rank, academic degree, and years of experience. These data were used to describe the characteristics of the respondents.

Part B. This section contained 20 items of the functions of faculty members. Two columns of five Likert-type scale, actual performance and preferred performance, were for respondents to demonstrate their perception of their level of performance. The numbers on the scale corresponded to the following levels of the perception of performance:

1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, 5=high

Part C. This part was to ask the respondents to fill in the percentages of time they spent on teaching, research, service, and culture.

Part D. Professional development activity items were presented in this part to measure the respondents' preferences.

Part E. This section contained four open-ended questions pertaining to the four traditional functions of the Thai universities. This part required faculty members to describe their difficulties in performing the four functions.

Part F. The second last part was to assess the respondents' perceptions of job satisfaction. The last part was open to the respondents to add any other comments relevant to their role as a faculty member in a teachers college.

Pilot-test of the Questionnaires

In an effort to enhance the questionnaire's validity, two pilot-tests were conducted. For the first pilot-test, Thai students who are studying at the University of Alberta were asked to complete the Thai pilot version of the questionnaire designed to be used in the major study. In addition, they were invited to make comments and suggestions for improving the questionnaire. Again, five of the participants were interviewed for further comments and recommendations. After the improvement of the questionnaire according to the comments and suggestions from the first pilot-test, the questionnaire was sent for a second pilot test at Chachoengsao Teachers College in Thailand. The purpose of the two pilot studies was to examine the clarity, and validity of the questionnaire. Some items were rewritten, reworded, some items were modified and some were discarded, depending on the result of the pilot studies. From these comments and recommendations, final revisions were made to make the questionnaire complete.

Validity

Heyes, Hardy, Humphreys, and Rookes (1986) stated that validity of measurement refers to the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Validity requires both accuracy and consistency. In order to validate the questionnaire, the items were scrutinized by both the supervisory committee and two graduate students in the Department of Educational Administration, the University of Alberta. Based on their suggestions, some items were reworded, rewritten, eliminated and added. The pilot-tests of the questionnaire developed for this study established a measure of its validity. Again in order to ensure that consistency existed between the Thai and the English versions, four Thai graduate students at the University of Alberta were requested to translate the Thai version of the questionnaire back to English without a previous review of the original English version. In order to validate the Thai questionnaire, Mr. Gosinet, the President of Alberta Thai Association and a teacher who has been teaching in Alberta for more than 22

years, was requested to scrutinize the questionnaire items. Then the revision of the questionnaire for greater clarity was done according to his comments and suggestions.

Reliability

While validity requires both accuracy and consistency, reliability requires only consistency (Heyes, Hardy, Humphreys, and Rookes, 1986). LeCompte and Goetz (1982) stated that "reliability refers to the extent to which studies can be replicated" (p. 35). Internal consistency of the questionnaire used in this study may be checked by several methods--test-retest method, split-half reliability, coefficient alpha, or using equivalent forms. In this study, Cronbach alpha and Guttman split-half were used to estimate internal consistency of part B, D and F of the questionnaire. Even though the split-half method appears to be the most popular, there is a drawback. Nunnally (1978) revealed that the correlation between halves will vary somewhat depending upon how the questionnaire items are divided. Nunnally (1978) suggested that researchers use coefficient alpha because it gives the correct correlation between any two halves of the items. Giles (1987) stated "a reliability coefficient of .80 or greater has been deemed acceptable in most research studies" (p. 56). However, Ary et al. (1985, cited in Giles, 1987) maintained that

> the degree of reliability needed in a measure depends to a great extent on the use that is made of the results. If the measurement results are to be used for making a decision about a group or even for research purposes, a lower reliability coefficient (in the range of .30 to .50) might be acceptable. But if the results are to be used as a basis for making decisions about individuals, especially important or irreversible decisions, only instruments with the highest reliability are acceptable. (p. 56)

Borg and Gall (1983 cited in Giles, 1987) stated that

> Reliability coefficients vary between values of .00 and 1.00, with 1.00 indicating perfect reliability. . . . The more closely a reliability coefficient is to the value of 1.00, the more the test is free of error variance and is a measure of the true differences among persons in the dimensions assessed by the test. (p. 56)

The correlation coefficients for the sections of the instrument are shown in Table 4.2. They are all within acceptable limits. The lower reliability obtained for part D (Professional Development Activities) could be explained by the fact that the items in part D

related not only to professional development activities but also to resources and appropriate time for professional development. Therefore, these could be the causes of a low reliability coefficient.

Table 4.2

Reliability Coefficients of the Questionnaire

Constituency	Coefficient alpha		Split-half	
	Pilot Test	Actual Questionnaire	Pilot Test	Actual Questionnaire
Part B. Functions (Actual)	.88	.88	.87	.89
Part B. Functions (Preferred)	.96	.92	.97	.92
Part D. Professional Development	.68	.84	.81	.84
Part F. Satisfaction	.84	.89	.90	.91

Distribution and Returns of the Questionnaire

Financial support of Fund for Support of International Development Activities (F.S.I.D.A.), made it possible for the researcher to return to Thailand to collect data. Due to limited time available, the questionnaires were distributed to all faculty members of the four selected colleges and collected over the next few days by the researcher. Table 4.3 presents the schedule of the distribution and returns of the questionnaire.

The goal in a questionnaire study is a 100 % return, but that expectation can rarely be true. Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990) stated that a more reasonable expectation of rates of returns may be 75-90 %. But that level is still very optimistic. Researchers such as Elfu (1991), Ell (1988), Prachongchit (1984), and Kerlinger (1973) were satisfied with return rates of 50% or 60%. Elfu (1991) further commented that the rates of returns for survey questionnaires in universities have been about 50%. In this study, the total questionnaires

Table 4.3

Schedule of Interviews, Distribution, and Returns of the Questionnaire

Date	Institutions	Activity
8 June 1992	CTC	Distribution of questionnaires
9 June 1992	CTC	Collection of questionnaires
10 June 1992	CTC	Interview four faculty members
11 June 1992	LTC	Distribution of questionnaires
12 June 1992	LTC	Collection of questionnaires
13 June 1992	LTC	Interview four faculty members
17 June 1992	PTC	Distribution of questionnaires
18 June 1992	PTC	Collection of questionnaires
19 June 1992	PTC	Collection of questionnaires
19 June 1992	PTC	Interview four faculty members
23 June 1992	ChTC	Distribution of questionnaires
24 June 1992	ChTC	Collection of questionnaires
25 June 1992	ChTC	Collection of questionnaires
26 June 1992	ChTC	Interview three faculty members

distributed were 729 and the returned questionnaires were 470. Therefore the return rate was 64.47% which was considered to be satisfactory.

Analysis of Data

Descriptive statistics and tests of significance were used to analyze data collected by means of questionnaires. Interview data and open-ended responses were content analyzed. Data analysis included the use of several different statistical techniques:

1. The data from part A of the questionnaire (Demographic Information) were analyzed using percentage and frequency distribution .

2. The data from part B (Functions of Academic Faculty) were factor analyzed.

3. The *t* test was used to test differences in means between two groups.

4. For statistical differences between means of three or more groups one-way analysis of variance and Scheffe's test were used.

5. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to investigate relationships among individual criteria.

6. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine what factors contribute to overall satisfaction.

Summary

The questionnaire was developed from the literature relevant to the conceptual framework of the study. The questionnaire was organized in six parts which covered personal data, functions of faculty members, percentage of time they spent on each function, professional development activities, their difficulties in performing their functions, and job satisfaction. The last part was open for their comments.

Two pilot-tests of the questionnaire were done to develop and improve the questionnaire that was used in the investigation. The revised questionnaire was used to obtain data relating to research questions. In order to complement the data collected by the questionnaire, semi-structured interviews were conducted. The data analyses were treated using eight different statistical techniques. These included percentage and frequency distribution, factor analysis, the *t* test, the Scheffe' one way analysis of variance, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression. Data obtained through open-ended were subjected to content analysis.

CHAPTER 5

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OF FACULTY IN TEACHERS COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

This chapter provides the profile of the respondents. Demographic information of faculty members from both teachers colleges and state universities obtained from documents collected from planning division in the Department of Teacher Education and personnel division in the Ministry of University Affairs is also presented. However, the most recent demographic information obtained from the Department of Teacher Education was a survey undertaken in 1992 whereas from the Ministry of University Affairs the data are for 1990. Therefore, the researcher compared faculty members' qualifications of these two types of institutions according to what was available. The comparison of all teachers colleges and all universities is presented.

Profile of the Respondents

In this section, the profiles of the 470 respondents from four different colleges are presented. These data describe the respondents grouped by college, faculty, gender, age, academic rank, highest academic degree, years of experience, and present position.

Characteristics of the Respondents

Demographic data of the respondents who completed the questionnaire are presented in Tables 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3. The information presented in Table 5.1 shows that the most respondents (180) were from PTC. The second highest (145) was from ChTC. The respondents from CTC and LTC numbered 60 and 85 respectively. The highest rate of return was from PTC (86%) and the lowest from CTC (47%).

Table 5.1

Respondents by College

Institutions	Distributed	Returned	Percentage
CTC	128	60	46.87
LTC	118	85	72.03
PTC	209	180	86.12
ChTC	274	145	52.91
Total	729	470	64.47

The data recorded in Table 5.2 show that of the total number of 470 respondents, 31.70% (149) were from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, 122 (25.96%) were from the Faculty of Science and Technology and 114 (24.25%) were from the Faculty of Education. The respondents who returned the questionnaires from the Faculty of Management Science, Agriculture and Industry, and Industrial Arts numbered 35 (7.45%), 24 (5.11%), and 21 (4.47%) respectively. These figures reflect the actual sizes of the faculties in the teachers colleges.

Table 5.2

Respondents by Faculty

Faculty	Frequency	Percentage
1. Humanities & Social Sciences	149	31.70
2. Science & Technology	122	25.96
3. Education	114	24.25
4. Management Science	35	7.45
5. Agriculture & Industry	24	5.11
6. Industrial Arts	21	4.47
7. Not Reported	5	1.06
Total	470	100.00

Demographic information about the respondents who completed the questionnaire is reported in Table 5.3. The information includes the frequency and percentage distributions of respondents by gender, age, academic rank, highest academic degree, and years of experience. The data recorded in Table 5.3 show that 59.15% of the respondents were female and 40.64% were male. The majority of the respondents (59.57%) were between 40-49 years old, 24.26% were older than 49 years old, and 15.74% were younger than 40 years old. In terms of academic rank, the majority (70%) of faculty members who completed the questionnaire were instructors or lecturers, while 27.24% were assistant professors, and only eight respondents were associate professors. Most respondents (70.43%) held master's degrees, while 23.41% and 4.89% had bachelor's degrees and doctoral degrees respectively. At the time of the study, 41.06% of respondents had worked at their college for more than 19 years, 37.24% had worked there 15-19 years, and 11.70% had working experience of between 10-14 years. The remaining 9.57% had worked there for 9 years or less. In terms of present position, 78 respondents or 16.60% reported that they were administrators (president, vice president, dean, associate dean, department chair, and associate chair) while 293 respondents or 62.34% were faculty members. These demographic data are seen to be typical of faculty in teachers colleges. The comparison of demographic data for the sample and for all faculty in teachers colleges reveals many similarities. For example, in terms of their educational background, 4.89%, 70.43%, and 23.41% of the sample held doctorates, master's degree, and bachelor's degree respectively as their highest qualification whereas 4.82%, 62.12%, and 32.55% of the total population had a doctorate, master's and bachelor's degree respectively. Therefore the sample to some extent can be considered typical of the total population of teachers college faculty members for the purpose of statistical analysis.

Table 5.3

Respondents by Gender, Age, Academic Rank, Highest Academic Degree, Years of Experience, and Present Position

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Female	278	59.15
Male	191	40.64
Not reported	1	0.21
Age		
39 and younger	74	15.74
40-49	280	59.57
50 and older	114	24.26
Not reported	2	0.43
Academic Rank		
Instructor (Lecturer)	329	70.00
Assistant Professor	128	27.24
Associate Professor	8	1.70
Professor	0	0
Not reported	5	1.06
Highest academic degree		
Bachelor's	110	23.41
Master's	331	70.43
Doctorates	23	4.89
Others	5	1.06
Not reported	1	0.21
Years of experience		
Less than 9	45	9.57
10-14	55	11.70
15-19	175	37.24
More than 19	193	41.06
Not reported	2	0.43
Present Position		
Administrators	78	16.60
Instructors	293	62.34
Not reported	99	21.06
Total	470	100.00

As stated earlier, teachers colleges have been upgrading to the university status. Therefore, they must think of improving their academic staff qualifications, institutional structure, performance of the four functions, equipment and facilities, working conditions, and academic atmosphere to university standards. In this chapter, the emphasis is on the comparison of faculty members' qualifications in teachers colleges and universities.

Comparison of All Teachers Colleges and All Universities

The number of faculty members in teachers colleges and their qualifications are recorded in Tables 5.4 and 5.5. The data in Table 5.4 show that the majority of faculty members held a master's degree (62.12%). The second largest group were the faculty members who had a bachelor's degree (32.55%). Only a small percentage of faculty members held doctorates (4.82%) and even a smaller percentage held qualifications less than a bachelor's degree (0.51%).

Table 5.5 summarizes faculty members' academic rank. The data in Table 5.5 show that the majority of faculty members were instructors (75.39%). The second largest group were assistant professors (23.15%). Only a small percentage were associate professors (1.46%). There were no full professors. In fact, according to the recent survey done by planning division in the Ministry of University Affairs in May, 1992, there are no professors in any of the Thai teachers colleges.

Table 5.4

Teachers College Academic Staff Qualifications by College in 1992

Institutions	Less than Bachelor's	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorates	Total
1. United Colleges of Lanna					
1.1 Chiangrai Teachers College	1	44	74	9	128
1.2 Chiang Mai Teachers College	1	79	166	7	253
1.3 Lampang Teachers College	1	46	68	4	119
1.4 Uttaradit Teachers College	2	51	83	12	148
2. United Colleges of Puttachinnaraat					
2.1 Phibunsongkhram Teachers College	0	56	110	8	174
2.2 Phetchabun Teachers College	0	41	51	3	95
2.3 Kamphaengphet Teachers College	0	23	62	7	92
2.4 Nakhonsawan Teachers College	1	58	103	1	163
3. United Colleges of Isan-Nua					
3.1 Loei Teachers College	0	29	75	3	107
3.2 Udonthani Teachers College	1	53	99	6	159
3.3 Sakonnakhon Teachers College	1	36	71	5	113
3.4 Mahasarakham Teachers College	0	65	97	9	171
4. United Colleges of Isan-Tai					
4.1 Ubonratchathani Teachers College	0	55	91	10	156
4.2 Surin Teachers College	0	37	85	9	131
4.3 Buriram Teachers College	0	56	86	7	149
4.4 Nakhonratchasima Teachers College	1	50	128	16	195
5. United Colleges of Si Ayuttaya					
5.1 Thepsatri Teachers College	0	40	115	2	157
5.2 Pranakhon Si Ayuttaya Teachers College	0	54	130	5	189
5.3 Petburiwittayalongkorn Teachers College	0	57	124	15	196
5.4 Chachoengsao Teachers College	0	56	103	6	165
5.5 Rampaiparnni College	1	43	81	10	135
6. United Colleges of Tawarawadi					
6.1 Kanchanaburi Teachers College	0	25	71	10	106
6.2 Nakhonprathom Teachers College	0	55	145	6	206
6.3 Muban Chombung Teachers College	1	39	83	5	128
6.4 Petchaburi Teachers College	0	54	113	11	178
7. United Colleges of Taksin					
7.1 Suratthani Teachers College	0	34	84	5	123
7.2 Nakhon Si Thammarat Teachers College	1	61	87	5	154
7.3 Phuket Teachers College	0	44	71	6	121
7.4 Songkhla Teachers College	0	70	143	11	224
7.5 Yala Teachers College	0	47	74	3	124
8. United Colleges of Rattanakosin					
8.1 Chantharakasem Teachers College	0	79	184	20	283
8.2 Pranakhon Teachers College	2	93	183	12	290
8.3 Suansunantha Teachers College	5	91	151	10	257
8.4 Suandusit Teachers College	10	108	151	21	290
8.5 Bansomdetchaophraya Teachers College	1	106	145	11	263
8.6 Thonburi Teachers College	1	49	99	4	153
Total	31	1,984	3,786	294	6,095
Percentage	0.51	32.55	62.12	4.82	100.00

Source: Planning Division, Department of Teacher Education, 1992

Table 5.5

Faculty's Academic Rank by College in 1992

Institutions	Instructor	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Professor	Total
1. United Colleges of Lanna					
1.1 Chiangrai Teachers College	107	20	1	0	128
1.2 Chiang Mai Teachers College	182	64	7	0	253
1.3 Lampang Teachers College	77	39	3	0	119
1.4 Uttaradit Teachers College	130	18	0	0	148
2. United Colleges of Puttachinnarat					
2.1 Phibunsongkhram Teachers College	107	61	6	0	174
2.2 Phetchabun Teachers College	77	17	1	0	95
2.3 Kamphaengphet Teachers College	69	22	1	0	92
2.4 Nakhonsawan Teachers College	112	47	4	0	163
3. United Colleges of Isan-Nua					
3.1 Loei Teachers College	82	23	2	0	107
3.2 Udonthani Teachers College	136	23	0	0	159
3.3 Sakonnakhon Teachers College	88	24	1	0	113
3.4 Mahasarakham Teachers College	123	47	1	0	171
4. United Colleges of Isan-Tai					
4.1 Ubonratchathani Teachers College	97	58	1	0	156
4.2 Surin Teachers College	85	44	2	0	131
4.3 Buriram Teachers College	90	56	3	0	149
4.4 Nakhonratchasima Teachers College	132	61	2	0	195
5. United Colleges of Si Ayuttaya					
5.1 Thepsatri Teachers College	127	28	2	0	157
5.2 Pranakhon Si Ayuttaya Teachers College	141	47	1	0	189
5.3 Petburiwittayalongkorn Teachers College	155	40	1	0	196
5.4 Chachoengsao Teachers College	124	37	4	0	165
5.5 Rampaipanni College	96	39	0	0	135
6. United Colleges of Tawarawadi					
6.1 Kanchanaburi Teachers College	79	26	1	0	106
6.2 Nakhonprathom Teachers College	152	49	5	0	206
6.3 Muban Chombung Teachers College	99	26	3	0	128
6.4 Petchaburi Teachers College	138	38	2	0	178
7. United Colleges of Taksin					
7.1 Surathani Teachers College	93	28	2	0	123
7.2 Nakhon Si Thammarat Teachers College	131	22	1	0	154
7.3 Phuket Teachers College	105	16	0	0	121
7.4 Songkhla Teachers College	176	43	5	0	224
7.5 Yala Teachers College	91	33	0	0	124
8. United Colleges of Rattanakosin					
8.1 Chantharakasem Teachers College	214	63	6	0	283
8.2 Pranakhon Teachers College	216	72	2	0	290
8.3 Suansunantha Teachers College	216	37	4	0	257
8.4 Suandusit Teachers College	228	57	5	0	290
8.5 Bansomdet Chaophraya Teachers College	197	61	5	0	263
8.6 Thonburi Teachers College	123	25	5	0	153
Total	4,595	1,411	89	0	6,095
Percentage	75.39	23.15	1.46	0	100.00

Source: Planning Division, Department of Teacher Education, 1992

Demographic information of university faculty members and their qualifications are shown in Table 5.6 and 5.7. As shown in Table 5.6, the majority of Thai university faculty members held a master's degree (60.71%), 25.10% held doctorates, 14.17% had a bachelor's degree, and only 4 faculty members or .02% held less than a bachelor's degree. Among faculty who held doctorates (3,845 faculty members) which is the preferred requirement of most universities, 72.28% or 2,779 faculty members worked in Metropolitan Bangkok.

Table 5.6

Academic Staff Qualifications by University in 1990

Institutions	Less than Bachelor's	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorates	Total
Chulalongkorn University	0	332	1,312	796	2,440
Kasetsart University	1	190	849	412	1,452
Khon Kaen University	0	250	884	215	1,349
Chiang Mai University	0	193	898	497	1,588
Thammasat University	0	44	466	169	679
Mahidol University	0	140	1,290	699	2,129
Ramkhamhaeng University	0	99	519	114	732
Srinakharinwirot University	0	163	845	227	1,235
Silpakorn University	2	73	311	88	474
Prince of Songkla University	1	241	619	291	1,125
Sukhothai Thammathirat University	0	0	247	49	296
Maejo Institute of Agricultural Technology (Maejo)	0	28	91	16	135
KMIT-Thonburi	0	81	163	43	287
KMIT-North Bangkok	0	154	194	27	375
KMIT-Ladkrabang	0	122	248	56	426
NIDA	0	2	61	99	162
Naresuan University	0	9	95	16	120
Burapa University	0	46	184	30	260
Ubonrajthani University	0	3	23	1	27
Total	4	2,170	9,299	3,845	15,318
Percentage	.02	14.17	60.71	25.10	100.00

Source: Personnel Division, Ministry of University Affairs, 1991

Table 5.7 summarizes the academic rank of Thai university faculty members . The majority or 43.02% of faculty members were instructors or lecturers, 34.02% were assistant professors, 20.73% were associate professors, and only 2.23% were full professors. Among 341 full professors, 311 or 91.20% worked in Metropolitan Bangkok. And among 311 Bangkokian professors, 76.85% worked in two prestigious universities--Chulalongkorn and Mahidol.

Table 5.7
Faculty's Academic Rank by University in 1990

Institutions	Lecturer	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Professor	Total
Chulalongkorn University	628	905	804	103	2,440
Kasetsart University	663	463	307	19	1,452
Khon Kaen University	643	479	223	4	1,349
Chiang Mai University	704	610	251	23	1,588
Thammasat University	252	249	165	13	679
Mahidol University	584	899	510	136	2,129
Ramkhamhaeng University	142	219	368	3	732
Srinakharinwirot University	713	353	154	15	1,235
Silpakorn University	229	187	53	5	474
Prince of Songkla University	790	294	66	2	1,152
Sukhothai Thammathirat University	157	68	68	3	296
Maejo	68	54	13	0	135
KMIT-Thonburi	187	71	28	1	287
KMIT-North Bangkok	270	77	28	0	375
KMIT-Ladkrabang	282	112	30	2	426
NIDA	51	46	54	11	162
Naresuan University	49	50	20	1	120
Burapa University	154	73	33	0	260
Ubonrajthani University	24	3	0	0	27
Total	6,590	5,212	3,175	341	15,318
Percentage	43.02	34.02	20.73	2.23	100.00

Source: Personnel Division, Ministry of University Affairs, 1991

According to Table 5.8, the majority (62.12% in teachers colleges and 60.71% in universities) of faculty members in both types of institutions held a master's degree. University's faculty members with doctorates outnumbered those in teachers colleges in the ratio of 5:1. Similarly, there were almost twice as many teachers colleges' faculty members with a bachelor's degree as those in universities. Besides, there were 31 faculty members with less than the bachelor's degree in teachers colleges but there were only four in universities.

In terms of faculty members' academic rank, Table 5.8 shows that the majority of faculty members in both institution were instructors or lecturers (75.39% in teachers colleges and 43.02% in universities). There were 341 professors (2.23%) in universities while there were no full professors in any teachers college. There were 14 times as many associate professors in universities as in teachers colleges on a percentage basis. In addition, university assistant professors outnumbered those in teachers colleges in the ratio of 1.5:1, on a percentage basis.

Table 5.8

Comparison of Degrees and Rank Between All Teachers Colleges and All Universities

Institutions	Less than Bachelor's	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorates	Total
All teachers colleges	31	1,984	3,786	294	6,095
	0.51%	32.55%	62.12%	4.82%	100.00%
All universities	4	2,170	9,299	3,845	15,318
	0.02%	14.17%	60.71%	25.10%	100.00%

Institutions	Instructor	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Professor	Total
All teachers colleges	4,595	1,411	89	0	6,095
	75.39%	23.15%	1.46%	0%	100.00%
All universities	6,590	5,212	3,175	341	15,318
	43.02%	34.02%	20.73%	2.23%	100.00%

Summary

Demographic information of faculty members from both teachers colleges and universities was summarized in this chapter. The majority of faculty members from both types of educational institutions had the status of either an instructor or a lecturer and held a master's degree. Moreover, the ratio of academic staff in teachers colleges was Ph.D.s (4.82%): master's (62.12%): bachelor's (32.55%), whereas in universities it was Ph.D.s (25.10%): master's (60.71%): bachelor's (14.17%). In general, the faculty members in universities were more qualified, having a higher percentage of faculty members who held doctorates and were full professors . However, it was evident that the percentage of full professors and faculty members with doctorates in urban and rural universities varied, whereas teachers colleges had similar pattern of faculty distribution . In terms of academic rank, the universities' demographic data shows that 91.20% of full professors worked in Metropolitan Bangkok while there were no full professors in three rural universities. As was the case with academic ranks, 72.28% of faculty members who held a doctoral degree worked in Metropolitan Bangkok whereas there was only one faculty member who held a doctorate at the newest university, Ubonrajathani University. The teachers colleges' demographic information shows that the majority of faculty members in every teachers college were instructors and held a master's degree, whereas associate professors and those who held doctorates were in a minority. There were no full professors in any teachers college.

CHAPTER 6

QUANTITATIVE DATA OF FUNCTIONS, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT, AND JOB SATISFACTION OF FACULTY

Chapter 6 presents the survey of the data concerning functions, professional development, and job satisfaction of the faculty members of teachers colleges. These findings are divided into sections which address the following research questions: What are the functions of the academic faculty in teachers colleges? What is the perception of the competencies required to perform these functions? What are the priority areas of professional development? What are the preferred means of delivering professional development activities? What is the overall level of job satisfaction experienced by faculty members?

Statistical analysis was performed as a means of exploring the data, based on the assumption that faculty members in the sample were representative of the population of Thai teachers college faculty members.

Functions of the Academic Faculty

Traditionally, Thai teachers colleges are committed to four main functions, namely teaching, research, service, and culture. But the way their faculty members spend their time on each task may vary depending on institutional and/or personal factors. Fife (1984), in his foreword for Yuker's (1984) book entitled *Faculty workload: Research, theory, and interpretation*, advocated "Without a clear understanding of how the faculty spend their time, there cannot be an understanding of why goals are or are not being achieved and in what areas change is needed" (p. xiv). This study, therefore, tried to find the percentage of time faculty actually spent and would prefer to spend on these four functions.

Percentages of Time Spent on Functions

In order to obtain faculty members' perceptions of their percentages of time spent on the four traditional functions--Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture--Part C of the

questionnaire was developed. All respondents were requested to fill in the actual and preferred percentages of their typical work year spent on the four college tasks.

Tables 6.1 to 6.5 comprise summaries of means, standard deviations, and mean differences of the percentage of time actually and ideally spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture as perceived by faculty members.

As shown in Table 6.1, there were statistically significant differences between the mean percentages of time faculty members actually spent and would prefer to spend on these four traditional functions. It is obvious that teaching remains their main function, as they reported that they spent 59.05% of their time on Teaching. However, faculty members reported that they would prefer to spend only 48.15% on Teaching. They also reported that they would prefer to spend 16.97% instead of 22.46% on Service. Faculty members wanted to spend a lot more time on Research (23.35%) than they currently do (8.97%), and nearly an additional 2% of their official time on Culture. In terms of actual distribution of time, Teaching was rated highest, followed in order by Service, Culture, and Research. In terms of preferred allocation of time, Research moved up to second place. The increase in time desired for Research was to be compensated by a reduction in time for Teaching and Service.

Table 6.1

Mean Percentages of Time Spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture as Perceived by Faculty

Function	Mean % n=294				Difference in		
	Actual	S.D.	Preferred	S.D.	mean %	t	p
1. Teaching	59.05	18.60	48.15	15.24	10.90	10.63	.00
2. Research	8.97	9.17	23.35	11.65	14.38	21.06	.00
3. Service	22.45	15.56	16.97	8.79	5.48	6.82	.00
4. Culture	9.53	7.67	11.53	6.08	2.00	5.05	.00

Comparison of time allocation by faculty. In terms of time allocation for both actual and preferred perceived by respondents grouped in six faculties, there were no statistically significant differences. This suggested that the actual and preferred distributions of time are similar across faculties.

Comparison of time allocation by gender. The perceptions of time spent on the four traditional functions did not vary significantly when respondents were grouped by gender.

Comparison of time allocation by age. Table 6.2 shows that there were some statistically significant differences between the mean percentages of time that faculty members in different age categories actually spent and would prefer to spend on the Research and Culture functions. In terms of the Research function, faculty members in the 40-49 age range preferred to spend more time on Research (24.64%) than did their younger and older colleagues (20.71%, 21.26%). With regard to Culture, faculty members in the oldest age group (50 years or older) perceived that they spend more time on this function than the second age group (40-49)--12.30% vs. 8.67%. Generally, however, age is not a significant variable in terms of functions.

Table 6.2

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Percentages of Time Spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture by Age

	Actual Mean %						Preferred Mean %					
Function	39 yrs or younger n=49	40-49 years n=181	50 yrs or older n=63	F	p	Inter-group Diff.	39 yrs or younger n=49	40-49 years n=181	50 yrs or older n=63	F	p	Inter-group Diff.
1. Teaching	61.12	58.25	59.76	0.5	.60	none	51.22	46.68	49.92	2.2	.11	none
2. Research	8.28	9.62	7.82	1.0	.34	none	20.71	24.64	21.26	3.4	.03	2>1,3
3. Service	21.28	23.54	20.11	1.3	.28	none	16.26	17.36	16.66	0.3	.69	none
4. Culture	9.30	8.67	12.30	5.4	.01	3>2	11.79	11.30	12.14	0.4	.62	none

Comparison of time allocation by rank. Table 6.3 shows the mean percentage of time spent on the four traditional tasks as perceived by instructors and faculty who are associate and assistant professors. There was a statistically significant difference between instructors and assistant and associate professors in the way they spent their time on Culture. Although the statistical figure showed that instructors actually spent more time on Culture (10.02%) than the faculty in other rank (8.18%), but the difference was minor.

Table 6.3

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Percentages of Time Spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture by Academic Rank

Function	Actual Mean %				Preferred Mean %			
	Assoc&Assis professor n=82	Instructor n=210	t	p	Assoc&Assis professor n=82	Instructor n=210	t	p
1. Teaching	59.32	59.09	0.10	.92	46.64	48.80	-1.0	.28
2. Research	9.29	8.73	0.47	.64	25.06	22.66	1.5	.12
3. Service	23.19	22.23	0.47	.64	17.37	16.76	0.5	.59
4. Culture	8.18	10.02	-2.06	.04	10.91	11.76	-1.1	.25

Comparison of time allocation by educational background. Table 6.4 shows that there were statistically significant differences between the mean percentages of time actually spent and preferred to be spent on Research and Culture when respondents were compared by educational background. Faculty members who had doctorates actually spent significantly more time on Research (13.57%) than those who held a bachelor's degree (6.79%). In terms of preferred time allocation for Research, faculty members who had a bachelor's degree wanted to spend the least time (20.16%) while those who had a doctoral degree wanted to spend the most time (28.57%). In contrast, faculty members who had a bachelor's degree actually spent the most time (12.18%) on Culture while those who held a doctoral degree spent the least time (6.42%).

Table 6.4

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Percentages of Time Spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture by Education

	Actual Mean %						Preferred Mean %					
Function	Bachelor's n=59	Master's n=217	Doctorate n=14	F	p	Inter-group Diff.	Bachelor's n=59	Master's n=217	Doctorate n=14	F	p	Inter-group Diff.
Teaching	57.88	59.35	58.50	0.1	.86	none	49.06	48.15	43.92	0.6	.53	none
Research	6.79	9.35	13.57	3.6	.03	3>1	20.16	23.84	28.57	3.8	.02	3>1
Service	23.13	22.29	22.14	0.1	.93	none	18.00	16.64	18.21	0.6	.50	2>1 none
Culture	12.18	9.04	6.42	5.2	.01	1>3,2	12.76	11.34	9.[illegible]	[illegible]2	.10	none

Comparison of time allocation by years of experience. There was only one statistically significant difference between the mean percentages of [illegible]ctually spent and would prefer to spend on Research as shown in Table 6.5 Faculty who had worked for 15-19 years preferred to spend more time on Research (2[illegible]) than did those who had nine or fewer years of experience in their college ([illegible]).

Table 6.5

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Percentages of Time Spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture by Years of Experience

	Actual Mean %							Preferred Mean %						
Function	9 yrs. or less n=31	10-14 yrs. n=33	15-19 yrs. n=116	more than19 n=113	F	p	Inter-group Diff.	9 yrs. or less n=31	10-14 yrs. n=33	15-19 yrs. n=116	more than19 n=113	F	p	Inter-group Diff.
1.Teaching	61.77	58.33	59.56	58.18	0.3	.79	none	53.38	49.24	45.56	49.11	2.5	.05	none
2.Research	5.67	8.96	9.67	9.00	1.5	.19	none	19.19	20.45	26.07	22.56	4.4	.00	3>1
3.Service	25.09	22.87	20.96	23.23	0.7	.52	none	17.64	17.72	16.49	16.94	0.2	.86	none
4.Culture	7.45	9.81	9.87	9.65	0.8	.46	none	9.77	12.57	11.87	11.37	1.3	.26	none

Comparison of time allocation by present position. In terms of time allocation perceived by respondents who were administrators and instructors, there were no statistically significant differences.

Comparison of time allocation by rural and urban faculty. In terms of time allocation perceived by respondents who worked in urban and rural colleges, there were no statistically significant differences.

There were relatively few statistically significant relationships between mean percentages of time spent on each function (actual and preferred) and the selected demographic and professional characteristics. Only seven of 64 comparisons were statistically significant. Thus, generally speaking, the information that has been presented applies to the whole group of respondents. But there were two functions for which there were subgroup differences which relate to the function of Culture and Research. Faculty members who had a bachelor's degree perceived that they actually spent more time on Culture than did their colleagues who had a doctorate or a master's. On the contrary, faculty members who had a doctorate perceived that they actually spent more time on Research than did their colleagues who held a bachelor's degree.

Perceived Level of Performance

Part B of the questionnaire contained 20 activities related to the four traditional functions. In the Actual column, respondents were asked to rate the perception of their present level of performance. In the Preferred column, they were requested to indicate their perception of their desirable level of performance. The highest score on the scale of each column is 5 which represents the highest level of performance and 4 represents fairly high while the lowest is 1 which represents the lowest level of performance and 2 represents fairly low; the medium level is 3.

Faculty members' perceptions of actual and preferred level of performance on all 20 function activities are shown in Table 6. 6 which contains actual and preferred means, and

differences between means. The results show that there were statistically significant differences between actual and preferred level of performance on all activities. Evidently, faculty members perceived that they preferred a higher level of performance in every single activity. Among the differences between means of these 20 function activities, those of activities number 13 "Involvement in research in your discipline", number 15 "Writing for publication", number 6 "Frequency of attendance at professional conferences", number 4 "Time spent reading professional journals", and number 18 "Involving students in public service activities" were the highest. These differences between means were the indicators of the competencies in which improvement is most desired.

It should be noted that all 20 competencies had a mean preferred score ranging between 3.7 and 4.4 on a 5-point scale. Therefore, all were considered to be important competencies for performing the role of faculty members. The six most important were number 1 "Presenting up to date subject matter"; number 3 "Effectiveness of instruction"; number 4 "Time spent reading professional journals"; number 5 "Effectiveness of communication with students in classroom"; number 9 "Attention to student evaluation"; and number 11 "Encouraging class participation."

Factor Analysis of Activities

For further analysis, these 20 function activities were factor analyzed. Factor analysis is a widely used procedure based on correlation. Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990) and Polit and Hungler (1983) agree that factor analysis is a technique for reducing a large number of items or variables into a smaller, more manageable and explainable set of concepts, in order to determine which items contribute to the meaning of a factor. McLees (1988), Nhundu (1987) and Jankovic (1983) suggested that the following criteria be used:

1. The item loading on a factor should be greater than or equal to .4.

2. Items included in a factor must make sense and contribute logically to the meaning of the factor.

Table 6. 6

Faculty Members' Perceptions of Actual and Preferred Level of Performance

Function Activities	Actual n=432-447		Preferred n=432-447		Difference between means	t	p
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.			
1. Presenting up-to-date subject matter	3.54	0.75	4.48	0.65	0.94	26.5	.00
2. Applying the principles of instructional psychology	3.61	0.76	4.31	0.70	0.70	19.3	.00
3. Effectiveness of instruction	3.54	0.68	4.47	0.64	0.93	26.6	.00
4. Time spent reading professional journals	3.20	0.95	4.40	0.67	1.20	26.8	.00
5. Effectiveness of communication with students in classroom	3.46	0.79	4.41	0.65	0.95	24.2	.00
6. Frequency of attendance at professional conferences	2.53	1.02	4.14	0.78	1.61	29.13	.00
7. Time spent in preparation for classes	3.51	0.83	4.34	0.71	0.83	20.5	.00
8. Time spent talking with colleagues about professional matters	3.11	0.91	4.07	0.77	0.96	20.0	.00
9. Attention to student evaluation	3.85	0.76	4.41	0.65	0.56	15.9	.00
10. Availability for consultation with students	3.48	0.91	4.23	0.71	0.75	17.5	.00
11. Encouraging class participation	3.82	0.76	4.42	0.66	0.60	17.1	.00
12. Providing realistic feedback to students	3.52	0.88	4.19	0.73	0.67	17.5	.00
13. Involvement in research in your discipline	1.99	1.05	3.95	0.95	1.96	32.91	.00
14. Time spent on advising students in their projects	2.92	0.99	3.97	0.77	1.05	22.4	.00
15. Writing for publication	2.49	1.10	4.20	0.83	1.71	30.3	.00
16. Involvement in public service	2.91	1.13	3.97	0.85	1.06	19.5	.00
17. Involvement in college governance	2.91	1.17	3.75	0.90	0.84	14.6	.00
18. Involving students in public service activities	2.86	1.00	4.00	0.76	1.14	23.2	.00
19. Time spent on activities related to Thai culture	2.69	1.07	3.71	0.85	1.02	20.5	.00
20. Encouragement of student involvement in cultural activities	3.11	1.02	3.91	0.82	0.80	17.6	.00

Scale: 1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, 5=high

Furthermore, in case of items loaded on more than one factor, Giles (1988) and Nhundu (1987) suggested that the meanings of these items be examined to assess how much they contribute logically to the assigned factor.

All items included in any factor used in this study meet the above criteria. Analyses with three, four, and five-factor solutions were conducted. Interpretations of the factors emerging from these three different solutions were made and the best resolution was selected. The five-factor solution was chosen because of the strength of the factor loadings and the logical contribution to the meaning of the factors. Using the five-factor solution, all items were loaded. There were two items (number 7 and 11) which were double-loaded on two factors. However, both items appeared to fit more logically with the factor with the lower loading.

Factors that describe the clustering of functions of faculty members. The factor analysis which appears in Tables 6.7 and 6.8 shows that five major factors emerged: Culture & Service, Teaching, Student-Related Activities, Scholarship, and Research. They differ only slightly from the traditional functions. Culture was combined with Service, and Scholarship was separated from Research. Student-Related Activities emerged as a new function. The Thai concept of Scholarship is different from that of western concept.

The variance of the five factors ranging from 6.5 to 1.0 is shown in Table 6.7. The five factors taken together account for 59.4% of the total variance

Table 6.7

Results of Factor Analysis of Function Activities: Five-Factor Solution

Factor	Eigenvalue	% variance	Cum. %
1. Culture & Service	6.5	32.7	32.7
2. Teaching	1.9	9.7	42.4
3. Student-Related Activities	1.2	6.1	48.5
4. Scholarship	1.1	5.8	54.3
5. Research	1.0	5.1	59.4

These five new functions which emerged from the perceptions of faculty members were used as a point of departure for a study of the priority areas of professional development and were used to address research questions number 4 (What are the priority areas of professional development?) and to explore relationships which exist between demographic variables and perceptions related to faculty role performance.

Factor 1: Culture & Service. This factor contained 5 items with loadings ranging from .74 to .66. There were two related themes in the first factor: (a) Culture and (b) Service.

Factor 2: Teaching. This factor consisted of five items relating to the function of Teaching. The loading values of the five items ranged from .72 to .44. Item number 11, "Encouraging class participation by students," also loaded on the third factor: Student-Related Activities.

Factor 3: Student-Related Activities. The four items which loaded on this factor described the Student-related area which faculty members should bear in mind if they wish to accomplish their main function of teaching. The loading values of the four items ranged from .84 to .47.

Factor 4: Scholarship. The four items which loaded on factor 4 were all items which relate to aspects of Scholarship. The range of the loading values was from .72 to .46. The item number 7, "Time spent in preparation for classes," also loaded on Factor 3 (Student-related Activities). The item was retained with Factor 4 although the higher loading was on the third factor.

Factor 5: Research. The last two items, item number 15 and 13, which made up this factor illustrated attributes of Research, one of the main functions of teachers colleges. Table 6.8 shows that the range of the loading values was .79 to.71.

Table 6.8

Varimax Factor Loadings for the Function Activities of Faculty Members in Teachers Colleges (n=)

Function Activities	Factor 1 Culture & Service	Factor 2 Teaching	Factor 3 Student-Related Activities	Factor 4 Scholar-ship	Factor 5 Research
18.Involving students in public service activities	.74	.11	.25	.15	.16
19.Time spent on activities related to Thai culture	.74	.06	.06	.37	.00
20.Encouragement of student involvement in cultural activities	.73	.10	.24	.25	-.09
16.Involvement in public service	.66	.24	-.01	-.07	.25
17.Involvement in college governance	.66	.16	.02	-.04	.21
2. Applying the principles of instructional psychology	.17	.72	.10	.04	.03
3. Effectiveness of instruction	.14	.70	.15	.22	.06
5. Effectiveness of communication with students in classroom	.18	.69	.19	.16	.12
1. Presenting up to date subject matter	.02	.55	.14	.23	.12
11.Encouraging class participation	.25	.44	.59	.15	.01
10.Availability for consultation with students	.10	.01	.84	.056	.11
9. Attention to student evaluation	.08	.38	.63	.18	.01
14.Time spent on advising students in their projects	.29	.16	.52	.18	.39
12.Providing realistic feedback to students	.24	.39	.47	.23	-.09
4. Time spent reading professional journals	.11	.29	.09	.72	.15
8. Time spent talking with colleagues about professional matters	.11	.13	.26	.69	.02
6. Frequency of attendance at professional conferences	.30	.20	.10	.58	18
7. Time spent in preparation for classes	-.12	.23	.53	.46	.17
15.Writing for publication	.07	.21	.04	.09	.79
13.Involvement in research in your discipline	.27	-.04	.13	.17	.71

Priority Areas for Professional Development

Table 6.9 summarizes the faculty members' perceptions of competency development needs required to fulfill their role. This table contains the actual and preferred factors mean scores (These are mean scores for the items selected as most representative of the factor. They are not mean factor scores) and the differences between factor mean scores of the five function factors identified by the factor analysis. The biggest gap perceived by faculty members between the actual and preferred level of performance was the Research function factor (difference between means=1.83). The faculty members appeared to need assistance in undertaking research and publishing their work. The second largest gap was the Scholarship function factor (difference between means=1.14). Faculty members desired more time to be more involved in scholarly pursuits and more access to knowledge resources, such as professional journals and conferences. Next, the faculty members perceived Culture and Service as their third largest gap (difference between means=0.97). The faculty members wanted both themselves and their students to be more involved in Cultural and Service activities. The fourth and fifth largest gap was respectively Teaching (difference between means=0.83) and Student-Related Activities (difference between means=0.75). These statistics indicated that there was greater satisfaction with their performance of Student-Related Activities and Teaching more so than the three aforementioned functions. In other words, faculty members indicated that although they preferred better teaching performance they were less dissatisfied with what they have done so far. Obviously, there were statistically significant differences between actual and preferred of all the five function factors.

Table 6.9

Actual and Preferred Factor Mean Scores and Difference Between Factor Mean Scores of Priority Areas for Professional Development

Function Factor	Factor mean scores		Difference between factor mean scores	t	p
	Actual	Preferred			
1. Research	2.24	4.07	1.83	-36.0	.00
2. Scholarship	3.10	4.24	1.14	-33.3	.00
3. Culture & Service	2.90	3.87	0.97	-25.1	.00
4. Teaching	3.59	4.42	0.83	-32.6	.00
5. Student-Related Activities	3.45	4.20	0.75	-24.6	.00

The differences between factor means reflected in Table 6.9 suggested that there were three levels of priority perceived by faculty members in order for them to be more effective and productive academic staff in a new comprehensive college. Evidently, the first level of priority was Research, which had the highest difference between means (1.83). Scholarship and Culture and Service appeared to be the second level of priority. The last level of priority in which faculty members perceived a need for help was Teaching and Student-Related Activities. These findings may be helpful in the formulation of a plan to enhance the professional development programs in teachers colleges.

Preferred Means of Delivering Professional Development Activities

Table 6.9 comprises a summary of means, standard deviations, and ranks of each professional development item. The scale used in this table was: 1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, and 5=high. The results show that travel grants was the highest rated method of professional development. Although travel grants may be a common practice at the University of Alberta or elsewhere in North American colleges and universities, this practice is not common and inconsistent in Thai teachers colleges.

However, this practice has been considered a very effective professional development activity in Thailand, therefore, it was very highly rated. In fact, all eight methods were rated highly (mean = 3.65-4.21) or seen as valuable and should have an important place in professional development.

The means and standard deviation of each item of organizational arrangements for professional development are also recorded in Table 6.10. Faculty members were more in favour of holding the professional development meetings during vacations (mean = 3.55) than during the term (3.28). In terms of professional development resources, faculty members are more in favour of using external experts (mean = 4.13) than college faculty (3.07).

Table 6.10

Means and Standard Deviation and Rank of Professional Development Items

Rank	Methods of Professional Development	Mean	S.D.
1.	Travel Grants	4.21	0.94
2.	Workshops	4.03	0.88
3.	Field Experiences	3.99	0.92
4.	Conferences or Seminars	3.96	0.90
5.	Study Leaves	3.85	0.99
6.	Recognition of faculty members for excellence in performance	3.84	0.99
7.	Circulation of newsletters, articles	3.68	0.97
8.	Non-credit university course	3.65	1.11
Rank	**Arrangement for Professional Development**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
1.	Using external experts as professional development resources	4.13	0.88
2.	Holding professional development meetings during vacations	3.55	1.18
3.	Holding professional development meetings during college term	3.28	1.08
4.	Using college's own faculty as professional development resources	3.07	1.01

Scale: 1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, 5=high

Job Satisfaction Experienced by Faculty

Table 6.11 contains a summary of the means, standard deviations, and rank orders of each job satisfaction item. As in the previous table, the scale used was: 1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, and 5=high.

The five items perceived by faculty members for which the highest mean satisfaction scores were obtained were as followed: Level of responsibility in your work (mean = 3.77); Freedom to use your own judgement (mean = 3.72); The location of your college (mean = 3.70); Relationship with students (mean = 3.66); and Reputation of the college (mean = 3.49).

The four items perceived by faculty members for which the lowest mean satisfaction scores were obtained were as followed: Your involvement in decision making in your college (mean = 2.51); Availability of resources (facilities, equipment, and supplies) (mean = 2.59); Opportunities to develop your research expertise (mean = 2.71); Ability of students in your classes (mean = 2.93).

Most of the means of the items (16 items or 76.20%) fell in the range of 2.51-3.49 indicating that they were slightly above the "medium" level of 3. Intrinsic items such as responsibility and freedom to use one's own judgement were rated above the extrinsic ones, such as location and reputation of the college. However, items concerning the possibility of growth and achievement, such as "Opportunities to develop your teaching expertise"; "Sense of fulfillment that you have with your job"; "Opportunities for professional and personal growth"; "Opportunities to exchange knowledge with colleagues"; "Opportunities to develop your research expertise" were not ranked very high in the sense of satisfaction. The "Opportunity to develop your research expertise" was ranked the last third lowest of all items; this was much behind the "Opportunities to develop your teaching expertise." These are aspects of professional work which need to be examined to find ways of increasing the satisfaction level of faculty.

The relationship with students was rated higher in satisfaction than the cooperation among faculty members even though faculty members were not very satisfied with the ability of their students. However, there was no evident to suggest that faculty members valued intrinsic items above extrinsic items.

In terms of the overall satisfaction with their job, the mean rating was 3.26. This indicates that faculty were moderately satisfied with what they were doing.

Table 6.11
Means and Rank of Satisfaction Items

Rank	Satisfaction Items	Mean	S.D.
1	Level of responsibility in your work	3.77	0.80
2	Freedom to use one's own judgement	3.72	0.84
3	The location of your college	3.70	1.01
4	Relationship with students	3.66	0.82
5	Reputation of the college	3.49	0.89
6	Opportunities to develop your teaching expertise	3.34	0.84
7	Sense of fulfillment that you have with your job	3.33	0.92
8	Recognition of your work by others	3.31	0.75
9	Opportunities for professional and personal growth	3.25	0.89
10	Amount of paper work that you are required to do	3.15	1.01
11	The salary and benefits provided	3.14	0.88
12	Your physical working conditions	3.12	0.90
13	Cooperation among faculty members	3.09	0.95
14	Faculty member evaluation practices	3.08	0.85
15	Opportunities to exchange knowledge with colleagues	3.07	0.89
16	Amount of support you get from your supervisor	3.04	1.01
17	Fairness of the college administrators	3.02	0.98
18	Ability of students in your classes	2.93	0.81
19	Opportunities to develop your research expertise	2.71	1.03
20	Availability of resources (facilities, equipment, and supplies)	2.59	0.88
21	Your involvement in decision making in your college	2.51	1.03
	Your overall satisfaction with your job.	3.26	0.80

Scale: 1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, 5=high

Predictors of Overall Satisfaction

Multiple regression analysis for prediction of overall satisfaction using the five function factors as predictors was processed. Only three predictors--Teaching, Culture & Service, and Research--contributed significantly to the prediction. Although Research entered as a predictor, this factor did not add appreciably to the percentage of variance. Teaching and Culture & Service were the two functions out of the five functions examined which contributed most to overall satisfaction, although only accounting for 14% of the variance. Therefore, other unknown factors also affect overall satisfaction.

Table 6.12

Multiple Regression Analysis for Prediction of Overall Satisfaction Using the Five Function Factors as Predictors (n=459)

Predictors	Multiple R	R^2	Beta	r
1. Teaching	.33	.11	.33	.33
2. Culture & Service	.38	.14	.24	.31
3. Research	.39	.15	.23	.22

Summary

Chapter 6 presented the findings of quantitative data related to five of the research questions. Faculty members confirmed that they were committed to the four traditional functions. In terms of time allocation to these functions, the findings showed that faculty members preferred to reduce the amount of their Teaching and Service time because they wanted to spend more time on Research and Culture. The five required competencies most in need of improvement were "Involvement in research in your discipline," "Writing for publication," "Frequency of attendance at professional conferences," "Time spent reading professional journals," and "Involving students in public service activities."

Factor analysis of the function activities of faculty members in teachers colleges yielded five function factors: Culture & Service, Teaching, Student-Related Activities, Scholarship, and Research. The three levels of priority areas of professional development were (a) Research, (b) Scholarship and Culture & Service, and (c) Teaching and Student-Related Activities. The first five preferred means of professional development were (a) travel grants, (b) workshops, (c) field experiences, (d) conferences or seminars, and (e) study leaves.

The last section of this chapter dealt with job satisfaction. The five items for which the highest mean satisfaction scores were obtained were (a) level of responsibility in your work, (b) freedom to use one's own judgement, (c) the location of your college, (d) relationship with students, (e) reputation of the college. The five items for which the lowest mean scores of satisfaction of were obtained were (a) your involvement in decision making in your college (b) availability of resources (facilities, equipment, and supplies) (c) opportunities to develop your research expertise (d) ability of students in your classes and (e) fairness of the college administrators. The overall satisfaction of faculty members (3.26) was slightly better than the "medium" level of 3. In terms of predictors of overall satisfaction, Teaching and Culture and Service were the two strongest predictors of overall satisfaction but the strength of prediction was low.

CHAPTER 7

PROFESSIONAL DIFFICULTIES

This chapter addresses the seventh research question of the study--What particular barriers exist which create professional difficulties? Relevant information was collected from the answers to the open-ended questions (Part E) in the questionnaire and from the interviews of 15 faculty members selected from the four teachers colleges. The open-ended questions provided spaces for the respondents to describe any difficulties that might inhibit them from achieving their goals in the areas of (a) Teaching (b) Research (c) Service (college and public) and (d) Culture. An interview guide (see Appendix B) was used (see Table 4.3, Chapter 4). The data reveal both professional performance difficulties and professional development difficulties encountered by faculty members. No attempt was made to distinguish between barriers to effective performance and barriers to improved performance. The first section deals with barriers and difficulties in the areas of Teaching. The second section deals with barriers and difficulties in the areas of Research. The third one is about the barriers and difficulties in the areas of Service. The last section deals with barriers and difficulties in the areas of Culture and is followed by the chapter summary.

Teachers Colleges: Local Teaching Institutions

After the transformation of teachers colleges to multi-purpose institutions with a university organizational structure, teachers colleges still receive almost the same amount of funding. One interviewee reported that this was much less than state universities received. This has resulted in shortages of proper equipment and facilities, necessary faculty members, and support staff. As a result, it is not uncommon to find a new academic department with only one or two faculty members. Five interviewees revealed that, to cope with the plight of personnel shortages, faculty members were required to do at least one administrative, or office, or academic-related job besides teaching.

Consensus was evident in the interviews with 15 faculty members from the four colleges of study that Teaching was considered the most important function. In terms of ideal percentage distribution for faculty members' four tasks, the average was teaching (46.1%); research (20.7%); service (19.6%); culture (13.6%). To support this notion, four interviewees indicated that it is a characteristic of the teachers colleges to emphasize teaching. Another four interviewees noted that most of the budget allocated each year went to the production of quality graduates or teaching. This was supported by the statement of one of the faculty members that "70%-80% of the total budget was allocated to the production of quality graduates." Three interviewees held the view that the other three main functions supported the Teaching function. Two interviewees agreed with this idea by stating that, even though faculty members perceived that teachers colleges had four major functions, most of them spent most of their time teaching and did some other assigned jobs. Three interviewees expressed the view that they loved teaching and felt most accomplished when teaching. They further emphasized that teaching is a priority for every faculty member. In fact, they suggested that the other three functions could be largely ignored without adversely affecting their professional tenure.

Three interviewees pointed out that teachers colleges were different from universities in that they had become local higher education institutions for local development. Being local higher education institutions for local development, they placed emphasis on producing human resources by application of existing knowledge to local problems. Because of lack of funds, they did not focus on new knowledge production as most universities do. However, two interviewees proposed that faculty members should spend an equal amount of their time on teaching and research. One interviewee supported this idea by stating that "there are only two main functions at this educational level--the first one was the acquisition of knowledge and the second one was the transmission of knowledge. Therefore, the two functions should gain the same recognition."

Constraints on Teaching

Institutional Support and Service

Financial constraints seemed to be the main concern of three interviewees. One complained specifically about the lack of budget allocated for instructional improvement and development. Nine respondents noted that there was a lack of support and recognition for teaching. The prevailing "unproductive and unscholarly" atmosphere was also seen as a barrier to professional accomplishment and to academic excellence. Seven respondents criticized central administration for the red tape, complexity, and inconvenience of the college support system. The bureaucratic control of college resources was the main concern of one interviewee. Another commented that, on becoming a comprehensive college, the college should delegate its authority so that its faculties have more freedom and are able to grow: "Currently everything must be approved and decided by the president." In the same vein, one interviewee added that the teachers colleges' administrative system and structure were similar to that of elementary or secondary schools. There was not much autonomy or academic freedom. Hence, teachers colleges should concentrate more on both academic development and administrative development.

Availability of Instructional Equipment and Facilities

A key concern that was advanced by 84 respondents was the insufficiency and the obsolescence of teaching equipment and supplies. By contrast, two different interviewees mentioned that although the college provided good instructional equipment, a number of faculty members rarely used them. They preferred to use the "talk and chalk" technique. The low quality of the college library as well as the obsolescence and inadequacy of books and texts were also noted. According to four faculty members from rural colleges, a limited access to knowledge and information sources to support higher learning was a problem. Eighteen respondents indicated that budget provisions resulted in the lack of required facilities and equipment. Eight respondents stated the need for better equipped

laboratories. Four complained about unsatisfactory classrooms. Another three commented on the inadequacy of buildings and facilities.

Availability of Personnel and Other Related Matters

Three main barriers seemed to undermine the teaching performance of faculty members. One of the most serious barriers facing faculty members seemed to be the requirement that faculty members do non-academic jobs in addition to the traditional academic functions. Forty-two respondents revealed that academic staff in teachers colleges, unlike university faculty members, were heavily involved in non-academic and administrative jobs besides teaching and other functions. There were many complaints about the heavy non-teaching load and the lack of time for professional development and class preparation. In relation to this matter, one interviewee said "academic support personnel were critically needed in the teachers colleges." More specifically, 21 respondents complained that they had to teach too many courses; nine that classes were too large; five that they taught too many groups of students; four reported a shortage of qualified faculty members in their departments; four noted that they needed laboratory assistants to help prepare the lab. Also, due to the diversification of teachers colleges, three interviewees reported there were insufficient numbers of qualified faculty members, especially in new areas and/or programs. Six respondents revealed that they had to teach courses outside their field because of shortages of faculty members in some new departments. In order to provide new programs and/or new fields, one interviewee reported that some faculty members from the area of education who volunteered to teach in some new areas had to re-educate themselves in order to teach, but questioned whether this was an effective approach.

The second obstacle facing the 36 teachers colleges was that they do not have their own personnel recruitment planning. This means that they cannot recruit their own faculty members or academic support personnel. Faculty members and/or support personnel are

supplied by planning division in the Department of Teacher Education, or alternatively teachers colleges are authorized to hire specified personnel. Therefore, two interviewees revealed that the teachers colleges do not have their own personnel recruitment systems. They also indicated that this will undermine the teachers college personnel system in the long run.

The third obstacle is the lack of "new blood." Two interviewees reported that currently most faculty members were older than 40 and had worked there for more than 19 years. This may be the reason why one dean observed that "faculty members have been less and less enthusiastic and active." In the opinion of the two interviewees, this lack will certainly hurt the institution as a whole.

Three interviewees complained that some faculty members in urban colleges were heavily involved in personal business affairs and consequently had insufficient time for college duties. Due to the traffic congestion in Metropolitan Bangkok, two interviewees revealed that urban faculty members have to waste at least two to three hours of their time each day because of transportation problems.

Quality and Commitment of Students

In the opinion of five respondents, the name "teachers colleges" discourages high quality students; therefore the quality and motivational levels of students were the major concerns of 12 respondents. One referred to teachers colleges as "knowledge-feeding institutions." He reasoned that most knowledge obtained by students was through lecturing because they have been trained that way from their previous education. Another confirmed this notion by stating that teachers college students were credential-focused rather than knowledge-focused. Therefore, faculty members had to work harder and longer in class, but still failed to achieve satisfactory student progress. One interviewee complained about classes being too large in size and consequently not permitting enough individual participation. Furthermore, three respondents revealed that the range of

students' background and of required knowledge to start the program was too wide. One respondent noted that students were too poor to afford extra-curricular activities, such as fieldtrips. All these matters made it more difficult to teach. Lastly, seven respondents complained that there were too many competing activities and too much interference and distraction from outside of the classroom.

Professional Development

Being a faculty member in a transforming institution with more functions to fulfil, one interviewee felt worried about the lack of budget for faculty members to attend conferences or any other kinds of professional development activities to keep abreast with new knowledge and technology. Six respondents reported that they had not much chance to attend professional development activities. Lack of funds seemed to be the main concern mentioned by five respondents. Another respondent revealed that there was not much sharing of knowledge, or of teaching and professional experience among faculty members. As a result, two interviewees reported that some faculty members used a "talk and chalk" technique exclusively.

Constraints on Research

Institutional Support and Service

The major constraint of which 109 respondents complained was the insufficiency of financial support for research from the college. Two interviewees compared universities with teachers colleges and noted that teachers colleges provided much less financial support for research. In fact, 22 respondents felt that they did not get any support from the college. On the other hand, three respondents were most concerned about the insufficiency of library materials and sources of information. Six respondents reported that they received little recognition for their research efforts. Internal cooperation with the college concerned two respondents. One respondent complained about the rules, regulations and extensive paper work required if one wanted to get any kind of support from the college. On the

other hand, one interviewee from an urban teachers college reported that during the last three years nobody had submitted funding proposals for research. However, two respondents insisted that there were some funds allocated for research but the amount was too small to conduct "quality" research.

Availability of Equipment and Other Facilities

The lack of equipment and facilities to help support research was the major concern for 14 respondents. Low quality library resources was also a main concern for an interviewee.

Availability of Time to Conduct Research

As mentioned earlier, faculty members were generally required to perform many non-academic duties. As a consequence of this and of the heavy teaching loads, it was reported by seven interviewees that faculty members lacked sufficient time to conduct research. Likewise, 145 respondents reported that they lacked the time to conduct research. In order to cope with this barrier, and since there are currently few leave opportunities, 11 respondents suggested that a sabbatical leave program be established in teachers colleges to allow faculty members to do more research and other scholarly work. In addition, one interviewee revealed that as an administrator he had not done any research so far because of lack of time. Last but not least, one interviewee stated that the college needed support personnel so that faculty members could concentrate on and devote their time to the four academic functions.

Research Methodology and Knowledge

Three interviewees reported that only a small number of research projects had been conducted in teachers colleges so far and that, as a result, there was a lack of experience in the system. This statement were supported by 13 respondents who revealed that they had no experience conducting research. One obvious reason, revealed by 31 respondents, was

that they had insufficient knowledge to conduct quality research. One interviewee also pointed out that research was still "a stranger" to a number of faculty members. Few faculty members admitted to being familiar with scholarly research activities. Moreover, eight respondents stated that they had little confidence in their ability to conduct research. Consequently, they indicated that they were certain that faculty members could conduct more research if they had access to research supervisors or consultants. In addition, one respondent reported that there was not much research sharing among faculty. Another respondent reported that he needed to work with a team or in a collaborative research project. The distant location of the college from sources of knowledge and information was also a main concern for 11 respondents. However, one interviewee commented positively that she could find enough time to do research if she had the necessary knowledge.

Attitudes Toward Research

Surprisingly, faculty members' attitudes toward research seemed to play a significant role in inhibiting the advancement of research in teachers colleges. Six respondents stated that they were unable to see any advantage in doing research, whereas two respondents saw limited advantages. Moreover, four respondents reported that most research done in the past was kept on the shelves and had no useful application. Furthermore, one faculty member suggested that this prevailing attitude may discourage some faculty members from conducting research. They may see it as a waste of time and money. Three respondents reported that they did not trust any research. Three interviewees openly admitted that the application of statistics in research "scared" them and was a deterrent. Age was also seen to be a barrier in that it was noted that "a number of faculty members over 50 years of age were certain to concentrate more on teaching and put aside the other three functions, especially research." Two respondents complained that they did not get much cooperation from their colleagues and other college personnel when

conducting research. Another two respondents cited the lack of motivation to conduct research. They stated openly that they just did not like doing any research. This was confirmed by a dean who cited the instance of a workshop for faculty members on preparing research proposals; only ten stayed until they finished their proposals. However, one interviewee revealed positively that even though she did not conduct research she was a good research consumer. She obtained and applied knowledge from research findings.

Constraints on Service

Institutional Support and Service

The lack of funding and support from the central office seemed to play a vital role in preventing faculty members from achieving their service goals. Twenty three respondents complained about the insufficient budget provided for public service activities. Six respondents expressed their difficulties in doing service jobs because of unclear and unspecific policy on service; service was not recognized as one of the main functions of the college. Eighteen respondents cited the lack of support from the college, while 10 respondents complained that the redtape, complexity, and impractical rules and regulations of the academic support organization were constraints on service efforts. The lack of proper equipment and facilities for service was the source of much concern for nine respondents. According to one respondent, most of the budget used for public service at his college was allocated by outside agencies, therefore, the college had no control over it. He pointed out that the main drawback of external funding was that there was a lack of continuation because the college had to depend on what the college received from those outside agencies. Last of all, four respondents complained of the deficiency of the college service system in responding to the outside requests and demands. Also three respondents reported concerns about the ineffectiveness of the communication and coordination between the college and the community. Therefore, service needs were not well articulated.

Availability of Personnel

The lack of qualified academic staff and support personnel seemed to be the major concern in the area of service. Eight respondents complained that there were few qualified personnel in service functions, and an interviewee complained about the lack of service activity planning. As a result, college services depended mostly on the faculty members' expertise and preferences. Seven respondents revealed that there was not much cooperation among colleagues, students, and the college, while four respondents complained about there being little opportunity to join the service team. While most of the comments suggested that faculty members were not interested in public service, three respondents noted that there were few requests from the community.

Availability of Time

As was the case with research, the main difficulty facing faculty members in performing the service function was a shortage of time. Sixty respondents reported that they lacked the time to perform any service. In addition, two interviewees stated that they lacked sufficient time to perform service activities, but agreed that public services should be the department's responsibility. On the contrary, three respondents complained that they had to spend too much time on service and that lowered their quality of teaching. Two respondents mentioned the time conflict as their main barrier to service.

Knowledge and Expertise for Service

In light of the small amount of funding to support service activities, one interviewee revealed that the college worked as a partner with outside organizations to serve the community. With effective management, the college could do more with the available funding. According to two interviewees with experience in both rural and urban colleges, faculty members of rural teachers colleges spent more time on service and cultural activities than did their urban counterparts. They pointed out that the urban teachers college did not have a clear role and responsibilities in the area of public service, whereas rural teachers

colleges were more aware of their community service obligations. One interviewee criticized that most service activities were "give away" activities instead of activities to support people to help themselves. Another interviewee admitted that without research he did not have new knowledge to provide or share; while another expressed that there was no expertise in the requested area. Lastly, one interviewee complained that the location of the college in a big city made it more difficult and more complicated for faculty members to perform service.

Constraints on Culture

Institutional Support and Service

As mentioned in constraints on service, the lack of funding and support from the college seemed to be the major concern of many faculty members regarding culture. Seventeen respondents complained that they had insufficient financial and other support from the college. Several respondents noted that the unclear and unspecific policy on culture made it difficult to fulfil this function and also that there was little interest in culture within their colleges. Five respondents complained about the lack of equipment and facilities to carry out cultural activities. Two interviewees revealed that rural teachers colleges had done a lot more on culture than the ones in metropolitan areas. Due to the small amount of financial support from the college, one interviewee reported that the main financial support was from outside agencies.

Availability of Time

As was the case with research and service, the lack of time seemed to be a major concern of three interviewees. Thirty seven respondents reported about their lack of time to do cultural activities. Two respondents reported about the conflict of time.

Availability of Personnel

Shortages of qualified personnel to carry out the cultural function was the major concern of faculty members. Nine respondents reported a lack of qualified personnel to work on cultural activities. In addition, the opportunity to join the cultural activities became a problem when eight respondents revealed that they had not much chance to join the cultural team. A similar concern was also revealed by six respondents when they complained that cultural function was open to a limited group of faculty members. Two respondents revealed that the person chosen by the college to work on culture was not right or appropriate. Twelve respondents revealed openly that they did not get involved in cultural functions because of their lack of interest and motivation. One respondent reported that he was not well-informed about cultural activities from the cultural center. Another respondent reported that the faculty did not accept that culture was one of its functions because of the existence of a culture center in the college. One interviewee confirmed that since the establishment of a cultural center in his college, faculty members paid even less attention to cultural activities. They assumed that the center should take the whole responsibility for the activities and development.

Knowledge and Expertise on Culture

According to many faculty members, their lack of cultural knowledge and skills, and their negative attitudes towards cultural activities made them feel uncomfortable and thus they did not get involved. Twelve respondents revealed that their insufficient knowledge of culture has prevented them from participating in cultural activities. Four respondents complained that the emphasis of cultural activities was on clothes, costume, classical dance, and dead museums instead of human ways of living. They further commented that most of the activities held were the same old styles and patterns, and that there were few creative ideas. In addition, two respondents revealed that most of the initiation of the cultural activities came from the college instead of from students. One interviewee complained that cultural activities in teachers colleges were not systematic.

This faculty member indicated that most cultural activities depended on the cultural director's expertise and preference.

SUMMARY

The expansion of roles after the transformation of the teachers colleges has been constrained by low funding which has resulted in lack of suitable equipment, laboratories, classrooms, facilities, faculty members, and academic support personnel. The shortage of funding also resulted in fewer opportunities for faculty members to perform their duties and attend professional development activities.

The inadequacy of support personnel had forced faculty members to take on such duties. As a result, faculty members had difficulty striving for excellence in their field and had insufficient time to perform college functions other than teaching. Furthermore, the emphasis of the college on teaching along with its reward system might have prevented faculty members from performing the other three functions. Another key concern was the quality of students. The low quality of students has made faculty members feel they have failed to achieve the goal of teaching.

In terms of institutional support, faculty members were not impressed with the services. The impractical rules and regulations, the red tape and complexity of college service seemed to undermine faculty members' willingness to do their best and consequently caused burn out.

Lastly, the college policy, its rewards system, and its academic atmosphere that did not support faculty members to strive for excellence discouraged the faculty members from working to their full potential. Moreover, limitation of the physical resources is another barrier to academic productivity.

CHAPTER 8

EFFECT OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ON ROLE PERFORMANCE

This chapter was developed to address the last research question--What is the effect of demographic variables upon the perceptions of faculty role performance?

Table 8.1 shows that only 14 of a possible 80 statistically significant differences in mean role performance were found when respondents were grouped by faculty, gender, rank, education, experience, and location. There were no statistically significant differences when faculty members were grouped by age or position.

Table 8.1

Distribution of Significant differences Between Mean Scores for Actual and Preferred Activities Clustered by Factors for Groups Within Demographic Variables

	Actual Function Factor					Preferred Function Factor				
Demographic Variables	Culture & Service	Teaching	Student Related Activities	Scholar -ship	Research	Culture & Service	Teaching	Student Related Activities	Scholar -ship	Research
Faculty	sig.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gender	-	sig.	sig.	sig.	-	-	-	-	sig.	-
Age	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rank					sig.					sig.
Education	-	-	-	-	sig.	-	-	-	-	-
Years of experience	sig.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	sig.
Present position	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
College Location	sig.	-	-	-	-	-	-	sig.	sig.	sig.

Differences by College Location

Findings presented in Table 8.2 indicate that there were some statistically significant differences between respondents in rural and urban colleges in performing Function Factor 1 (Culture & Service), Function Factor 2 (Teaching), Function Factor 3 (Student-Related Activities), Function Factor 4 (Scholarship), and Function Factor 5 (Research). With regard to Function Factor 1, the respondents from rural colleges rated their level of performance relatively higher than those from urban colleges. In the case of Function Factors 2, 3, 4, and 5, faculty members from rural colleges preferred to perform at a relatively higher level than did their urban counterparts.

Table 8.2

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Actual and Preferred Activities, Clustered by Factors (By Location)

Function Factor		Rural			Urban			t	p
		n	Mean	S.D.	n	Mean	S.D.		
1. Culture & Service	Actual	145	3.00	0.77	323	2.84	0.82	2.0	.04*
	Preferred	140	3.91	0.63	311	3.85	0.66	0.8	.42
2. Teaching	Actual	145	3.58	0.47	323	3.61	0.56	-0.5	.61
	Preferred	140	4.49	0.46	310	4.39	0.50	1.9	.05*
3. Student-Related Activities	Actual	145	3.46	0.63	322	3.46	0.66	0.0	1.00
	Preferred	140	4.30	0.52	308	4.16	0.57	2.3	.02*
4. Scholarship	Actual	145	3.04	0.68	321	3.14	0.67	-1.4	.16
	Preferred	140	4.34	0.54	311	4.20	0.60	2.2	.02*
5. Research	Actual	145	2.29	0.92	322	2.23	0.91	0.6	.55
	Preferred	140	4.20	0.71	308	4.02	0.80	2.2	.02*

*p≤ .05

Differences by Faculty

When mean ratings of performance were compared for respondents grouped by faculty, only one out of 10 tests was significant at the .05 level. The respondents from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences rated their performance of Function Factor 1

(Culture & Service) relatively higher than did their counterparts from the Faculty of Sciences and Technology--3.07 compared with 2.74.

Differences by Gender

Results presented in Table 8.3 show that there were some statistically significant differences between female and male respondents in performing Function Factors 2 (Teaching), 3 (Student-Related Activities), and 4 (Scholarship). Female faculty members rated their level of performance of these three function factors (means=3.64, 3.55, 3.20 respectively) relatively higher than their male counterparts (means=3.53, 3.34, 2.99 respectively). In the case of Function Factors 3 and 4, female respondents (means=4.25, 4.30 respectively) preferred to perform at a relatively higher level than did their male respondents (mean=4.14, 4.18 respectively).

Table 8.3

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Actual and Preferred Activities, Clustered by Factors (By Gender)

Function Factor		Female			Male				
		n	Mean	S.D.	n	Mean	S.D.	t	p
1. Culture & Service	Actual	277	2.92	0.79	191	2.84	0.83	1.0	.31
	Preferred	263	3.91	0.67	188	3.82	0.62	1.5	.13
2. Teaching	Actual	277	3.64	0.55	191	3.53	0.49	2.1	.03*
	Preferred	262	4.44	0.50	188	4.40	0.47	0.8	.40
3. Student-Related Activities	Actual	276	3.55	0.64	191	3.34	0.64	3.5	.00*
	Preferred	260	4.25	0.58	188	4.14	0.52	1.9	.05*
4. Scholarship	Actual	275	3.20	0.62	191	2.99	0.73	3.1	.00*
	Preferred	263	4.30	0.58	188	4.18	0.59	2.0	.04*
5. Research	Actual	276	2.27	0.92	191	2.23	0.90	0.4	.68
	Preferred	260	4.11	0.77	188	4.03	0.77	1.1	.26

*p≤.05

Differences by Rank

There were some statistically significant differences between faculty members' academic rank and their performance. Associate and assistant professors rated their actual and preferred level of performance of research and publication (means=2.66, 4.19 respectively) relatively higher than their colleagues (means=2.08, 4.03 respectively).

Differences by Education

Findings show that there were some statistically significant differences between faculty members who held a doctoral degree and their colleagues in performing Function Factor 1 (Culture & Service) and 5 (Research). Faculty members with a doctorate preferred to perform Function Factor 1 at a relatively lower level than did their colleagues. In the case of Function Factor 5 (Research), faculty members who had a doctoral degree perceived that their level of conducting research and publishing was relatively higher than those who held a master's and a bachelor's degree.

Differences by Years of Experience

Results show that there were some statistically significant differences between faculty members' length of their work years at their college and their performance. Faculty members who were grouped in 10-14 years of experience category had the perception that their level of performing Function Factor 1 (Culture & Service) was relatively higher than those who were in "less than nine" category. Moreover, faculty members who have fifteen to nineteen years of experience preferred a relatively higher level of conducting research and publishing (mean=4.18) than those who have already worked for more than nineteen years (mean=3.95).

Summary

As far as results of ANOVA of the effect of demographic variables on faculty members' performance was concerned, there were relatively few differences when respondents were grouped by demographic characteristics. In terms of college location,

respondents in rural colleges rated their level of performance "Culture & Service" function relatively higher than did their urban counterparts. In addition, faculty members from rural colleges preferred to perform Function Factor 2 (Teaching), 3 (Student-Related Activities), 4 (Scholarship), and 5 (Research) at a relatively higher level than did their counterparts from urban colleges. In the case of gender, female respondents rated their level of performance "Teaching," "Student-Related Activities," and "Scholarship" function relatively higher than did their male counterparts.

The key differences appeared to be in relation to Function Factor 1 (Culture & Service) and Function Factor 5 (Research). With regard to Culture and Service, rural respondents rated their level of performance relatively higher than did their urban counterparts. Rural faculty members also indicated that they preferred to perform Function Factor 5 at a relatively higher level than did their counterparts from urban colleges. In the case of rank, assistant and associate professors perceived their level of performance of Research relatively higher than did their colleagues. In terms of education, faculty members who held a bachelor's degree rated their level of performance of Culture & Service relatively higher than did their colleagues with a doctorate. On the contrary, faculty with a doctorate had the perception that their level of performance of Research was relatively higher than those who had master's and bachelor's degrees.

CHAPTER 9

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The last chapter presents an overview of the study, a statement of major findings relevant to the research questions, and a discussion of the findings. Finally, conclusions, implications, and recommendations are stated.

Overview of the Study

The study was conducted to explore perceptions of performance of faculty members in teachers colleges in Thailand based on the four traditional functions of Thai colleges and universities--teaching, research, service, and culture. Professional development and job satisfaction which enhanced faculty members' role performance were also surveyed. Eight research questions were formulated to address the particular purposes of the study and to serve as a research guide.

The design of this study was based on the survey method of data collection by means of the questionnaire and interviews. A review of related literature, recommendations of the supervisory committee, and two pilot studies served as bases for the development of the questionnaire to elicit responses from all faculty members from four selected teachers colleges. The Thai version of the questionnaire was used for data collection. Fifteen faculty members from the selected colleges participated in interviews.

The questionnaire data were analyzed using several statistical techniques (percentage and frequency distribution, factor analysis, the *t* test, the Scheffe' one way analysis of variance, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression) to determine the perceptions of faculty members regarding their role performance, their needs for professional development, and job satisfaction. The content analysis of the interviews and open-ended responses on the questionnaire provided valuable additional information about faculty members' professional performance difficulties.

Summary of Findings

The major findings are summarized in this section under the following topics which reflect the problem statement: (a) demographic data of faculty, (b) functions of faculty, (c) professional development, (d) job satisfaction, (e) professional difficulties, and (f) relationship between demographic variables and performance.

Characteristics of Faculty

The distribution of academic staff in teachers colleges was Ph.D.s (4.82%), master's (62.12%), bachelor's (32.55%), whereas in universities it was Ph.D.s (25.10%), master's (60.71%), bachelor's (14.17%). The distribution of faculty members' rank in teachers colleges was full professor (0%), associate professor (1.46%), assistant professor (23.15%), instructor (75.39%), whereas in universities it was full professor (2.23%), associate professor (20.73%), assistant professor (34.02%), instructor (43.02%). The majority of faculty members from teachers colleges and universities had the status of either an instructor or a lecturer and held a master's degree. The second largest group were assistant professors and had a bachelor's degree, whereas associate professors and those who held doctorates were in a minority. There were no full professors in any teachers colleges. In general, the faculty members in universities, by comparison, were more qualified, having a higher percentage of faculty members who held doctorates and who were full professors.

Functions of Faculty

Faculty members confirmed that they were committed to the four traditional functions which were teaching, research, service, and culture. Teaching remains the main function, as faculty indicated that they spent 59.05% of their time on teaching, followed in order by service (22.46%), culture (9.52%), and research (8.97%). Faculty, however, preferred to reduce the amount of their teaching (48.15%) and service (16.97%) because

they wanted to spend more time on research (23.35%) and culture (11.53%). In terms of preferred time allocation, research were rated second followed by service and culture.

Regarding the 20 activities related to the major functions, faculty members preferred a higher level of performance in every one. In terms of competencies required to perform their role, the five most in need of improvement were involvement in research in one's discipline, writing for publication, frequency of attendance at professional conferences, time spent reading professional journals, and involving students in public service activities. The six most important competencies for performing the role of faculty members were presenting up-to-date subject matter, effectiveness of instruction, time spent reading professional journals, effectiveness of communication with students in classroom, attention to student evaluation, and encouraging class participation by students.

Professional Development

Factor analysis of the activities of faculty members yielded five factors as follows: culture & service, teaching, student-related activities, scholarship, and research. By examining mean discrepancy scores between actual and preferred performance for each factor, three levels of priority for development were noted. The highest priority was for research development; scholarship, and culture & service were about equal, and teaching and student-related activities had the lowest need for development.

The five most preferred means of professional development were travel grants, workshops, field experiences, conferences or seminars, and study leaves. In the case of professional development arrangements, faculty members were more in favour of holding the professional development activities during vacation than during the academic term. In terms of professional development resources, they were more in favour of using external experts than personnel from within their institutions.

Job Satisfaction

The five items perceived by faculty for which the highest mean satisfaction scores were obtained were as follows: level of responsibility in your work, freedom to use one's own judgement, the location of your college, relationship with students, and reputation of the college. The five items perceived by faculty for which the lowest mean satisfaction scores were obtained were as follows: your involvement in decision making in your college, availability of resources (facilities, equipment, and supplies), opportunities to develop your research expertise, ability of students in your classes, and fairness of the college administrators. The overall satisfaction of faculty members was slightly above the "medium" level of 3 (mean=3.26). Performance in teaching and in culture and service were the two best predictors of overall satisfaction.

Professional Difficulties

Faculty reported difficulties in performing their duties effectively and efficiently and in engaging in professional development. There were several factors which constrained their performance of all functions. These were lack of funds, facilities, and equipment; work load resulting from academic and support personnel shortages; and attitudinal or commitment problems within the college. In addition to these factors, some specific constraints impeded their performance of certain functions. Teaching was affected by the poor quality of students. Research, service, and culture were inhibited by a perceived lack of knowledge and expertise of faculty themselves.

Differences in Performance by Demographic Variables

In the case of relationship between demographic variables and performance, there were relatively few differences when respondents were grouped by demographic characteristics. Respondents in rural colleges rated their level of performance of culture and service relatively higher than did their counterparts from urban colleges. Rural faculty members also preferred to perform most functions at a relatively higher level than did their

urban counterparts. Female respondents rated their level of performance of teaching, student-related activities, and scholarship function relatively higher than did their male colleagues.

Assistant and associate professors perceived that their level of performance of research was relatively higher than did lecturers. Faculty members who had only a bachelor's degree rated their level of performance of culture and service at a relatively higher level than did their colleagues with doctorates. Faculty with doctorates perceived that their level of performance of research was relatively higher than did those who held a master's or bachelor's degree.

Discussion of Findings

In this section, the findings from this study are discussed in relation to its Thai context.

Characteristics of Faculty

According to Bowen and Schuster (1991), colleges and universities in the United States are generally free to determine standards of academic qualification required for their faculties. Usually a doctoral degree is required in four-year institutions, and at least a master's in two-year colleges. In Thailand a target was set in 1983 for government universities: 20% Ph.D.s, 55% master's, 25% bachelor's (Olanvoravuth, 1983). By 1993 the desired standard was expected to be higher. However, only 25.1% of university faculty (1990) and 4.8% of teachers college faculty (1992) held doctorates. Obviously this was far below western standards. There are two implications from this finding. One is the need to increase the numbers of faculty with doctorates in both types of institution. The other is that academic standards are lower in Thai teachers colleges than they are in Thai universities. Until this imbalance is corrected, it is unlikely that teachers colleges will receive the same public esteem as universities, and it is unreasonable to expect that teachers

college faculty should function at the same level as university faculty, especially regarding research productivity.

In the case of academic rank, Thai teachers college faculty were distributed much lower than their university counterparts. For example, only 1.5% were associate professors, compared to 20.7% in universities. This indicates the need for a review of policy of rank and promotion in teachers colleges in order to bring them more in line with that of universities.

Functions of Faculty

When teachers colleges were upgraded to university status, they became subject to the norms of the university. Teachers college faculty members in this study confirmed that they were committed to the same four traditional functions. Evidently, teaching was the main function as they indicated that they spent 59.05% of their time on teaching. This was supported by a consensus of 15 interviewees. The budgetary figures from the planning division in the Department of Teacher Education (1992) indicate that the Department allocated 74.95% of the total budget to graduate production or teaching while research, service, and culture received only 0.2%, 1.86%, and 0.3% respectively.

In fact, it is not uncommon to find faculty members who thinks that their main duty was to teach. The finding that teaching was the main function in higher education was consistent with findings conducted in other countries (e.g., Watson, 1991; Bowen & Schuster, 1991; Setamanit, 1983; Fulton & Trow, 1975). Yuker (1984) confirmed that teaching was the main function:

> Estimates of the total time devoted to instructional activities range from 43 percent (Institute for Research, 1978) to 50 percent (Blackburn and Trowbridge, 1973) to 59 percent for faculty at four-year institutions and 80 percent for those at community colleges (Stecklein, Willie, and Lorenz, 1983)

The emphasis on teaching in Thai teachers colleges seemed appropriate and reasonable due to their current mandate and environment. According to Srisa-an (1981) and International Association of Universities (1979, cited in Watson, 1989), higher education institutions in

developing countries should try to produce human resources related to national development, and be a source of knowledge and information; they should not emphasize so much production of new knowledge. But when Thai teachers colleges approach the age of information with its rapid change of knowledge and technology, the question arises whether the present balance of teaching and research is still appropriate. In light of comparison with western university standards, faculty members in Thai teachers colleges should put more emphasis on research than at present.

If teachers colleges wish to be effective and productive comprehensive colleges serving the surrounding communities and gaining public trust and support, they cannot avoid committing themselves to research because teaching and service can be strengthened by the knowledge obtained from research (Van Horn, 1985; Council of Europe Conference, 1983). The allocation of budget should be reconsidered and revised to support and promote research. Also the reward and promotion system should be reexamined and geared towards more research support. In fact, it appears to be a good sign that faculty members are aware that, being in transforming colleges, they need to place more emphasis on research as well as service. The key is to upgrade the research competencies of the faculty members through faculty development programs. Besides budget allocation from the government, teachers colleges should also seek help from non-governmental organizations by developing cooperation through partnerships. In the case of culture, although this function is listed as a main function, universities themselves pay the least attention to it and the budget allocated to this function was only 0.12% (Ministry of University Affairs, 1991). The situation of culture in teachers colleges is a little better, but still in need of development.

Professional Development

Faculty members indicated the three levels of priority areas of professional development for which they felt a need for assistance. Research appeared to be the first

priority area of professional development. As discussed earlier, it is advisable for the administrators of the colleges under study to pay particular attention to assisting their faculty members to obtain more knowledge and experience on research and research methodology in order that they will be capable of pursuing excellence in this function. Scholarship and culture and service are the next priority areas the college administrators should consider when professional development activities are to be planned. Of the three priority areas of professional development, teaching and student-related activities were perceived to be in the least need of improvement. The reason may be simply that teachers colleges have been teaching institutions from the very beginning. Faculty members spend much of their time on teaching (59.06%) and related activities. They may feel that they are the ones who know best what they are doing and, therefore, need least help in this function.

In view of the preferred means of professional development, the findings show that all eight methods were highly rated and, therefore, should receive an important place in professional development. The five most desirable methods perceived by faculty members were travel grants, workshops, field experiences, conferences or seminars, and study leave. Three out of five favorite methods--travel grants, workshops, and seminars--were corroborated by Prachongchit's (1984) study. Travel grants to refresh or update knowledge were rated the first priority in Prachongchit's (1984) study of university faculty and also in this study. In addition, the information drawn from interviewees suggest that a sabbatical leave program be established in teachers colleges so that faculty members would spend an extended period of time away from their routine to conduct research and do other scholarly activities. Centra (1985) confirmed that sabbatical leaves were widely accepted as contributing to faculty members' research productivity. This has been a very effective and productive way for western faculty members to refresh or update their knowledge.

Faculty members preferred to have external experts as persons providing expertise for professional development activities; they also felt that the professional development

meetings should be held during intersession periods or vacations. These findings also are supported by Prachongchit's (1984) study. While these preferences are clear, other less costly methods were also viewed as acceptable. Any professional programs should include a wide variety of arrangements and options.

Job Satisfaction

The faculty members in this study expressed moderate satisfaction with the job they were doing (Overall satisfaction mean=3.26 on the five-point scale). This finding was consistent with Johnson's (1988) about elementary school principals, Gunn's (1984) study about senior high school principals, and Rice's (1978) study with principals in Alberta, all of which reported a moderate degree of overall satisfaction.

According to Herzberg (1966), items which bring greatest satisfaction should be intrinsic to the job itself. The two items rated highest in satisfaction: "level of responsibility in your work" and "freedom to use one's own judgment" seem to fit this theory perfectly. These kinds of items are the indicators of effective and productive working condition which bring intrinsic satisfaction. "Relationship with students" ranked fourth in satisfaction; this was consistent with Davis' (1980) study. However, other intrinsic items such as "cooperation among faculty members" (rank #13) and "opportunities to exchange knowledge with colleagues" (rank #15), were ranked relatively low in satisfaction. This may indicate why faculty members' overall satisfaction is only slightly above "medium." Concerns expressed in the interviews and open-ended questions about the quality of students, lack of funds, shortages of equipment and facilities, and library resources may explain why these intrinsic items were not ranked very high.

Two extrinsic items, "the location of your college" and "reputation of your college," were ranked third and fifth respectively out of 21 satisfaction items. Looking closely at college reputation, there was a high degree of connection between effectiveness and productiveness (the quality of the graduates) and college reputation. Therefore, this item

may be categorized as intrinsic. In the case of location, faculty members, especially the urban ones seem to be concerned about their travelling due to traffic congestion. Thus, the result is understandable.

In view of the five items which had the lowest rank, it is also advisable for college administrators to examine the daily events and make an effort to improve conditions. This is clear in the case of the lowest ranked item "your involvement in decision making in your college," which was supported by the information derived from the interviews and open-ended questions. College administrators need to examine their governance practices. The second lowest ranked item concerned the scarcity of resources. This concern about funding expressed by 129 respondents should be discussed at higher levels of administration. The third lowest ranked item was "opportunities to develop your research expertise." Respondents indicated that they spent only 9% of their time on research. In order to answer to their needs, the college may have to allocate more financial support and/or propose private or external organizations for financial support. Ability of students was also a main concern of faculty members. This may result from the attitude of students toward the status of the colleges. Universities are more attractive to them than teachers colleges, therefore, their first priority is being a university student. Unless they fail to achieve their goal, teachers colleges may be their next choice. In addition, the unemployment of a number of college graduates may be the major reason why teachers colleges cannot attract high ability students. Another point of concern was the fairness of college administrators in relation to support, promotion, and service. In order to deal with the problem effectively, traditional criteria and practice may have to be revised, adapted, improved after a thorough study.

Teaching as well as culture and service were the two predictors of overall satisfaction. Teaching appeared to be the best predictor of overall satisfaction. This coincided with the findings that faculty members spent most of their time on teaching (59.05%). In addition, three interviewees indicated that they loved teaching and felt most

accomplished in teaching. This may be explained by Locke's (1976) theory of value that because faculty members spent most of their time teaching, they perceived teaching as the function that brought the greatest satisfaction. Locke (1976) explained that satisfaction emerged from an interaction between the worker (faculty members) and his or her work environment (teaching and its environment). However, there seems to be some conflict in faculty members' evaluation of teaching because they indicated that they would like to reduce their teaching to 48.15%. The answer may be drawn from the interviews which showed faculty members' awareness of the college's four functions. At the time of the study, they devoted most of their time to only one function, teaching. Thus, they may realize that they have to reduce their instructional time in order to spend more time on the other three functions. Culture and service appeared to be the second best predictor of satisfaction. This may be because faculty spent more time and felt more familiar with culture and service than research. In addition, a number of faculty members felt that they lacked research knowledge.

Professional Difficulties

Teachers colleges have been upgraded to comprehensive higher education institutions to provide local people more opportunities and more access to higher learning. Unfortunately, teachers colleges were authorized to expand their roles with little, if any, additional funding. According to the budgetary figure of the planning division, the Department of Teacher Education (1992) received about $85,449, 470 for 36 teachers colleges. On average, each teachers college (including the Department of Teacher Education) would get only about $2,309,445. In comparison to universities, the Ministry of University Affairs (1991) received a total budget of $611,030,900 for 20 institutions. This means that on average each university would get as much as $29,096,700. This resulted in shortages of suitable equipment, laboratories, classrooms, facilities, required faculty members, and academic support personnel in teachers colleges. Thus, the budget

allocated to the three functions other than teaching was very small. As mentioned earlier, research received 0.22%, service 1.86%, and culture 0.33%. The budgetary figure provided by the planning division, the Department of Teacher Education (1992) showed that 74.95% of the total budget was allocated to graduate production or teaching. Thus, the instructional and related activities have continued to predominate at the teachers colleges. Faculty members had been busy teaching and doing administrative jobs, thus, had no time for the other functions. Fewer opportunities for professional development were also evident. As a result, faculty members had difficulty striving for excellence in their fields and had insufficient time to perform college functions other than teaching. In addition, the emphasis of the college on teaching, along with its reward system, might have prevented faculty members from performing their expected role in transforming comprehensive colleges.

As noted earlier, the new mandate of the transforming comprehensive colleges will provide a more equalized opportunity for local people to access higher education and to compete for better living. In addition, the distribution of teachers colleges, one teachers college for every two neighboring provinces, is ideal to serve local communities throughout the country. In order to enable these transforming colleges to be beneficial to the communities they serve, the Thai government may have to reexamine and reevaluate the funding of these transforming institutions. Sufficient long-term funding is needed in order that these comprehensive colleges can restructure and rebuild their academic capability and stability. Teachers colleges themselves have to show their potential and willingness by forming effective long-term plans with a view to demonstrating that they can grow as new effective institutions of human resource development which will result in local development of all kinds.

Differences in Performance by Demographic Variables

Of the 80 possible group comparisons only 14 showed statistically significant differences. In other words, there were several relationships between the demographic variables and perceptions of performance. But there were two function factors for which there were subgroup differences. In particular, those seemed to relate to culture and service, and research. Urban faculty members were less likely to be concerned with culture and service than the rural faculty members. The professors were more likely to be interested in research than the lecturers.

The implication of this finding for inservice professional development programs is that most of the programs can be offered to the faculty as a whole, but there could be some differences in terms of the kind of information presented with respect to research and culture and service depending on the nature of the group. In other words, the college might want to put on a different kind of research workshop for instructors than the college would put on for assistant and associate professors, because the latter are more aware of the importance of research and may want to have some upgrading of skills, like statistical methods. The college may want to talk to the instructors more about the possibilities of research and some other things they might be interested in doing.

Discussion from Theoretical Viewpoint

Thai faculty members are committed to four traditional functions. On a daily basis, the amount of time and effort that faculty members are able to devote to these four functions may not only be affected by their own motivation and interest but also by administrative, external service, and family demands. During the transformational period, however, there are more factors affecting their time and effort to accomplish their tasks. The findings in this study revealed development needs, as well as constraints, which must be taken into account in faculty development planning. Fishburne (1992), Centra (1989), Eble and Mckeachie (1985), Mathis (1982), Bergquist and Phillips (1975), and Gaff (1975) advocated the importance of faculty development to maintain high quality performance in

postsecondary education institutions. In addition, Greenaway and Harding (1978) advocated that faculty development helped faculty members cope with this difficult period and helped them perform as effectively as possible in their existing roles and to provide opportunities for faculty members to prepare themselves for changing duties and responsibilities. They confirmed that faculty development is a means to enhance job satisfaction. Development theory advocated three categories of staff development which seemed to be very useful for teachers colleges to apply to their context. They are personal development activities, instructional development activities, and organizational development activities. All of them look very promising; however, personal and instructional development activities have more concern in this study.

Nicholson (1988) reviewed many studies on factors affecting faculty productivity and effectiveness and concluded that there were three main factors--faculty characteristics (eg. discipline, age, status, education, work experience), institutional characteristics (e. g. climate/environment, policies, working conditions, governance, communications, student ability, department), and external characteristics (eg. changing demographic and economic conditions). Nicholson (1988) also revealed from her study that the following five dimensions were vital for faculty effectiveness and productivity --professional effectiveness, positive self-motivation, attachment and commitment, seeking challenge, and self-actualization. The chief dimensions of faculty vitality seemed to depend on the positive attitudes and behaviors of faculty themselves. This implies that faculty members at teachers colleges might maintain high quality productivity (graduate, publication, service projects, and cultural performance) if they feel good about themselves, their tasks, and their working place. This finding provides incentive to improve the professional climate in Thai teachers colleges.

During the transformational period, an assessment of faculty's perception of their performance is an essential prelude to quality improvement. This study provides useful information for teachers colleges to deal with development needs effectively and

successfully. Johns' (1988) discrepancy theory of satisfaction indicated that the degree of satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the job outcomes a faculty member perceived to be obtained (actual) and the outcomes that are expected (preferred). In this case professional development seems to be the vital means to achieve the satisfaction goal.

Conclusions

Based on the data examined and the findings obtained, the following conclusions can drawn.

1. What are the demographic and professional qualifications of faculty members in teachers colleges? How do these compare with faculty members in traditional universities?

The distribution of academic staff in teachers colleges is Ph.D.s (4.82%), master's (62.12%), bachelor's (32.55%), whereas in universities it is Ph.D.s (25.10%), master's (60.71%), bachelor's (14.17%). The distribution of faculty members' ranks in teachers colleges is full professor (0%), associate professor (1.46%), assistant professor (23.15%), and instructor (75.39%), whereas in universities it is full professor (2.23%), associate professor (20.73%), assistant professor (34.02%), and instructor (43.02%). In general, university faculty are more qualified with a higher percentages who had doctorates and who were full professors.

2. What are the functions of academic faculty in teachers colleges?

Faculty members at Thai teachers colleges are commited to four main functions, teaching, research, service, and culture. Teaching appears to be the function on which faculty spend the most time.

3. What is the perception of competencies required to perform these functions?

The most important six competencies for performing these four functions are presenting up-to-date subject matter, effectiveness of instruction, time spent reading professional journals, effectiveness of communication with students in classroom, attention to student evaluation, and encouraging class participation by students. The five required

competencies most in need of improvement are involvement in research in one's discipline, writing for publication, frequency of attendance at professional conferences, time spent reading professional journals, and involving students in public service activities.

4. What are the priority areas of professional development?

There are three levels of priority for professional development. The highest priority is for research development. Scholarship and culture and service are placed second. Teaching and student-related activities have the lowest need for development.

5. What are the preferred means of delivering programs of professional development?

The first five preferred means of professional development are travel grants, workshops, field experiences, conferences or seminars, and study leaves. Holding the professional development activities during vacation is faculty members' preference and they prefer using external experts rather than personnel from within their institutions.

6. What particular barriers exist which create professional difficulties?

There are several factors which caused professional difficulties. These are lack of funds, facilities, and equipment; work load resulting from academic and support personnel shortages; and attitudinal or commitment problems within the college. Teaching is affected by the poor quality of students. Research, service, and culture were inhibited by a lack of knowledge and expertise of faculty themselves.

7. What is the overall level of satisfaction experienced by faculty members ?

The overall satisfaction of faculty members was slightly above the "medium" level of 3 (mean=3.26). Teaching and culture and service are the two functions out of the five functions examined which contribute most strongly to overall satisfaction although only accounting for 14% of the variance. Therefore other unknown factors also affect overall satisfaction.

8. What is the effect of demographic variables upon perceptions related to faculty role performance?

There were few relationships between faculty members' demographic variables and their performance. But there were two function factors for which there were subgroup differences. These seemed to relate to culture and service and research.

It is evident that faculty's emerging role in reformed colleges is more complex and demanding than the previous role. In addition, this transformation is regarded by Fullan (1982) as a process, rather than as an event. Therefore, it will take a considerable time to reach the expected stage. In any transformational period, an assessment of needs is vital (Harris, 1989), (Burrello and Orbaugh, 1982), (Taba, 1962) and means for addressing these needs must be provided. This study confirmed that there is a need for professional development and professional development still plays an important role in maintaining faculty's effectiveness and productiveness in Thai teachers colleges.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Practice

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are made:

First, the government and/or the Department of Teacher Education should acknowledge that teachers colleges cannot contribute to their surrounding societies effectively and productively if financial constraint continues to be a significant problem. The government and/or the Department of Teacher Education should increase the budget so that teachers colleges can work to their full potential and gain public trust. This may lead to other sources of public financial support. The government and/or the Department of Teacher Education should provide an opportunity for teachers colleges to grow in order to expand local access to higher education.

Second, in order to allow teachers colleges to grow independently and effectively, the Department of Teacher Education should decentralize its authority for program planning and hiring of personnel.

Third, in spite of financial constraint, teachers colleges have to demonstrate commitment to staff development, quality productivity, and institutional reorganization in order to gain the public trust. Effective institutional leadership, along with partnership building with community organizations, will be a critical element in establishing the teachers colleges comprehensive regional universities.

Fourth, information obtained from this study should be communicated to faculty members in teachers colleges and institutional and system leaders and meetings for discussion should be arranged.

Fifth, teachers colleges ought to acknowledge that faculty members do perceive that research is significant to their role as higher educators. In spite of the financial constraint, research cannot be ignored. Instead the budget for research and development should be increased and the award system should be geared more to research support.

Recommendations for Research

This study has contributed to the development of teachers colleges in Thailand. The investigation has revealed some important aspects of teachers colleges, for example their need for financial assistance and professional development. In order to convince the government to increase financial support to teachers colleges, the Department of Teacher Education should initiate and support a series of studies focusing on the impact of the transformed teachers colleges on their local communities and on the nation as a whole. A management study should be conducted to facilitate the development of teachers colleges. Knowledge obtained from the study will allow researchers and/or the authorities to consider what adjustments to current structures and practices might be desirable and to consider specific development programs, including priorities, to facilitate the development of the institutions. Further investigation should be conducted to survey other teachers colleges in other united colleges besides UCL and UCR. Integration of findings from various studies would provide a more comprehensive understanding of how to upgrade and

support teachers colleges to bring the maximum benefit to the country. Further research should also deal with effectiveness of teachers college academic departments and faculties because it is generally recognized that academic departments and faculties are key units in teachers colleges. One useful and largely unexplored aspect of teachers colleges is to investigate the goals of teachers colleges. Another issue for further research is related to the need for staff development. This investigation could be conducted in order to provide college administrators a complete picture of staff development needs. Last but not least, the process of change in teachers colleges is also worth studying.

Concluding Remarks

The information obtained from this study is not enough to confirm whether teachers colleges have the ability and potential to be equivalent to universities. The findings of this study indicate that faculty members performed four traditional university functions while spending more than half of their time on teaching. However, faculty indicated that they preferred to spend less time on teaching and more time on research. Their academic qualifications were still low compared to state universities. Several factors constrained their performance, the most important of which appeared to be a lack of funds. The future of teachers colleges must rest in the hands of political leaders who should articulate a vision for them and provide the means and incentive to realize their full potential. Further study may help bridge where they are and where they want to be.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaires for Faculty Members

THAI VERSION QUESTIONNAIRE

แบบสอบถามเรื่องการปฏิบัติหน้าที่ของอาจารย์วิทยาลัยครู

แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้เป็นแบบสอบถามที่มีจุดมุ่งหมายให้ท่านประเมินตัวท่านเองเป็นสำคัญ

ตอนที่ 1

ข้อมูลส่วนตัว

โปรดเลือกคำตอบที่เหมาะสมโดยกาเครื่องหมาย(X) หรือเขียนข้อความลงในช่องว่างของแต่ละข้อ

1 วิทยาลัยครู _____

2 คณะวิชา _____

3 เพศ

(1) หญิง _____ (2) ชาย _____

4 อายุ

(1) ต่ำกว่า30 _____ (4) 50-59_____

(2) 30-39 _____ (5) 60และสูงกว่า _____

(3) 40-49 _____

5 ตำแหน่งทางวิชาการ

(1) ศาสตราจารย์_____ (4) อาจารย์_____

(2) รองศาสตราจารย์_____ (5) อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)_____

(3) ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์_____

6 การศึกษาสูงสุด

(1) ปริญญาตรี _____ (4) อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)_____

(2) ปริญญาโท_____

(3) ปริญญาเอก_____

7 จำนวนปีที่สอนในวิทยาลัยครูนับถึงเดือนมีนาคม พ.ศ 2535

(1) ต่ำกว่า2ปี _____ (4) 10-14 _____

(2) 2-4 _____ (5) 15-19 _____

(3) 5-9 _____ (6) มากกว่า 19 ปี _____

8 ตำแหน่งปัจจุบันของท่าน_____

ตอนที่ 2

การะหน้าที่ของอาจารย์

โปรดเลือกคำตอบโดยวงกลมล้อมรอบข้อที่เหมาะสมที่สุด แบบสอบถามชุดนี้มีจุดมุ่งหมายที่จะให้อาจารย์ประเมินตัวของท่านเองโดยพิจารณาจากการปฏิบัติหน้าที่ของท่านในฐานะอาจารย์ในสถาบันอุดมศึกษาตามสภาพที่เป็นจริง(ACTUAL) ในปัจจุบันและแสดงความคิดเห็นของท่านเกี่ยวกับสภาพที่ควรเป็น (PREFERRED)ในฐานะอาจารย์ในสถาบันอุดมศึกษาที่สมบูรณ์แบบหรือมหาวิทยาลัย โดยใช้เกณฑ์ต่อไปนี้ในการพิจารณาให้น้ำหนักในแต่ละข้อ

1 = น้อย 2 = ค่อนข้างน้อย 3 = ปานกลาง 4 = ค่อนข้างมาก 5 = มาก

	สภาพจริง					ควรเป็น				
	น้อย		ปานกลาง		มาก	น้อย		ปานกลาง		มาก
1. ความทันสมัยในเนื้อหาวิชาที่ท่านสอน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. การประยุกต์ใช้จิตวิทยาการสอน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. ประสิทธิผลในการสอน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. เวลาที่ใช้ในการอ่านวารสารเกี่ยวกับวิชาชีพ	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. ประสิทธิผลในการสื่อสารในห้องเรียน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. ท่านเข้าร่วมประชุมสัมมนาเกี่ยวกับวิชาชีพบ่อยครั้งเพียงใด	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. เวลาที่ใช้ในการเตรียมการสอน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. เวลาที่ใช้ในการสนทนากับเพื่อนอาจารย์เกี่ยวกับวิชาชีพ	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. ความใส่ใจด้านการวัดผลนักศึกษา	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10.มีเวลาให้นักศึกษาเข้าปรึกษา	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11.กระตุ้นให้นักศึกษามีส่วนร่วมในการเรียน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12.ป้อนข้อมูลย้อนกลับ(FEEDBACK)อย่างตรงไปตรงมาแก่นักศึกษา	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13.ทำวิจัยในสาขาวิชาของท่าน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14.เวลาที่ใช้ในการให้คำปรึกษาโครงการต่างๆของนักศึกษา	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15.การเขียนผลงานทางวิชาการเพื่อการพิมพ์เผยแพร่ เช่น ตำรา	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16.ทำงานบริการทางวิชาการให้แก่ชุมชน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17.มีส่วนร่วมในการบริหารวิทยาลัยเช่นมีตำแหน่งเป็นกรรมการต่างๆ	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

18 ให้นักศึกษาได้ร่วมกิจกรรมในการบริการชุมชน	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
19.เวลาที่ใช้ในการทำกิจกรรมที่เกี่ยวข้องกับวัฒนธรรมไทยเช่นร่วมกิจกรรมประเพณีต่างๆ	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20 สนับสนุนให้นักศึกษาร่วมทำกิจกรรมเกี่ยวกับวัฒนธรรมเช่นร่วมงานประเพณีต่างๆ	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

ตอนที่ 3

เวลาที่ใช้ในการปฏิบัติหน้าที่

โปรดระบุร้อยละของเวลาที่ท่านใช้ในการทำงานจริง (ACTUAL)ในแต่ละหน้าที่ดังแสดงในตารางและโปรดระบุว่าท่านคิดว่าท่านควรจะใช้เวลาในการทำงาน(IDEAL)ในแต่ละหน้าที่นั้นอย่างไร จึงจะเหมาะสมกับการเป็นอาจารย์ในสถาบันอุดมศึกษาที่สมบูรณ์หรือมหาวิทยาลัยโดยคิดเวลาทำงานทั้งหมด (ทั้ง 4 ภาระหน้าที่--งานสอน,งานวิจัย,งานบริการชุมชนและงานทะนุบำรุงวัฒนธรรม)เป็นร้อยละ 100

	สภาพจริง	ควรเป็น
งานสอน		
งานวิจัย		
งานบริการ(ทั้งในวิทยาลัยฯและในชุมชน)		
งานทะนุบำรุงศิลปวัฒนธรรม		
รวม(4 ภาระหน้าที่)	100%	100%

ตอนที่ 4

การพัฒนาวิชาชีพ

โปรดเลือกกิจกรรมพัฒนาวิชาชีพที่ท่านเห็นว่ามีคุณค่าต่อท่านในด้านการพัฒนาความรู้ความสามารถด้านวิชาการและวิชาชีพซึ่งท่านเห็นว่าควรจัดในสถาบันอุดมศึกษาเพื่อพัฒนาศักยภาพของท่าน

	คุณค่า				
	น้อย		ปานกลาง		มาก
1. จัดเวียนจดหมายข่าวและ/หรือบทความวิชาการ	1	2	3	4	5
2. ศึกษาต่อ	1	2	3	4	5
3. ศึกษาดูงานโดยมีงบประมาณสนับสนุน	1	2	3	4	5

4 การยกย่องอาจารย์ผู้มีผลงานดีเด่น	1	2	3	4	5
5 การประชุมเชิงปฏิบัติการ(WORKSHOPS)	1	2	3	4	5
6 ประสบการณ์ภาคสนามหรือการฝึกงานชั่วคราวในองค์กรที่เกี่ยวข้อง	1	2	3	4	5
7 การประชุมทางวิชาการ(CONFERENCES, SEMINAR)	1	2	3	4	5
8 ลงทะเบียนเรียนวิชาแบบไม่คิดหน่วยกิตในมหาวิทยาลัย	1	2	3	4	5
<u>ลักษณะการจัดกิจกรรมทั้ง 8 ดังกล่าวควรจัดโดย</u>					
9 ใช้บุคลากรผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิของวิทยาลัยครูเป็นวิทยากร	1	2	3	4	5
10 ใช้บุคลากรผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิจากภายนอกเป็นวิทยากร	1	2	3	4	5
11 จัดกิจกรรมดังกล่าวช่วงเปิดเรียน	1	2	3	4	5
12 จัดกิจกรรมดังกล่าวช่วงปิดเรียน	1	2	3	4	5
13 กิจกรรมอื่นๆ(โปรดระบุ)_____	1	2	3	4	5
14 กิจกรรมอื่นๆ(โปรดระบุ)_____	1	2	3	4	5

<u>ตอนที่ 5</u>

<u>อุปสรรคและปัญหาในการประกอบวิชาชีพ</u>

โปรดระบุอุปสรรคและปัญหาที่ทำให้ท่านไม่สามารถปฏิบัติหน้าที่ในฐานะอาจารย์ในสถาบันอุดมศึกษาได้ตามที่มุ่งหวังโดยแยกเป็นด้านๆ (1) สอน (2) วิจัย (3) บริการชุมชน (4) ทะนุบำรุงศิลปวัฒนธรรม

1 งานสอน

2 งานวิจัย

3 งานบริการ(ทั้งในวิทยาลัยฯและในชุมชน)

4 งานทะนุบำรุงศิลปวัฒนธรรม

ตอนที่ 6

ความพอใจในการทำงาน

โปรดระบุระดับความพอใจในการทำงานของท่านในด้านต่างๆดังต่อไปนี้

	ความพอใจ				
	น้อย		ปานกลาง		มาก
1 ชื่อเสียงของวิทยาลัยฯ	1	2	3	4	5
2 โอกาสในการพัฒนาความสามารถในการสอน	1	2	3	4	5
3 โอกาสในการพัฒนาความสามารถในการวิจัย	1	2	3	4	5
4 โอกาสในการแลกเปลี่ยนความรู้กับเพื่อนอาจารย์	1	2	3	4	5
5 ความก้าวหน้าในวิชาชีพและส่วนตัว	1	2	3	4	5
6 ความสัมพันธ์กับนักศึกษา	1	2	3	4	5
7 เสรีภาพในการใช้วิจารณญาณของตนเอง	1	2	3	4	5
8 ความร่วมมือระหว่างอาจารย์	1	2	3	4	5
9 ความยุติธรรมของผู้บริหาร	1	2	3	4	5
10 การสนับสนุนจากผู้บริหารที่ท่านได้รับ	1	2	3	4	5
11 ความสามารถของนักศึกษาที่ท่านสอน	1	2	3	4	5
12 ปริมาณงานธุรการทั่วไปที่ท่านต้องปฏิบัติ	1	2	3	4	5
13 ความรู้สึกว่าได้ทำงานเต็มความสามารถ	1	2	3	4	5
14 ระดับของความรับผิดชอบในการปฏิบัติงาน	1	2	3	4	5
15 แนวปฏิบัติในการวัดผลอาจารย์	1	2	3	4	5
16 การยกย่องและยอมรับในผลงานของท่าน	1	2	3	4	5
17 สถานที่ตั้งของวิทยาลัยฯ	1	2	3	4	5

18	อัตราเงินเดือนและผลประโยชน์อื่นๆที่ท่านได้รับ	1	2	3	4	5
19	สภาพแวดล้อมในการปฏิบัติงาน	1	2	3	4	5
20	การมีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจในวิทยาลัยฯ	1	2	3	4	5
21	การบริการด้านทรัพยากรสนับสนุนการสอน(เช่น สิ่งอำนวยความสะดวก, เครื่องมือเครื่องใช้)ของวิทยาลัยฯ	1	2	3	4	5
22	ในภาพรวมท่านรู้สึกพอใจในการทำงานของท่านเพียงใด	1	2	3	4	5

ได้โปรดแสดงความคิดเห็นอื่นๆที่ท่านเห็นว่าเกี่ยวข้องกับบทบาทของท่านในฐานะอาจารย์วิทยาลัยครูและจะมีผลดีต่อการพัฒนาวิทยาลัยฯให้เป็นสถาบันอุดมศึกษาที่สมบูรณ์แบบ

ขอขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือตอบแบบสอบถาม

ENGLISH VERSION QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire for Faculty Members

Part A - Demographic Information

Please check (X) or write in the appropriate answer.

1. At which college are you a faculty member? _____

2. What is your faculty? _____

3. What is your gender?

   (1) Female _____ (2) Male _____

4. What is your age category?

   (1) Under 30 _____ (4) 50 - 59 _____

   (2) 30 - 39 _____ (5) 60 or 61 _____

   (3) 40 - 49 _____

5. What is your academic rank?

   (1) Professor _____ (4) Instructor _____

   (2) Associate Professor _____ (5) Other _____ (please specify)

   (3) Assistant Professor _____

6. What is the highest academic degree you hold?

   (1) Bachelor's _____ (3) Doctorate _____

   (2) Master's _____ (4) Other _____ (Please specify)

7. Including the current year, for how many years have you served in a teachers college?

   (1) Less than 2 _____ (4) 10 - 14 _____

   (2) 2 - 4 _____ (5) 15 - 19 _____

   (3) 5 - 9 _____ (6) more than 19 _____

8. What is your present position? _____

Part B - Functions of Academic Faculty

Please answer the following questions by circling a number on each scale based on your perceptions of your performance as a faculty member in a teachers college. In the Actual column rate your present level of performance. In the Preferred column indicate what you judge to be a desirable and realistic level of performance for you to aspire to in order to work successfully in the reformed college. The numbers of the scale correspond to the following rating: 1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, 5=high

	Actual performance					Preferred performance				
	low		medium		high	low		medium		high
1. Presenting up-to-date subject matter	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Applying the principles of instructional psychology	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Effectiveness of instruction	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Time spent reading professional journals	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Effectiveness of communication with students in classroom	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Frequency of attendance at professional conferences	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Time spent in preparation for classes	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Time spent talking with colleagues about professional matters	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Attention to student evaluation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. Availability for consultation with students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11. Encouraging class participation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. Providing realistic feedback to students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. Involvement in research in your discipline	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. Time spent on advising students in their projects	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. Writing for publication	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. Involvement in public service	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17. Involvement in college governance	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. Involving students in public service activities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
19. Time spent on activities related to Thai culture	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20. Encouragement of student involvement in cultural activities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Part C - Percentage of time spent on each function

Please judge the actual percentage of your typical work year spent on each of the functions listed below, and indicate what you think is an ideal percentage distribution for your future work in a reformed college. The total in both columns should be 100%.

Function	Actual	Ideal
Teaching		
Research		
Service (college and public)		
Cultural preservation and promotion		
Total	100%	100%

Part D - Professional development arrangements.

Please rate each of the following arrangements in terms of its value to you for professional development.

Scale: 1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, 5=high

	Value				
	low		medium		high
1. Circulation of newsletters, articles, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Study leaves	1	2	3	4	5
3. Travel grants	1	2	3	4	5
4. Recognition of faculty for excellence in performance	1	2	3	4	5
5. Workshops	1	2	3	4	5
6. Field experiences (temporary placement in a related organization)	1	2	3	4	5
7. Conferences or seminars	1	2	3	4	5
8. Non-credit university course	1	2	3	4	5
9. Using college's own faculty as professional development resources	1	2	3	4	5
10. Using external experts as professional development resources	1	2	3	4	5
11. Holding professional development meetings during college term	1	2	3	4	5
12. Holding professional development meetings during vacations	1	2	3	4	5
13. other _____ (please specify)	1	2	3	4	5
14. other _____ (please specify)	1	2	3	4	5

Part E - Professional Development Difficulties

In the spaces provided below, please describe any difficulties that might inhibit you in the areas of (1) teaching (2) research (3) service (college and public) (4) cultural preservation and promotion.

1. Teaching

2. Research

3. Service (college and public)

4. Cultural preservation and promotion

Part E - Job Satisfaction

Please rate your degree of satisfaction with each of the following aspects of your college.
Scale: 1=low, 2=fairly low, 3=medium, 4=fairly high, 5=high

	Satisfaction				
	low		medium		high
1. Reputation of the college	1	2	3	4	5
2. Opportunities to develop your teaching expertise	1	2	3	4	5
3. Opportunities to develop your research expertise	1	2	3	4	5
4. Opportunities to exchange knowledge with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
5. Opportunities for professional and personal growth	1	2	3	4	5
6. Relationship with students	1	2	3	4	5
7. Freedom to use one's own judgement	1	2	3	4	5
8. Cooperation among faculty members	1	2	3	4	5
9. Fairness of the college administrators	1	2	3	4	5
10. Amount of support you get	1	2	3	4	5
11. Ability of students in your classes	1	2	3	4	5
12. Amount of paper work that you are required to do	1	2	3	4	5
13. Sense of fulfillment that you have with your job	1	2	3	4	5
14. Level of responsibility in your work	1	2	3	4	5
15. Faculty member evaluation practices	1	2	3	4	5
16. Recognition of your work by others	1	2	3	4	5
17. The location of your college	1	2	3	4	5
18. The salary and benefits provided	1	2	3	4	5
19. Your physical working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
20. Your involvement in decision making in your college	1	2	3	4	5
21. Availability of resources (facilities, equipment and supplies)	1	2	3	4	5
22. Your overall satisfaction with your job	1	2	3	4	5

Please add any other comments relevant to your role as a faculty member in a teachers college

Thank you for your participation

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview Questions

1. Among the four functions of the college (teaching, research, service and cultural preservation and promotion), in your opinion, which one is the most important? Why?
2. In order to function as an effective and productive college, what should be the ideal percentage distribution for your work? Why?
3. What are the professional difficulties that you are facing in the area of teaching?
4. What are the professional difficulties that you are facing in the area of research?
5. What are the professional difficulties that you are facing in the area of service?
6. What are the professional difficulties that you are facing in the area of cultural preservation and promotion?
7. In what area of your professional development do you feel needs the most attention?
8. In terms of professional development activities, which one is most valuable to you at present?
9. Among the four functions of the college, in which one do you feel you have accomplished the most? And the least? Why?
10. What suggestions have you for improving the quality of faculty performance in a teachers college?

APPENDIX C

CORRESPONDENCES:
First Request for Cooperation with Pilot Testing
Second Request for Cooperation with Pilot Testing
Covering Letters to Respondents

Appendix C1

Letters to Thai Students for the First Pilot Study

Dept. of Educational Administration

December 24, 1991

Dear Thai Students;

Re: Pilot Testing of Questionnaires

I am writing to request your assistance in completing the enclosed questionnaire dealing with the performance of faculty members of teachers colleges in Thailand. Please complete all sections. In particular, you may wish to express opinions about the following matters: length of the questionnaire, any ambiguity or lack of clarity in the instructions in each section, specific questions which are ambiguous or unsuitable, important omissions from the questionnaire, and the suitability of the rating scales. All information obtained from you will be helpful for revising and improving the questionnaire.

Your participation in this process is greatly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,

Sa-ngop Prasertphan

Appendix C2

Letters to Faculty Members at Chachoengsao Teachers College
for the Second Pilot Study

Dept. of Educational Administration
University of Alberta

January 2, 1992

Dear Colleagues;

Re: Pilot Testing of Questionnaires

I am Mr. Sa-ngop Prasertphan, a faculty member from Uttaradit Teachers College. At the present time, I am on leave of absence doing graduate work in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada.

I am writing to request your assistance in completing the enclosed questionnaire dealing with the performance of faculty members at teachers colleges in Thailand. Please complete all sections. In particular, you may wish to express your opinion about the following matters: length of the questionnaire, any ambiguity or lack of clarity in the instructions in each section, specific questions which are ambiguous or unsuitable, important omissions from the questionnaire, and the suitability of the rating scales. All information obtained from you will be helpful for revising and improving the questionnaire.

Your participation in this process is greatly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,

Sa-ngop Prasertphan

Appendix C3

Letters to Respondents at the Four Selected Teachers College

Dept. of Educational Administration
University of Alberta

February 15, 1992

Dear Colleagues;

I am Mr. Sa-ngop Prasertphan, a faculty member from Uttaradit Teachers College. At the present time, I am on leave of absence doing graduate work in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada.

I am writing to request your assistance in completing the enclosed questionnaire dealing with faculty members at teachers colleges in Thailand. The purpose of this study is to explore the role of faculty members as these institutions undergo a change of mandate and become comprehensive postsecondary institutions. Your considered responses will make a valuable contribution to the study. Please complete all sections. Steps have been taken to achieve both confidentiality and anonymity. Please complete the questionnaire and seal it in the envelope provided and I shall collect it on .....

Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,
Sa-ngop Prasertphan

APPENDIX D

Additional Tables

Table D 6.1

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Percentages of Time Spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture by Gender

Function	Actual Mean %				Preferred Mean %			
	Female n=167	Male n=127	t	p	Female n=167	Male n=127	t	p
1. Teaching	58.67	59.56	-0.41	.68	48.14	48.15	0.00	1.00
2. Research	8.39	9.76	-1.27	.21	22.99	23.82	-0.60	.55
3. Service	22.89	21.96	0.50	.61	16.78	17.23	-0.43	.66
4. Culture	10.15	8.71	1.66	.10	12.08	10.80	1.86	.06

Table D 6.2

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Percentages of Time Spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture by Position

Function	Actual Mean %				Preferred Mean %			
	Administrator n=52	Instructor n=184	t	p	Administrator n=52	Instructor n=184	t	p
1. Teaching	57.79	59.78	-0.68	.49	48.46	48.31	.06	.95
2. Research	9.61	9.31	0.20	.84	22.40	23.26	-0.47	.64
3. Service	22.69	21.53	0.50	.62	17.98	16.53	1.09	.27
4. Culture	9.90	9.48	0.36	.72	11.15	11.89	-0.77	.44

Table D 6.3

Comparison of Actual and Preferred Mean Percentages of Time Spent on Teaching, Research, Service, and Culture by Location

Function	Actual Mean %				Preferred Mean %			
	Rural n=93	Urban n=201	t	p	Rural n=93	Urban n=201	t	p
1. Teaching	58.59	59.28	-0.29	.77	48.12	48.16	-0.02	.98
2. Research	9.73	8.64	0.95	.34	25.65	23.21	0.31	.76
3. Service	21.88	22.77	-0.45	.65	16.74	17.08	-0.31	.76
4. Culture	9.89	9.36	0.55	.58	11.48	11.55	-0.10	.92