

CHAPTER - 1

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND PERSPECTIVE AND IDEOLOGY

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

In the field of education, in the course of last two decades or so many new practices and innovations have been introduced. To be more specific, much attention has been paid to methodology and classroom interaction and modification of teaching - learning behaviour curriculum development and evaluation techniques. But the most important area in which the threads of individual personalities weave the very structure of the education institutions, viz., the 'organization' has been rather neglected. As planners and designers of education, one cannot afford to forget that it is the people who comprise the institutions. Their mental health academic and material as well as social need satisfaction are more crucial in making the educational plans a success. The quality of education which is a cry of the present frustrated educators will soon take care of itself if only the 'humane' aspect of education is given proper attention. The 'organizational climate', 'teacher's morale', and 'leadership' of the principal are so entwined so as to arouse the enthusiasm of each individual in his respective role to give his best to the institution.

A host of literature and research studies indicates the advanced stage of development in business administration and industrial organizations which have tended to give

thought to the human relations aspect of the productivity and effectiveness of the organization. The organizational climate which affects the morale of the workers and eventually enhances or reduces the output and the effectiveness of the organization have become matters of prime concern to administrators and executives in business and industry.

However, in the field of education this humane aspect of diagnosing the ills of the organizations or the 'climate' is comparatively a recent move. The schools and colleges which are human organizations and where the inter-personal relationship is the key to the success of the organization, are also striving to achieve the goals and purposes for which they are established. In this human and group enterprise it is on the 'initiating structure' and 'consideration' dimensions of leadership behaviour, esprit, human relationship, communication and democratic attitude and values coercive effort both on the part of the administrator and the group members that the quality and success of an educational enterprise would depend. The programmes are no doubt important, but the manner of executing the programmes are equally, if not more, important. The latter needs more attention and care in the present deteriorating situation.

The concept of 'organizational climate' and 'morale', applied in the field of education is more or less the same

as in business and industrial organizations. Therefore, at many places in this section the investigator has made use of references and research findings from these sectors whenever suitable to the educational settings.

In the present study, the investigator will make an attempt to identify the organizational climate, the staff morale and leadership behaviour of the principals of a sampled primary schools. His sample is drawn from his own home country, viz., Thailand. Educational research in organizational climate of primary schools and in leadership behaviour and teacher morale as its correlates is upto now an unexplored field of educational research in Thailand.

1.2 BACKGROUND PERSPECTIVE OF THAILAND

As the present study is cast in the Asian country Thailand, it would be pertinent to glance through some vital facts and figures about Thailand which might serve as background setting and might also help in understanding the determinant factors of organizational climate, leadership pattern and staff morale of its primary school which are the focal points in the present doctoral study.

A nation wedged like a keystone into the heart of South-east Asia, Thailand in the last decades of the 20th century holds a critical position in the attempts of the countries of this area to achieve and maintain a political, economic, and social stability. Since 1932, when an

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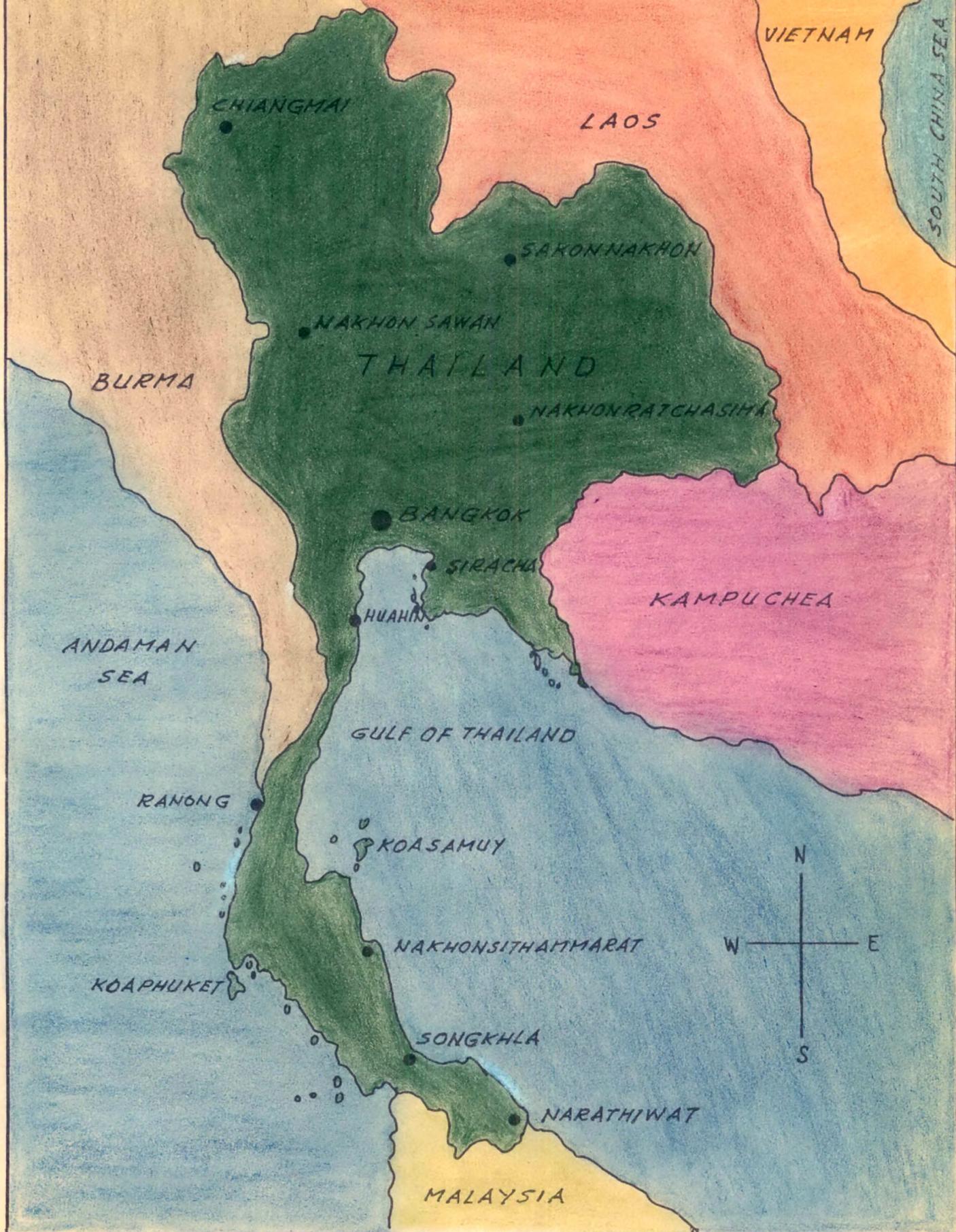
absolutists monarchy was overthrown, the nation has been a constitutional monarchy with a representative legislature; in 1939 the official name was changed from Siam to Thailand, the "land of the freedom". The several ethnic and religious groups represented among the people of Thailand more than 47,875,000¹ people are having characteristic of the cultural diversity that for centuries has spread across this portion of the continent, a melange of influences from the two Asian giants, China and India.

The landscape of Thailand is one of the high mountains at the edge of the Himalayan chain, of fertile, alluvial plains dotted with rice paddies, and of sandy beaches and tropical forests set a mid the latitudes of the Asian monsoons. The main body of the country (see Chart No.1) is surrounded by Burma on the West, Laos and China on the North, Cambodia and Vietnam on the East and the Federation Malaysia on the South. From the Southwest corner, part of Thailand stretches Southward down the Malay Peninsula as far as Malaysia. This peninsula cuts off shipping using Thailand's capital and chief port, Bangkok, from points Westward; Bangkok is, nevertheless, the international air hub of Southeast Asia.

Contacts of long standing between Thailand and the West have affected the forms if not the realities of Thailand's political and economic life. Thailand has maintained the relative political stability in the face of

CHART NO. 1: MAP OF THAILAND

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continual communist guerrilla warfare inside its borders since World War II is largely the result of Western support. Thailand's free-enterprise economy participates vigorously in world-wide commerce yet remains based on primary products and relies on imports for manufactured goods. In addition, the nation's economic balance is maintained by aid from the United States and other nations.

The natural and human landscape: Three main geological regions cover most of Thailand's 198,455 square miles (519,078 square kilometers) the folded mountains in the North, the Khorat uplift in the East, and the Chao Phraya depression, comprising much of the central plains.

Climate: The major influences on Thailand's climate are its location on the Indochinese Peninsula within the sphere of the tropical monsoons and certain topographic features that modify the effects of the rains. Beginning in May, warm, humid air masses flow northeastward over the region from the Indian Ocean, depositing great quantities of rain that reach a maximum in September. Between October and February, the wind currents are reversed, and cold, dry air masses are driven in from the Northeast. Stagnant air in March and April is associated with the hot, dry season.

Topographic effects are most noticeable on the peninsula, where Ranong on the West receives 188 inches (4,772 millimetres) of rain annually, and Hua Hin on the East receives only 40 inches (1,007 millimetres). Songkhla

has its rainy season during the winter months, the result of moisture picked up from the Gulf of Thailand by the cold Northeast air masses. In this area a true tropical rain-forest climate prevails.

Nationwide, temperatures are relatively steady throughout the year, average between 75° and 86° F (24° C and 30° C). The greatest fluctuations are in the North, where frost may occur in December on higher elevations; maritime influences moderate the climate in the South. The cold, dry winter air produces frequent morning fogs that generally dissipate by midday.

Birthrates and mortality rates: By the early 1970s, Thailand's population had more than doubled since World War II. Trends suggest that comparable growth will continue, since the government's attempts at family planning run counter to much social and religious tradition. The very high birthrate of about 33 per year per 1,000 people is about twice that of many Western nations, but, since Thailand is an agricultural country, the population pressure on the land is not as serious as it would be in an industrial country. The World Health Organization (WHO) has helped to suppress such endemic diseases as malaria and tuberculosis. The death rate has been reduced from about 16 persons per 1,000 to about 7 per 1,000 since World War II.

The National Economy: Thailand's economy is still based on the production of basic agricultural, mineral,

forest, and other raw materials. Its gold and other foreign-exchange reserves increased by about 15% annually after 1957, and the Thai unit of currency, the baht, is among the world's most stable currencies.

Administration and Social Conditions

Structure of government: Following the revolution of 1932, a provisional constitution was promulgated, stating that supreme power lay in the hands of the people. The monarch, the National Assembly, the commissariate of the people (later, the State Council), and the law courts were to exercise power on their behalf. Since then, several constitutions have been created because of changes of government, but the provisions are similar.

Under the present constitution, the king is head of the state and of the armed forces. He is held to be sacred and inviolable, and in the name of the people he exercises legislative power, with the advice and consent of the Assembly. He also appoints the prime ministers. Executive powers are vested in the Council of Ministers, judicial powers in the Courts; both operate in the name of the king. The royal family is very much at the core of modern Thai society, being regarded as the symbol of national unity and the protector of national welfare and traditions.

The social milieu: The average per capita income (PCI) in Thailand is about 16,549 baht (20 baht = \$ 1 U.S.);

40 baht = £ 1 sterling and 2.50 baht = Re. 1 rupee on December 1, 1981), with regional averages ranging from 17,949 baht in the central region to only 14,449 baht in the Northeast. In the early 1970's almost of the population was under 15 years of age, creating an enormous dependency rate. The cost-of-living index was also rising dramatically.

Cultural life and institutions: According to many historians, the Thai's original home was in China, perhaps as far north as Mongolia. The Thai brought with them many cultural institutions of the Chinese. They began settlement in the Indochinese Peninsula about 800 years ago, at which time some Indian colonies already were established. Indian culture has been continuously absorbed into Thai life. Modifications were affected by the cultures of the Mon people, the Javanese, and the Khmer and Burmese people. In 1955 Thailand became the first nation of mainland Asia to have regular television programming, and in the early 1970's Bangkok had eight channels; three provincial stations reach over 30 provinces. Two Earth satellite stations were built at Si Racha in 1970 to facilitate overseas television links.²

Buddhism is the State Religion of Thailand. About 93.6 percent of the total population is Buddhist. 3.9 percent is Islamic; 0.9 percent is Christian and the rest belong to other religions.³

The population density of Thailand at present is about 91.95 per square kilometer. The population projection for 1970 - 1981 which has been recommended for use in planning for economic development of the country is given below :

Table 1.1 : Population projections 1970 - 1981⁴
(in thousand)

Year	Whole kingdom	Male	Female	Population per square kilometer
1970	36,370	18,251	18,119	70.88
1971	37,485	18,815	18,670	73.05
1972	38,592	19,373	19,219	75.21
1973	39,693	19,930	19,763	77.36
1974	40,782	20,479	20,303	79.48
1975	41,869	21,028	20,841	81.60
1976	42,950	21,579	21,381	83.70
1977	44,039	22,125	21,914	85.83
1978	45,100	22,660	22,440	87.90
1979	46,142	23,185	22,957	89.93
1980	47,173	23,704	23,469	91.94
1981	47,875	24,067	23,808	91.95

1.3 THE PRESENT EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THAILAND

There are five distinguished characteristics of the Thai society which should be considered for the proper understanding of its educational structures. They are :

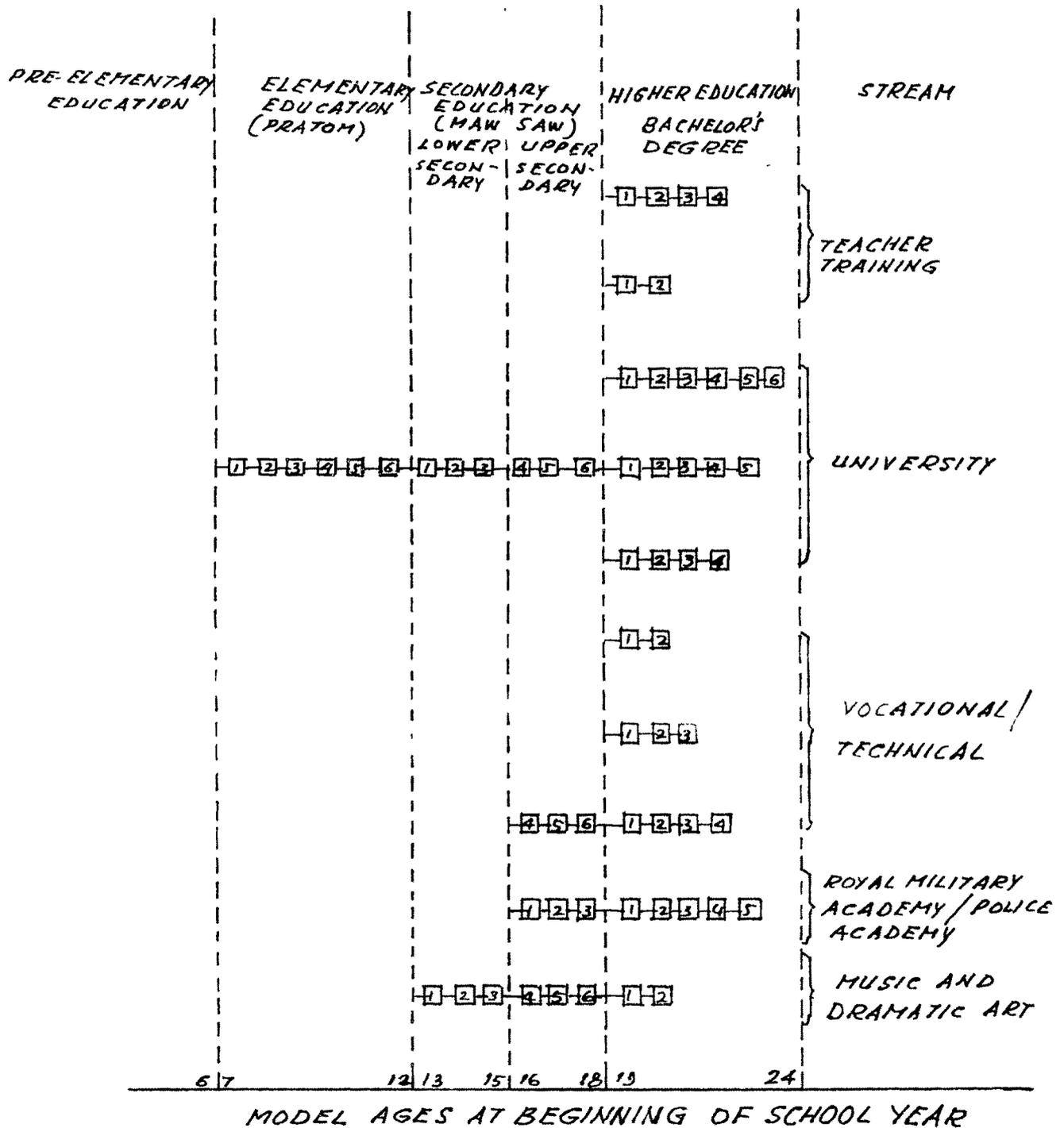
(1) The society is developing in the spheres of policy, economy, social progressiveness and cultural self-respect and solidarity; (2) It is striving to put Buddhistic ideals to more productive and viable ends; (3) It is wedded to the ideology of freedom and democracy; (4) It is forward-looking and future-oriented; and (5) It venerates good people and respects the old and the talented.⁵

The implementation of the new National Scheme of Education B.E. 2520 in March of 1977 (see Chart No.3 and No.4) replacing the old Scheme B.E. 2503, has led to several major changes in Thailand's education, particularly in the national schooling system.

The old system, "4-3-3-2(3)", in which students spent four years in lower and three years in upper - elementary education, three years in lower - secondary and two or three years in upper secondary education, is to be replaced with a new one, "6-3-3". Under the new system students spend six years in compulsory primary education, three years in lower - secondary and three years in upper - secondary education. This makes it necessary for the curricula, follow-up and evaluation systems to be changed as well. These changes started from the academic year 1978 and are scheduled to be completed in academic year 1983.

CHART NO.3 : SCHOOL SYSTEM ACCORDING TO NATIONAL SCHEME.

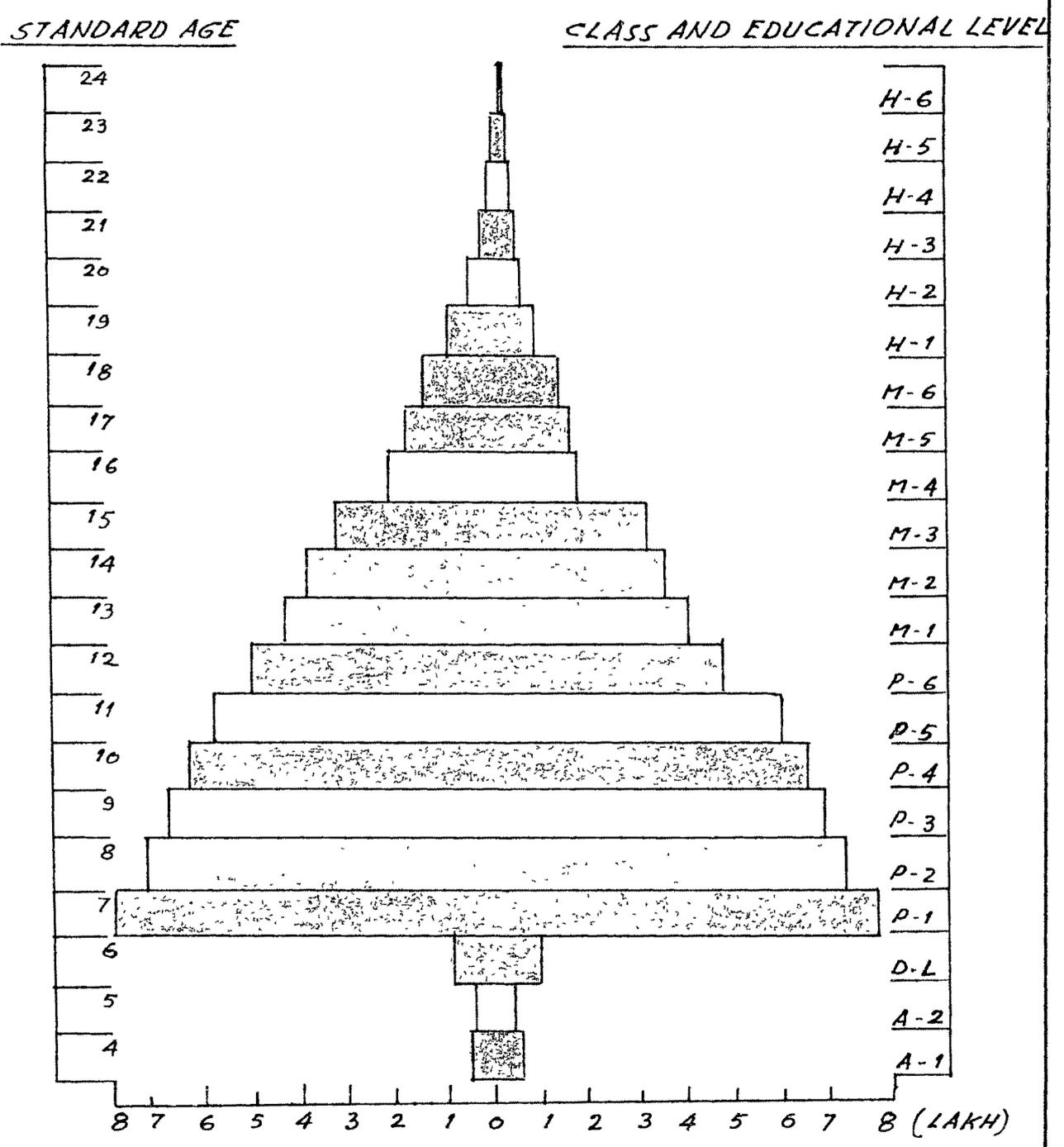
DIAGRAM OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION SCHEME 1977 BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND STREAM.



A factor contributing to the change was that the government was unable to expand seven - year compulsory education to cover all sub-districts. Since 1963 there have been only 3,583 out of the 5,517 Tambons (Taluka) having seven - year compulsory education. Therefore, in order to accelerate the expansion of compulsory education, the primary level has been reduced to six years. With the improvement of curriculum and the increasing number of school days per year, six year primary education should reach higher standards than before.⁶

The old educational system was obsolete in view of technological progress and economic and social changes. There has been a great imbalance in the access of various groups to both compulsory education and education at higher levels as well as between the quality of education available to those coming from well-to-do urban families and those living in poor, remote rural areas. The former system was a restricted one as the ages of students in each school level were fixed. Less opportunity was provided to people who had missed the chance to be admitted into the formal educational system. Formal and non-formal types of education did not complement each other, making it difficult for students who had been educated in one system to pursue higher studies according to their interests and capabilities.

CHART NO.4: THE PYRAMID OF THAI EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM ACADEMIC YEAR(1977-1983)



NOTE A = KINDERGARTEN, D.L. = PRE-PRIMARY
 P = PRATOM, M = MATAYOM, M.S. = MAW SAW,
 H = DEGREE COURSE

Under the previous system, education at each level was not self-terminating. Students were implicitly encouraged to struggle with further studies without considering their personal abilities and needs of the society. The old curricula were hardly in line with local environments. Text-books and teaching methods were imported from abroad inadequately adapted to local conditions, and individual requirements of different regions were not taken into account.

The extension of compulsory education from Prathom 4 to Prathom 7 since 1960 has succeeded in less than 3,000 Tambons or about one-half of all Tambons in Thailand.

The extension would not likely be completed within the next ten years chiefly because of lack of funds. This double system is clearly unfair to those who are under the four-year system. On an average, only about 45% of students who have completed Prathom 4 can continue their studies in Prathom 5. Changing to a new six-year compulsory system will lead to rapid extension and greater number of students spending more time in school, which means that young people will have more equal opportunities to gain in education.

Prathom - Primary School; Prathom 4 or P.4 - Primary Grade 4.
Tambon - Sub-district, many villages are combined.

The extension to Prathom 7 also resulted in two different age groups being put into the same class level, one being children of 8 to 12 years, the other being young teenagers of 13 to 15 years. This is inappropriate as students of different age groups have different interests and require different teaching materials and learning aids. In addition, the old educational system was not related to local needs and requirements of the labour market. Students completed Prathom 4 at the age of 11 but could not yet enter the labour market since the Labour Law requires that those who want to work, must be of at least 12 years old.

Nevertheless, the official reasons given in the Royal Command Promulgation the National Scheme of Education B.E. 2520 were : "Whereas the National Scheme of Education B.E. 2503 (A.D. 1960) and its Amendment B.E. 2520 (A.D. 1977) have not fully achieved their goals in meeting the fundamental needs of Thai society and there is need to assess and improve the National Scheme of Education to make it responsive to the changing needs of the nation and the challenge of modernization, the National Education Council with the approval of the Cabinet has undertaken to formulate a new National Scheme of Education B.E. 2520 as a guideline for implementation of the nation's education programme".

Under the new scheme, education is a life-long process aiming at improving each individual's life situation and

contributing to development to the society. The main goal is to maintain through the education process - safety, security, and above all, happiness in Thai society. The content and learning process at each level, except the pre-school, is to be functional and self-terminating to ensure that school-leavers at each level will be able to earn their livelihood confident of their knowledge and capability.

Pre-school education is aimed at laying a solid foundation for compulsory primary education, which strives to provide and maintain literacy and develop the individual's cognitive ability, numerical manipulation, communication skills, and other abilities for use in future occupations. Primary education requires six continuous years of study.

Secondary education aims to provide appropriate academic and vocational knowledge compatible with the learner's age, needs, interests, skills and aptitudes. It is divided into two sections, lower and upper secondary education, each of which requires three years of study. Extensive elective subjects in the academic and vocational areas are offered in the lower secondary level which learners in the upper level will be guided to concentrate on areas of specialization needed for their chosen career.

Higher education aims at full development of human intellectual abilities to facilitate advancement in

knowledge and technology and produce high-level academic and professional manpower for national development.

There are now approximately eight million students in all the school levels. This means that another 14 million of school-age population do not go to school inspite of the fact that about 20% of the annual national budget is allocated for education. Under the new system, the State will provide and support programmes and activities in non-formal education to provide children with wide opportunities for life-long education. Priorities will be given to those who have missed the opportunity to gain formal education. The disabled and those who are physically or mentally abnormal will also be given the chance to study.

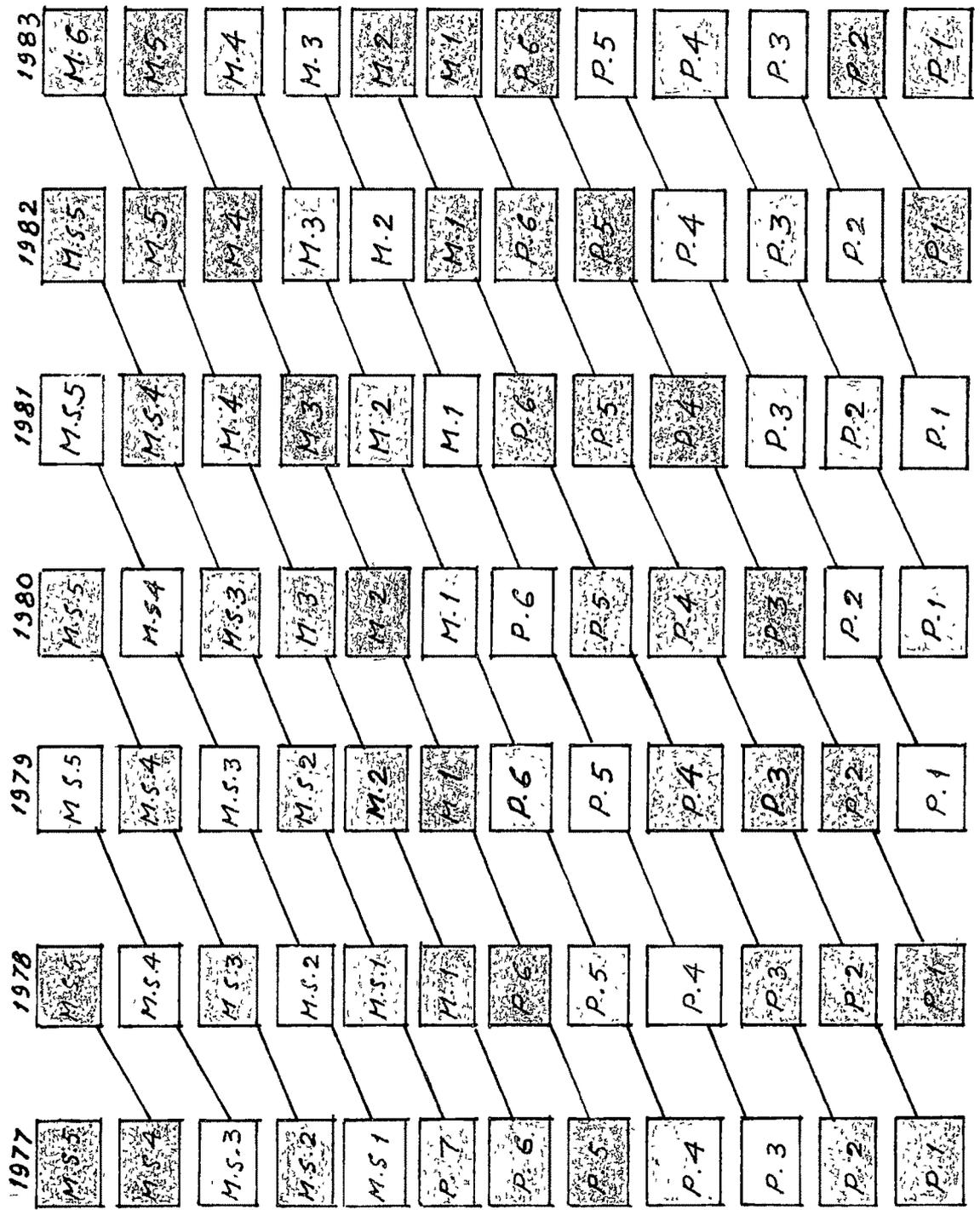
The transformation of the schooling system begins this academic year (A.D. 1977), (see Chart No.5). A new curriculum is being adapted in Prathom 1 which Prathom 7 has been dissolved. Those who finished Prathom 7 last year will continue their studies in the old M.S. 1, while those who finished Prathom 6 will attend M. 1 with a new curriculum. Over the next years, new curricula will be adapted in Prathom 2 and M.2, while M.S.1 will be dissolved. Changes in the curriculum of one class at both levels will take place annually and it will take six years before the transformation is complete.

Matayom - secondary education.

Matayom 1 or M.1 is the first year of secondary education after six years of primary schooling in the new system.

Matayom Siksa or M.S. 1 is the first year of secondary education after seven of primary schooling as in the old system.

CHART NO.5: SHOWING THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE CLASS AND SYLLABUS OF THE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLING SYSTEM IN 1977-83



Under the new system, educational administration will be decentralized. Local authorities will be encouraged to take part in curriculum development and in educational measurement and evaluation according to guidelines set by the State but appropriate to the needs of various localities.

Nevertheless, the State may administer national examinations and evaluation at any level, if necessary or when certain conditions require it so that educational standards may be maintained. Also, the curricula will still be determined mainly by the central authorities, who will also administer examinations for Prathom 6, M.3 and M.6. Students of Prathom 1, 3 and 5 will automatically be promoted to higher classes as examinations will be held only in Prathom 2, 4 and 6. This requires teachers to pay more attention to students' progress to see that they can keep up with the curricula.

To make the learning process at each level more functional and self-terminating, more elective vocational subjects must be made available. This means more teachers and teaching equipment and hence more expenditure. Schools, particularly private ones, will be adversely affected by the higher expenditure. It is feared that many private schools will close after adaption of the new educational system.

The implementation of the new educational system faces many obstacles and difficulties and will require

full co-operation from all parties concerned. Resources from both the public and private sectors must be mobilized. Recipients of all educational facilities and compulsory education must share the expense proportionate to economic and social conditions. The national budget for education, particularly compulsory education and non-formal education, must be sufficiently increased (see table 1.2). Full support must be given to schools run by local authorities and to the private sector at least during this crucial transition period.⁷

Table 1.2 : The Budget of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Interior (for Primary Education) during the year 1977-1981.⁸
(in thousand Bahts)

Year	Ministry of Education			Ministry of Interior		
	Total Expenditure	Investment Budget	Proceeding Budget	Total Expenditure	Investment Budget	Proceeding Budget
1977	274,491	27,500	246,991	8,157,193	2,314,214	5,842,976
1978	248,131	7,250	240,881	8,167,189	2,205,470	5,961,719
1979	227,425	7,575	219,850	8,999,880	2,369,261	6,630,618
1980	267,877	16,157	251,722	11,312,289	3,027,804	8,284,484
1981	430,973	19,458	411,514	15,002,449	2,941,075	12,061,374

Administrative System: For the purpose of administration, the country is divided into nine regions, each consisting of several provinces and being under one Commissioner. Each of the seventy-two provinces is divided into districts, sub-

districts, and villages. The affairs of each administrative unit are taken care of by the headman of the unit who is the representative of the Ministry of Interior. Thus, at the head of province through the provincial council of representatives of various Ministries. At the head of a district is a district officer working under the control and supervision of the Governor of the province, and looking after the affairs of his district through the district council of representatives of various ministries.

At the head of each village is a village headman working under the control and supervision of the district officer and under each village headman is a group of hamlet headman. In the present administrative division, there are altogether 621 districts, 88 sub-districts and 54,405 villages in the whole Kingdom (see table 1.3). The number of districts, sub-districts, and villages varies from province to province. Thus, there is a distribution of power and responsibilities to various sub-divisions which is more or less on a democratic line.

Background of Educational Administration in Thailand

The responsibility for the administration of education in Thailand is divided amongst three government ministries, these are, The Office of the Prime Minister, The Ministry of Education and The Ministry of the Interior (see Chart No.6, No.7 and No.8).

CHART NO. 6: SHOWING THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN THAILAND

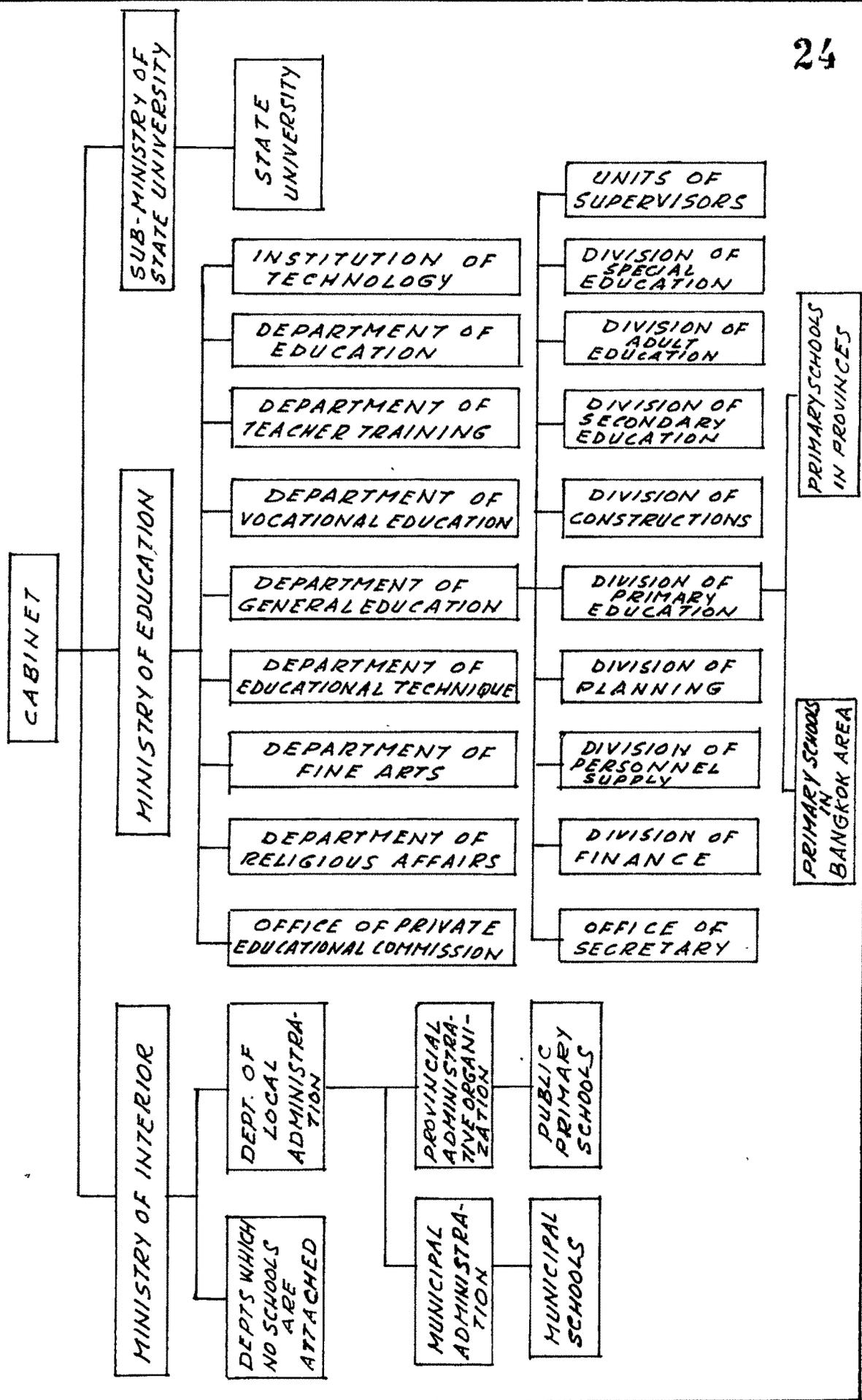


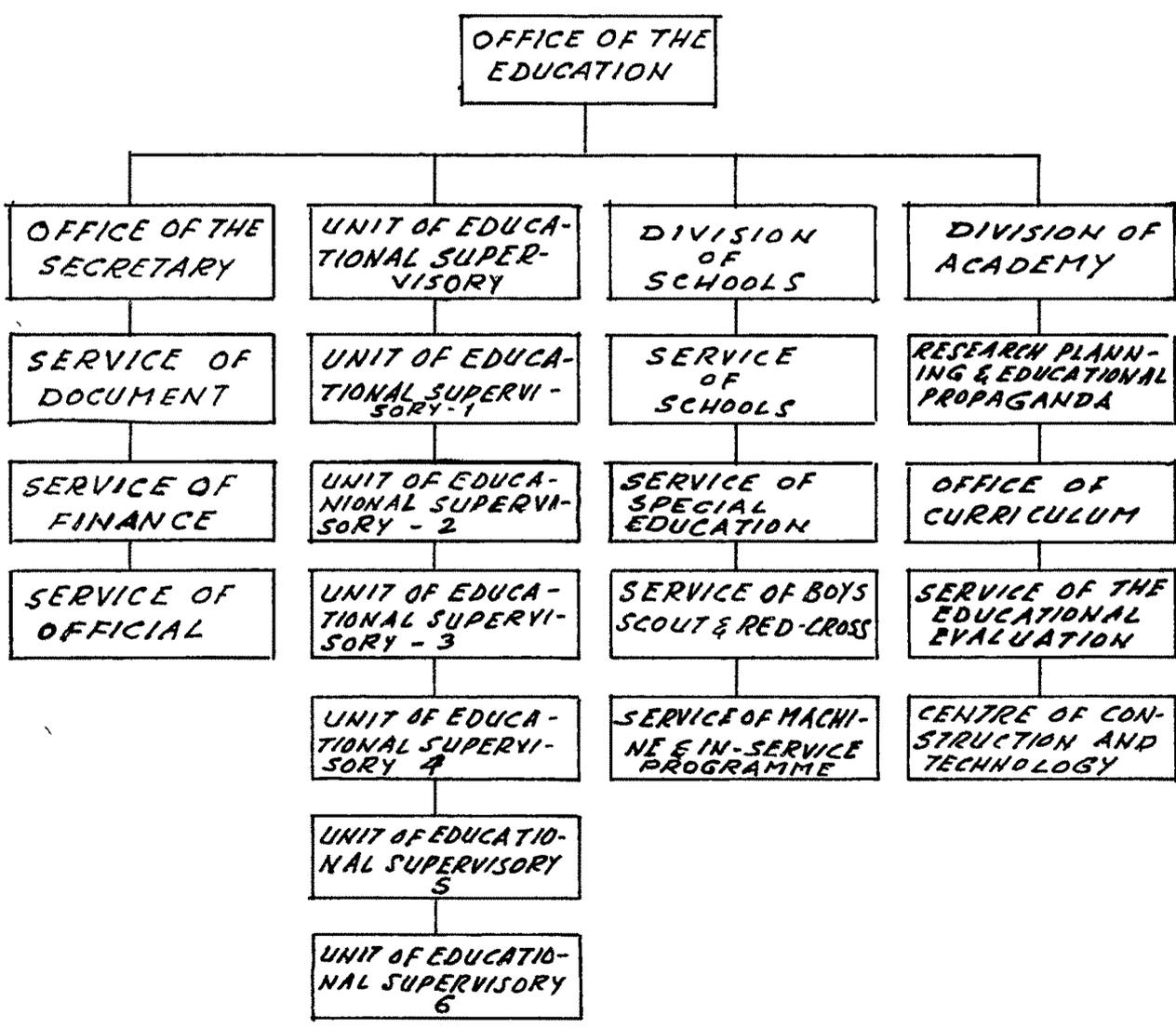
Table 1.3 : The Administrative Region of Thailand 1980-1981⁹

Sr. No.	June 30, 1980							June 30, 1981						
	Region	Province	District	Sub-District	Tambon	Village	Municipal	Sanitary	District	Sub-District	Tambon	Village	Municipal	Sanitary
1	Central	25	184	16	1,891	14,453	48	241	184	17	1,907	14,574	50	244
2	North	17	140	13	1,237	10,779	24	164	140	15	1,269	10,976	25	164
3	North-East	16	194	32	1,865	21,767	21	192	194	39	1,934	22,299	23	193
4	South	14	103	16	937	6,388	25	112	103	17	968	6,556	25	113
	Total	72	621	77	5,930	53,387	118	709	621	88	6,078	54,405	123	714

In general, it can be said that the Office of the Prime Minister is responsible for higher education, and overall financial and staffing aspects of the whole educational system, The Ministry of Education responsibilities centre on secondary level education and pedagogic aspects of the whole system, while the Ministry of the Interior is responsible for elementary education. As there is often some overlapping of authority amongst these ministries, it should be mentioned that as the administration of education in Thailand is shared between three agencies.¹⁰

Previously, primary education was mostly the responsibility of the Department of General Education under the Ministry of Education. The Public Schools and teachers, all were attached to the Department of General Education. Later on, the high ranking government official were of the opinion that the Department of General Education could not organize the primary education to meet the goal qualitatively and quantitatively due to its responsibility for too many pupils and teachers. In addition, the primary education should go along with democratic set-up of the country. Consequently, attempt was made to find out the method to solve the problem, by expansion of administrative authority of the primary education to the local authority. The primary education had been transferred to Provincial Administrative Authority

CHART NO.8: SHOWING THE ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL OFFICE ATTACHED TO BANGKOK METROPOLITAN ADMINISTRATIVE BUREAU (BMAB, THAILAND).



under the Ministry of Interior step by step. In 1963, the authority for most public primary schools in municipal areas was transferred from the Ministry of Education to the municipalities. In 1966, most of the remaining schools under the Ministry of Education were transferred to the provincial administrative authorities. As both the municipalities and the provincial administrative authorities fall under the responsibility of the Department of Local Administration in the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Interior can be considered as being responsible for the most of the public primary education in the country. This transfer and decentralization was undertaken as a means of promoting local interest and initiative for expansion and improvement of primary education throughout the country.¹¹

The Ministry of Education is responsible for all education below the university level save compulsory education. The Acts of 1963 and 1966 charge municipal and Changwad officials, who report to the Ministry of Interior, with responsibility for operating, administering and financing compulsory education. These officials are responsible for all the Kingdom's primary schools, some 26,000 or more. There are, however, some 400 or so non-compulsory primary schools which are still operated, administered, and financed by the Ministry of Education. In time these few schools may become compulsory also and

the responsibility for them will be transferred, too.

Mention was made earlier of the Ministry of Education's responsibility for curriculum of compulsory education. Actually its responsibility is broader than is implied by the word curriculum.

Essentially, in matters concerning compulsory education, the Ministry of Education is charged with control of curriculum and textbooks with evaluation of educational programmes, and with their supervision and improvement. The Ministry is charged with the pre-service preparation of teachers and with certifying them for service in local and municipal schools. It still has responsibility for the inservice training of teachers, though the Teaching Division of the Department of Local Administration in the Ministry of Interior is examining its own role in that regard.

Educational research, experimentation, and demonstration are in the Ministry of Education's domain.

All textbooks are prepared by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education is responsible for coordinating with each Changwad Administrative Authority and with each municipality the integration of educational plans with the plan for economic and social development. Similar coordination is expected in defining and controlling standards for primary education, and for education information to the people.

Thailand is divided into 12 educational regions. The purpose of establishing 12 regional educational divisions in the country, was to adopt education to local needs as well as to geographical occupational and cultural background found in particular regions. The regional education officer is the chief of the regional office whose duty is to advise on educational matters in the provinces included in the region. The regional education officer has his assistants in educational administration and supervision at every level. The main duties of each region are to develop educational responsibilities improve education in the regional areas, provide appropriate channels of control and coordinate the work of the central departments and regional offices. In order to carry out the idea of adapting education to local needs the general curricula prepared by the Ministry of Education have been supplemented by syllabi prepared by the respective regions as particular needs seem to dictate.

There is coordination of effort between the Departments of the Ministry Educational, regional and provincial authorities in the distribution of manuals, pamphlets and teaching materials. Administrators, supervisors and teachers cooperate for the fullest development of the educational programme within the region. Within the provinces, the provincial governor has a controlling influence over all educational officials. His role as governor can be used to great benefit for educational

development at the provincial level.

The Provincial Education Offices are responsible to the Office of Under Secretary of Education. The Provincial Education Officer is appointed by the Under Secretary. It is in this office that local education programmes are administered. It handles personnel matters such as salary, records, employment, arrangements and health services. The financing of the school programme within the province is a major responsibility requiring extensive record keeping, auditing and disbursement of funds. Contracts are drawn and supervised in this office. In addition to the above responsibilities, the Provincial Education Office has a supervisory function of facilities, teaching content and practice in connection with private schools. With regard to the adult education programme, this office provides extensive leadership and administrative service.

The relationship of the regional education office to the Provincial Education Office is that of coordination and communication. The regional office is more closely related to the local projects schools regarding the planning, staff training and programme appraisal.

The District Education Office, which is a subdivision of the provincial structure is responsible for assisting with administrative details individual schools both public and private, gathering statistical data; supervising

instruction; developing teaching materials; assisting with Boy Scout and Red Cross activities; and controlling finances. The District Education Office is responsible to the Provincial Education Offices. The district office has practically no relationship with the Regional Education Office. It receives routine requests and communications from the provincial office in regard to disbursement of funds, personnel matters and other administrative details, but the major responsibility for these matters belongs to the Provincial Education Office.¹²

1.4 THAILAND'S PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Before the advent of the great imperial powers France and Great Britain (A.D. 1824) to this part of the world, a tradition of Thai education had long been established. Such an education had catered for both the masses and the elite. It was based on the Buddhist clergy in provincial and metropolitan monasteries and on the corps of scribes under royal patronage. The general principle was that Thai boys would be sent to be educated at their local monasteries where the monks acted as teachers and the abbots as headmasters. They could learn to read and write and chant the holy prayers and in return, they fetched and carried for their masters the monks. This method of education was not systematic for the monks taught only when they were free and the boys could be taken away by their parents when such needs arose as the planting and the harvesting of rice and when they were old enough to be of use at home. Further

education was obtainable after the age of twenty when most young men were ordained as monks for a certain period. They could then learn to read the Khmer writing used in holy scriptures or apprentice themselves to those monks who were skilled in the arts and crafts. At a higher level, those men who remained in the monastic order studied Pali and the Buddhist scriptures at lesser or greater depth according to whether they resided in remote provincial monasteries or in learned royal metropolitan monasteries. They could become counsellors and teachers of the great ones of the land and, should they decide to leave the order, they could expect royal patronage in the corps of scribes where their learning could be put to use in both the affairs of state and in the instruction of less learned colleagues and subordinates.¹³

Before 1932, many monasteries throughout Thailand ran primary and secondary schools where monks took part in the teaching and administration. The Thai communities benefited greatly from this arrangement which was economical and cultural. The young people of that period benefited by their close association with the monasteries where they also received moral training along with secular training. According to the Thai tradition of Buddhism, a young man should spend a period of his life as monk in one of monasteries. The usual practice is to do so soon after he is 21 years of age. The period is approximately three months during the Buddhist Lent in the rainy season from

June to September. The religious training and study obtained during this period have long-lasting effects on a person's life and his moral convictions. The Thai boys under the age of 21 can also join a monastic order where they become novices and study and practice education under the guidance of the monks. This education was still very strong in Thailand and continues to be so even at the present time.¹⁴

Primary education has been compulsory in Thailand since 1921. Before 1960, it consisted of only 4 years, and all 7 year olds were required to be in school till the end of grade IV, or until the age of 14, whichever come first.

With the promulgation of the New National Scheme of Education in 1960, it was decided that the duration of compulsory education should be extended gradually to seven years depending upon the resources and readiness of each locality until now, because of economic constrains, only 1,245 out of 5,399 Tambons throughout the kingdom have been able to implement seven years' compulsory education.

The lower primary schools consist of grade 1-4 which are compulsory free for all children. Before going to grade 1, some children between the ages of $3\frac{1}{2}$ and $5\frac{1}{2}$ attend two years of kindergarten or a one-year infant class. But these schemes do not cover all children. The government

Tambon - many villages are combined.

has adopted the principle that in each of 71 provinces (A.D. 1977) of the country there should be at least one state-owned kindergarten school to serve as a model for those citizens who may wish to establish kindergartens of their own. In addition, the Ministry of Education encourages the establishment of one year infant classes in public schools under its administration. Since compulsory primary education consumes vast sums of money, the government policy, as stipulated in the National Scheme of Education, encourages the establishment of private primary schools. Approximately 10% of the total enrolment in primary education is in private schools at the present time (see table 1.4). But most of these schools are located in the urban areas.

Table 1.4 : The ratios of the student grade-1 and grade 1-6 to the total population of Thailand in 1970-1981.¹⁵

Year	Grade 1	Grade 1-6	Total Population	% Grade 1 to population	% Grade 1-6 to population
1970	1,492,891	6,480,524	36,032,000	4.14	17.99
1971	1,516,668	6,738,950	37,235,000	4.27	18.10
1972	1,563,596	7,142,688	38,442,000	4.07	18.58
1973	1,574,444	7,588,675	39,649,000	3.97	19.06
1974	1,535,625	7,807,542	41,023,000	3.74	19.03
1975	1,529,839	8,089,802	42,553,000	3.66	19.01
1976	1,540,540	8,358,738	43,126,000	3.57	19.38
1977	1,527,737	8,622,101	44,273,000	3.45	19.47
1978	1,599,250	9,034,022	45,222,000	3.54	19.98
1979	1,501,152	9,558,910	46,114,000	3.26	20.73
1980	1,451,840	9,840,684	46,961,000	3.09	20.96
1981	1,426,164	10,065,882	47,875,000	2.98	21.03

Public primary schools can be classified as follows:

- (1) Municipal schools;
- (2) Government schools which are attached to the Department of General Education;
- (3) Demonstration schools which are attached to Teacher Training Colleges, the College of Education and some Universities; and

(4) Rural schools, the vast majority of which are attached to Changwad Administrative Organizations. About 5% of the rural public primary school are small schools with only one or two teachers, 25% of the rural schools are in temporary building. All public primary schools in Thailand are co-educational.¹⁵

The administrative pattern at the primary school level is like this. In a primary school, there will be usually a head-master, a principal or a director appointed by the Ministry of Education in light of its type, size and qualitative status. The head of a school whatever may be the designation given to him has full authorities and responsibilities prescribed by the government for the conduct and the supervision of the school. To assist him in his heavy tasks, a number of school teachers, clerks, school-workers, and sometimes some supervisors are appointed therein. He is for administrative and academic purposes the leader of the school community. However, he

is closely supervised and guided by the Department of Education concerned in accordance with the rules and regulations and also the policies laid down by the government.

A point that needs to be noted is that the primary school systems of Thailand has been fast expanding and struggling to embrace new directions and dimensions. Unlike many Asian countries, the Government of Thailand has been now attaching considerable importance to the expansion of primary education not only because it perceives such education as a necessary part of general education for those who have to live and work fully in the modern sector of the national economy but also it realises that primary education supplies the intakes needed by higher educational institutions if they are to produce the high and middle level manpower required for the rapid economic and social development which is the dire need of the nation.

A Programme of Life Experiences in Thailand:

Aims of the primary education curriculum.

Thailand underwent a major change in its primary education curriculum in 1978 (B.E. 2521). The change, which involved the whole six years of compulsory education (Prathom 1-6), affected not only the subject matter but also the teaching process.

The three major goals underlying the new primary curriculum are the following :

- (1) Primary education is to be regarded as education for all people. Every child has a right to receive and is entitled to benefit from primary education regardless of his family status or occupation, or the location of his home.
- (2) Primary education is meant to be education for daily life. All knowledge and experience gained at this level of education will be useful in the daily life of all learners.
- (3) Primary education will contribute towards national unity with regional variations. It will serve as a tool for creating national unity in such areas as language, economics, politics and governmental system. Every member of the nation should have the same background and have a common understanding of the administrative system; regions are allowed certain variations relevant to their local problems and needs, however. Such variations can include occupations, cultural traditions, arts and crafts. Each region can develop additional content and teaching materials which may differ from others but will be relevant to its own everyday life.

Areas of experience in the curriculum.

In the past, the primary school curriculum was designed around subject areas such as Thai Languages, Mathematics, Natural Science and Social Studies, but the new primary education curriculum of B.E. 2521 adapts a completely different approach. It takes the learner as its focus, and is arranged into four areas of the child's experience as follows :

Area 1 - Basic Skills. These are Thai Language and Mathematics. This area represents the key subjects which enable the learners to gain more knowledge.

Area 2 - Life Experience. This emphasizes the process of solving social problems. The selected content concerns problems and issues such as health, population, politics, government, society, religion, culture, economics, technology, natural environment and communication.

Area 3 - Character Education. This deals with experiences necessary for the development of good character. It includes moral education, art, music and rhythmic movement, and physical education.

Area 4 - Work Education. This emphasizes basic practical work experiences. It covers household work, handicrafts, wood-working, agriculture and optional topics relevant to local situations and needs.¹⁷

Thus, the primary school system in Thailand has been fast expanding. The Thai community is vitally concerned to use its school system to produce such political leaders that can solidly work for the maintenance of the national freedom and keeping alive the blazing flame of democracy, produce such social thinkers and leaders that can help in achieving and stabilising social and cultural integration and produce such students who are well informed, dependable in character and skills so that they can supply at least middle level manpower, besides, motivating some to go to higher institutions to supply superior manpower needs.

From the foregoing depiction of the background picture of the social, economic and political environment in Thailand, its educational structure and its primary education system, a few facts emerge prominently. There is an emergent trend in the country to build the nation on modern and productive basis, and to that end its educational system is geared. The role of the State is becoming more prominent and effective at school stage. With this, bureaucracy, officialdom, authority-oriented attitude, stiffness and distance characterise the attitude of school administrators who relish in their status and claim their distinctiveness from other members of school faculty in intellectual and academic ability and professional competence. The endeavour of the State is to raise the qualitative standards. To this end severed physical and

training inputs are being ingrained. The public school has become a big enterprise. Individual primary schools have grown in large sized enrolments and staffing of a large number of schools. The emergence of large size school may be the result of American influence. It is more perceptible in urban habitations than in rural ones. It is to be seen how the new currents of growth and development in primary education in Thailand has affected the endemic climate and morale of the schools. This will be the focal points in the present study.

1.5 THE IDEOLOGY OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR PATTERN OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The focal points in the present study being leadership behaviour of the principals of the primary schools, the organizational climate and the staff morale of the latter, an attempt will now be made to describe and discuss their theoretical postulates. The background perspective of Thailand presented in the earlier section is calculated to provide a frame to the treatment of theoretical ideology of these three dimensions of the primary schools of the country. Earlier research in the U.S.A. and in India,¹⁸ particularly, at the M.S. University of Baroda, have shown how these factors are significantly related to the quality and achievement index of schools. Some of these researches will be reviewed in one of the chapters of the present study. Here what will be attempted is bringing out briefly the

theoretical ideas of these dimensions which have not so far been investigated in primary schools of Thailand.

The ideas about leadership behaviour pattern discussed below are in reference to principals of the primary schools as "the chief executive officer of the school faculty..... and not only an office manager but also an educational statesman".¹⁹ Administration of the personnel is also one of the major concerns of the principals, and the effectiveness of his leadership behaviour and the creation of a viable organizational climate in the school depends very largely on how he exercises his leadership functions in relation to the school faculty and other staff.

Leadership is not conceived in this study in terms of personality traits. The Trait-Theory of leadership held in esteem in the nineteen thirties by Ted (1935)²⁰ Bernard (1938)²¹ and others has been discredited. The basic concept of leadership was also explained on the basis of the Type-Approach.²² Here, the behaviour of a leader was classified as dictatorial leader, the autocratic leader, the democratic leader or the laissez-faire leader. This was done on the basis of the characteristics of their behaviour such as centralisation or decentralisation of authority decision-making from top to bottom or from bottom to top channel of communication, etc. It is not intended to use this Type-Approach because the Situational-Approach has

brought out its many limitations.²³ A leader may not always behave or function in any of the four ways referred to above. He may be authoritarian in one situation and be more or less democratic in another situation in relation to other set of persons. While it is true that leadership is a total function of situation, the Behavioural Approach is deemed to be by Andrew Halpin (1952)²⁴ and others to be more meaningful in understanding and interpreting leadership behaviour of school principals. The leadership behaviour can be better understood in terms of the nature of interaction it produces among the school faculty. In school situation, as in many business and industrial organizations, there is a continuous interaction between the behaviour of the group (the school staff) and the leader (the principal). It is true the attitude of the school principal is considerably influenced by factors such as his status as a government officer, his seniority, the influence he commands in the Department of Education, his academic and professional status, the length of his service in the particular school etc. It is these and other determinant factors that have given rise to the Type Theory of Leadership. In the present study, the focus on the leadership behaviour is not how it is created, but what it is in relation to the teachers of the school. This is sought to be done through finding out how the school teachers perceive the leadership behaviour of their principal on two dimensions, namely, Initiating Structure

and Consideration. The investigator has here followed the lead given by Halpin and Croft.²⁵

According to the National Education Association (1960) leadership is that action or behaviour of individuals and groups to move towards educational goals that are mutually acceptable to them. In bureaucratic situations, the goals are externally set and prescribed by official organization. Halpin refers to leadership acts or behaviour instead of leadership as an entity. The two dimensions of leadership behaviour are described by him as under :

"....Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff."

Halpin further clarifies the concept of "Consideration".

He remarks :

"It is important to note this concept of Consideration does not include what can be best described as merely "Spray-gun consideration". The latter behaviour is typed by the PTA smile, and by the oily affability dispensed by administrators at faculty picnics and office parties. Promisuous Consideration defeats its purpose by its very promisevity. Genuine Consideration must be

focused upon the individual recipient and must be tuned to his requirements at a particular time and place."²⁷

Halpin and Winer²⁸ have shown scientifically the way to measure the effectiveness of leadership. Hemphill²⁹ has demonstrated empirically that variance in leader behaviour is significantly associated with situational variance. Its implication is that a school principal in a large sized school tends to be impersonal and is inclined to draw his authority and strength from Departmental orders, school management resolutions and enforce rules and regulations firmly and impartially. In smaller sized school, the principal may find it possible to play a more personal role and influence positively the staff morale.

The concept of leadership behaviour used in the present study may appear to be side-stepping some important variables, as it focuses attention exclusively upon the school principal as the headman or leader as he interacts with his staff within the formal organization of schools. The conceptual framework has excluded the principal's interaction with a few other groups such as pupils, parents, departmental officers, supervisors, community leaders, political pressure groups, and so on. This limitation is accepted because it will take time to develop procedures of measuring the effectiveness of the leadership behaviour of school principles in such multi-media relationships. The two aspects of the leadership behaviour - the Initiating

Structure and Consideration - have been limited to situations of interaction with the teachers of the school only.

However, within this framework the concept of leadership can be to some extent detailed and elaborated. Combination of the two dimensions of leadership behaviour in terms of high or low degree of measure is visualised which would give a quadrant like framework which will show whether a leader stands high both in Initiating Structure and Consideration (the HH pattern), or high in Initiating Structure and low in Consideration (the HL pattern), or low in Initiating Structure and high in Consideration (the LH pattern) or low in both the dimensions (the LL pattern). This is calculated to yield greater insights into the understanding of the leadership behaviour of school principals.

1.6 THE IDEOLOGY OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Another dimension that will be used in the present doctoral research is "Organizational Climate". This term was first coined in 1952,³⁰ was later used more firmly in the winter of 1958-1959 and popularised by Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft³¹ through their research entitled "Organizational Climate of Schools" in 1963. It is called "Organization" perhaps because it can be true of any organization, business, industrial public administration or education.

Considerable literature has grown on "Organization". The term is defined in a number of ways. This plethora of descriptive exercises gives one an impression that it is rather difficult to define an organization precisely. It does denote a formal structure or operational structural form having an hierarchy. But what is more important is the fact which is stated by Mukerji, namely, is that "organizations are created by people in their attempt to bring order in their activities and to achieve their goals and fulfil their needs".³² Thus, an organization has a structural framework emanating from prescribed rules and regulations, the executive or the leader, the group of workers and process of interaction among the leader and the group which seeks to achieve coordination in their activities in the pursuit of a goal set or evolved for the organization.

In this sense, a school is also an organization. In many countries including Thailand, its formal structure is prescribed by the Department of Education of the State through its Code or Act or Regulations. The executive in many cases is the Principal who is in some countries called 'Headmaster' or 'Director'. It has a staff of teachers and also administrative staff. The goals for the school are usually prescribed by the Education Department of the State. A continuous interaction goes on within the school between the Principal and the staff members and also among the staff members. Not that this

is the only interaction process to be found in school. Interaction becomes a many pronged process. For instance, interaction goes on between the school principal and pupils, between him and the pupils' guardians, between him and the local community, between him and the officials of the Education Department. Similarly, interaction process continuous among the school pupils, and pupils with external pressure groups. The resultant effect is climate. It is called 'Organizational Climate' by Andrew Halpin and its base is the interaction or behaviour of school principal and teachers on one hand and interaction among teachers of the school. In this concept, the other focal points of interactions referred to above are not included initially, but they may be included at some later stage of development of this ideology and of the tool constructed to measure it.

Halpin has used only two sets of behaviour, viz., the leader's behaviour and the group's behaviour in his concept of 'Organizational Climate'. The present investigator has added one more cluster. For want of a better phrase, he has tentatively labelled it as 'Institutional Behaviour'. The two sets of interactional behaviour of Halpin include the following four dimensions or components :³³

(a) Teachers' Behaviour

(1) Disengagement

(2) Hindrance

- (3) Esprit
- (4) Intimacy
- (b) Principal's Behaviour
 - (5) Aloofness
 - (6) Production Emphasis
 - (7) Thrust
 - (8) Consideration
- (c) Institutional Behaviour
 - (9) Freedom and Democratization
 - (10) Communication
 - (11) Human Relation
 - (12) Organization Structure

This new set visualises such administrative behaviours which are rather generalised, emanate from the organization and pervade the institution. The investigator has, therefore, preferred to call it "institutional behaviour". This set of behaviour, too, has its focal point in the school principal's behaviour. In the four dimensions included in the second set, the focal point is the principal's behaviour as an academic leader whereas in this new set of behaviour, his leadership behaviour is more administrative rather than academic.

The ideas involved in these 12 dimensions which in their totality of the resultant behaviour creates "Organizational Climate" of schools are briefly elaborated below.

The first eight dimensions are elaborated by Halpin himself in his "Theory and Research in Administration". They are quoted below :³⁴

Teachers' Behaviour

1. Disengagement refers to the teachers' tendency "not with it". This dimension describes a group which is "going through the motions", a group that is "not in gear" with respect to the task at hand. It corresponds to the more general concept of anomie as first described by Durkheim.³⁵ In short, this subtest focuses upon the teachers' behaviour in a task-oriented situation.

2. Hindrance refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements which the teachers construe as unnecessary "busy work". The teachers perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.

3. Esprit refers to morale. The teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied, and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their job.

4. Intimacy refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.



Principal's Behaviour

5. Aloofness refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized as formal and impersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behaviour, in brief, is universalistic rather than particularistic; nomothetic rather than ideosyncratic. To maintain this style, he keeps himself - at least, "emotionally" - at a distance from his staff.

6. Production Emphasis refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and plays the role of a "straw boss". His communication tends to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

7. Thrust refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by his evident effort in trying to "move the organization". Thrust behaviour is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers to give off himself, his behaviour, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed of favourably by the teachers.

8. Consideration refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers "humanly", to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms.

The four new dimensions added by the investigator are elaborated as under :

9. Freedom and Democratization refers to the behaviour of the school principal as an administrator which is characterised by a willingness to devolve authority and provide experiences in hierarchy, sharing in decision-making to both senior and junior staff, an attitude to recognise merit irrespective of rank and hierarchy and a tendency to give freedom to the staff to conceive and try out new ideas, undertake experiments and projects and express freely without fear or difference in staff meetings, etc.

10. Communication refers to the administrative mode or process by which information, direction, ideas, explanations and questions are transmitted from person (principal or his administrative office) to teachers communication may be upward (the teachers to the principal), horizontal (among teachers by teachers themselves) and/or downward (from the principal, the office superintendent and senior teachers to junior teachers). The media of communication may be many and varied. The teachers may perceive the communication being adequate, satisfying, effective or otherwise, depending upon the feedback that is sought from them.

11. Human Relation goes somewhat beyond "Consideration" described in dimension eight. It does refer to the quality

of "personal" relations of the school principal with the staff individually and collectively and among the teachers themselves. It means that the self-conscious personality of teachers - their individuality and self respect is to be translated into action by the administrator. It implies recognition of their merits, guarantee of their security of service, creation for them good conditions of work, scope for their adventurousness, a natural flow for affection and love for them and acceptance of them as human beings rather than cogs in a machine, with their individual strengths and weaknesses.

12. Organization Structure refers to the tendency to make infra-structure rigid, bureaucratic, leaning largely on line - and - staff relations and status emanating from seniority. It is presumed that all good "ideas" - knowledge ability, competence, ability flow from those who stand high in the hierarchy. In short, this dimension focuses on the administrator's behaviour to run the organization on lines consistent with the bureaucratic and mechanistic behaviour often associated with the officialdom of the Education Department.

The resultant cumulative effect of the interaction of all these twelve factors is conceptualised as creating "organizational climate of schools". This climate is never the same for all schools. Different schools have different types of climate depending upon how the twelve

dimensions interact with one another and in that process weave the fabric of what is called "Organizational Climate" by Halpin and "Institutional Climate" by some in India. The following excerpt from Halpin's "Theory and Research in Administration" can be quoted³⁶ to conclude this conceptual discussion on 'Organizational Climate' because it lends further clarity to this new ideology.

"Anyone who visits more than a few schools notes quickly how schools differ from each other in their "feel". In one school the teachers and the principal are zestful and exude confidence in what they are doing. They find pleasure in working with each other; this pleasure is transmitted to the students, who thus are given at least a fighting chance to discover that school can be a happy experience. In a second school the brooding discontent of the teachers is palpable; the principal tries to hide his incompetence and his lack of sense of direction behind a cloak of authority, and yet he wears this cloak poorly because the attitude he displays to others vacillates randomly between the obsequious and the officious. And the psychological sickness of such a faculty skills over on the students who, in their own frustration, feedback to the teachers a mood of despair. A third school is marked by neither joy nor despair, but by hollow ritual. Here one gets the feeling of watching on elaborate charade in which teachers, principal and students alike are acting out parts. The acting is smooth, even glib, but it appears to have little meaning for the participants; in a strong way the show just does not seem to be

"for real". And so, too, as one moves to other schools, one finds that each appears to have a "personality" of its own. It is this "personality" that we describe here as the "Organizational Climate" of the school. Analogously, personality is to the individual what Organizational Climate is to the organization."

1.7 THE IDEOLOGY OF TEACHER MORALE

One of the dimensions of the organizational climate described in the previous section was 'Esprit'. It denoted 'morale'. The dictionary meaning of morale³⁷ is also illuminating for the present study and reflects the ideology uphold by the investigator. Morale is defined as "prevailing mood and spirit to willing and dependable performance". It is the general enthusiasm of a group - its esprit de corps. It is the combination of attitudes toward job, colleagues and immediate superior. It denotes both the satisfaction of individual teachers from the total job situation and also denotes the mental hygiene of the group as a whole. It denotes the "we feeling" or 'cohesiveness of a group'. Morale, thus, constitutes a source of inner strength for an individual or a group to be, to use Stanley Hall's words "fit for any task". Further, it is 'morale' that holds teachers together as a team in the school. One of its manifestations is teachers' satisfaction.

Morale is a global term, but a number of factors interact among one another to produce morale. In school situation some of the constituents of morale identified by B.N. Patel³⁸ are as under : (1) teacher rapport with the principal; (2) rapport among the teachers; (3) teachers' satisfaction with the assignment in teaching; (4) their feeling of economic security; (5) their conditions of work within the school or school system; (6) their teaching load; (7) their involvement in the deliberations of school programme, its needs and problems that take place in its committees; (8) recognition and appreciation of the merits of their work in the school; (9) their confidence in and respect for their administrator (i.e. principal, school committee, etc.); (10) the relations of the school with the local community; and (11) position teacher-student relations. These factors give a fairly comprehensive picture of the contributive forces that build up morale of the school teachers.

But these constituent factors of morale are perceived and emphasised by different psychologists, and investigators who construct tool to measure morale in a different way. One such instance was already referred to above. The second example is the used in the present study.

Bentley and Rempel developed in 1970 Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire to measure teacher Morale.³⁹ They have based their concept of teacher morale on ten factors which are

as under : (1) Teacher rapport with the principal, (2) Satisfaction with teaching, (3) rapport among teachers, (4) teacher salary, (5) teacher load; (6) curriculum issues, (7) teacher status, (8) community support of education, (9) school facilities and services, and (10) community pressures.

The first factor or constituent of teacher moral denotes the feelings the teachers entertain for their principal and the degree of identification they have with him. This factor also denotes their extent of faith in his professional competency, his interest in the staff members and their work, it also signifies teachers' confidence in his ability to communicate and their attitude to his human relations.

The second factor denotes teacher relationship with students and their feelings of satisfaction with teaching.

The third factor focuses on teachers' relationship with other teachers on the staff, that is, their colleagues. It includes ideas of teachers' cooperation, preparation, ethics, influence, interests and their faith and feeling for their competence.

The fourth factor pertains to teachers' feelings of satisfaction about the salary they get on the basis of their experience, qualifications and the quality of work they do in their school.

The fifth factor relates to teacher load which includes hours of class teaching, filling out school records, pupils' progress cards, clerical work, extra-curricular load and also participation in inservice teacher training.

The sixth factor deals with matters relating to curricular work and issues. It pertains matters such as their reactions about the adequacy of the teaching programme prescribed for each grade by the Education Department in meeting the needs of the students and of the society.

The seventh factor seeks to sample teachers' natural and understandable feelings about their status in the society, the prestige that they command, and benefits offered by teaching.

The eighth factor, one may get some ideas about the extent to which the local community understands and is willing to support a good school programme.

The ninth factor relates to facilities in the school in which the teachers work, the equipments the school has the conditions of work they provide and the services that they render.

The tenth and the last factor deals with community pressures. They become particular felt when the local

community takes interests in the school and how and what the teachers teach and the voice they command in the decision-making taking place in the school.

The concept of the morale that is used in the current study is based on these factors. The factors make the concept of teacher morale comprehensive and quite adequate in as much the forces that supply texture and weave the intricate fabric of the teacher morale in school situation.

1.8 CONCLUSION

This introductory chapter has served two purpose. Firstly, it has given a brief background of Thailand - its people, society, economy, political moorings, administrative outlines, the educational system and the primary school. This was deemed necessary to give a perspective for the study which is cast in Thailand. Secondly, it has briefly presented the theoretical foundations of the main theme of the study. This has yielded conceptualisation of the three main components of the theme, namely, the leadership behaviour, the organizational climate and the teacher morale. The brief write-ups on these three facets provide, in a way, a theoretical frame of reference in as much as the tools used to identify the leadership behaviour patterns of the principals of the sampled primary schools of Thailand (Bangkok city) are based on these ideologies.

The next Chapter will be devoted to reviewing the selected researches in these three spheres in terms of ideas, processes, tools, issues and problems involved therein.

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