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LEARNING FOR LEADERSHIP IN THAI HIGHER EDUCATION:
CAREER PATHS OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS

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**LEARNING FOR LEADERSHIP IN THAI HIGHER EDUCATION:
CAREER PATHS OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS**

VOLUME I

By

Porntip Chaichanapanich

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ABSTRACT
LEARNING FOR LEADERSHIP IN THAI HIGHER EDUCATION:
CAREER PATHS OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS

By
Porn-tip Chaichanapanich

Literature that deals specifically with Thai university presidents' leadership is still absent in Western literature and is very scarce in Thai sources. By not knowing who these presidents are and how they think, an attempt to understand Thai higher education may be fraught with shortcomings.

In this qualitative study, the researcher traced the educational and professional lives of thirteen Thai public university presidents from the age of 18 years up to the time while they were in their presidencies. The researcher explored three significant questions about their professional lives: 1) How did they prepare themselves (in terms of their leadership learning) to become university presidents? 2) What career paths did they follow to achieve their presidencies? and 3) What did presidential leadership really mean to them once they became university presidents? The conceptual framework, combining leadership theories with the studies of higher education, shaped this study's methodology. Data from professional vitae and from semi-structured interviews were analyzed. Cross-case analysis using variable-oriented strategies were used. Through this method, the study compared and contrasted across cases in

order to understand the overall picture of leadership learning experiences and the meaning(s) of presidential leadership as shared and not shared by the presidents.

The results of the study showed that most Thai public university presidents were academic. Their career paths appeared to follow Cohen and March's (1974) "logic of hierarchy," or promotion through the administrative structure of the institution: faculty, department chair, dean, vice-president, and president. Their learning of leadership appeared to be quite similar. They learned mostly from being active in extra-curricular activities as college students. They learned from different people who played important roles in their lives and from a variety of work experiences that allowed them to practice leadership in a variety of settings. The presidents' description of presidential leadership appeared to be similar somewhat to those of American college presidents because Thai higher education followed the Western system. However, Thai college presidential leadership was also influenced by Thai governmental rules and regulations, the Thai culture, and Buddhist philosophies. The study concluded that the serious lack of support for leadership development programs for academic administrators in Thai higher education was an important issue that needed immediate attention.

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I dedicate this book to my mother, Ms. Sriwan Chaichanapanich, a true feminist at heart who believes in education for girls and women.

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Chapter 1

OVERVIEW OF STUDY

Introduction

...leadership is too often seen as one of two polarities: as unproblematic ("you too can be a leader") or as unreachable ("the bornleader" or "the charismatic leader"). Instead, we need to begin to think of leadership as a subject that can be mastered and a role that can be achieved, should one be willing to invest heavily in such enterprise.

Howard Gardner, 1995, p. 304.

Presidents are critical to the success of Thai public universities, both on individual campuses and nationally; they are at the center of what Thailand's higher education is all about.

Most Thai presidents took up their posts with some prior knowledge about academic leadership they had collected through years of working experience, mostly within academic organizations. Though experienced as academic administrators in different positions, many of these presidents, however, still found that presidential leadership was something that required attentive learning on their parts. Though they may have learned specific skills in other positions along career paths that preceded their current positions, not all of them were prepared to effectively take on the challenges the position demands.

Chibucos and Green (1989) believe many formal academic training programs exist for academic leaders in the United States and many were designed to respond to "the atmosphere of unlimited growth and possibility" (p. 21). These are fellowship programs, seminars, and other workshops for leaders of American higher education. However, this is not the case in Thailand. Unlike the United States, there are no such programs that train college presidents in Thailand. The lack of such programs leaves the challenge of presidential leadership learning to be the job of individual learners.

An absence of studies about Thai college presidents means we know little about how these people prepare themselves to become leaders when training and support are not present. Once they arrive at the presidencies, what other barriers do they face as they experience the reality of a Thai college presidential leadership?

Statement of the Problem

Literature that deals specifically with Thai university presidents' leadership is still absent in Western sources and is very scarce in Thai sources. Most Thai literature found in Thailand was written in the form of short biographies of individual university presidents with limited analysis. While each biography told the story of each leader's life, most often about their personal and career accomplishments, none really touched on the story of each subject's leadership. Direct studies that served as collections of many Thai university presidents' life stories and their leadership learning as they appeared in this study were absent.

Up to the present, those who are interested in the issues of Thai college presidents and/or Thai college presidential leadership have to turn to Western studies as the main source to help explain the phenomenon. The situation is intensified when most Thai sources on leadership in higher education available in local libraries in Thailand are also products of adaptation or translation from Western theories. The lack of literature in these areas has created an unfortunate loss of knowledge for those concerned with Thai higher education. The experiences of many great leaders in Thai higher education are left untold; the lessons to be gleaned from their lives remain unshared. Many questions concerning their journeys to become college presidents and their experiences as presidents are left unanswered. What careers paths did they follow? How did they prepare and learn to become the chief executive of their institutions? What did it really mean to them once they became one?

By not knowing who these presidents are and how they think, an attempt to understand Thai higher education may be fraught with shortcomings. When we know very little about the presidents, we have no way of understanding why our colleges are run in specific ways. Thus, the collection of life stories that focus on the professional experiences of Thai public university presidents is a necessity because it allows us to learn not only about these leaders, but also about leadership as seen through their eyes. This missing piece of information must represent words of Thai college presidents themselves.

To study college presidencies, Vaughan (1986) once said one must start with "a closer examination of the individuals who occupy

the positions" (p.9). As the researcher in this study, I did just that. This study intends to start a discussion not only among Western academics interested in leadership and international comparative studies but especially among Thai scholars who wish to study leadership. As far as I know, this study is the first qualitative research that traces the educational and professional lives of a group of Thai public university presidents from the age of 18 up to the present. The study focuses on their journeys to become presidents, especially their leadership learning. It also examines their interpretations of presidential leadership experiences.

At the present time, a large body of literature in the Western world emphasizes leadership learning when individuals are already college presidents. In this study I intended to provide new source about this area. I devoted much of my attention to the leadership learning that occurred while these presidents moved up their career ladders to become presidents, rather than concentrate on learning that took place while my subjects were already university presidents. I believe the study of leadership learning that occurred before the individuals became presidents deserves equal attention for a number of reasons:

First, by ignoring individuals' prior learning, several false assumptions may be made: presidential leadership learning takes place exclusively after the person becomes a president. I believe that an individual not only learns to be a leader by being one, but also learns as a team member and/or subordinate observing other leaders in action. In this manner, leadership is acquired from the perspective of a subordinate and/or a team member.

Second, by ignoring an individual's learning during her/his collegiate years and prior work experiences, one may assume that leadership learning is not a continuous process.

Finally, by de-emphasizing leadership learning that occurs before individuals become university presidents, we may come to believe that the college presidential leadership is mysterious and one gains this college presidential leadership knowledge only after becoming a college president. Presidential leadership viewed from this perspective is likely to reinforce the problematic belief that leadership is something that will either occur naturally or will be inculcated incidentally (Gardner, 1995, p. 304).

The study of the presidents' leadership learning during the collegiate years is crucial because it deals with the learning that occurs in formal settings (colleges and universities) as the individuals are maturing. This type of study not only reveals what students gained from their Thai, Western and/ or other college experiences but what such learning offered (at that particular time) to the individual's growth as a future leader.

The study of leadership learning during different careers prior to a college presidency is essential because it refers to the learning that occurs as adults move up a career ladder. By studying leadership learning during those careers that led to a university presidency, we will be able to describe the relationship between motivation and adult learning. Most importantly, we will be able to determine why college teaching and academic administrative experiences are still important credentials for prospective Thai college presidents. While most colleges and universities seek

presidential candidates with a specific number of years of experience in teaching and academic administration, they must also be able to explain how each of these experiences helped candidates become better college presidents.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative study is to trace the educational and professional lives of thirteen Thai public university presidents from the age of eighteen to the present while they are in their presidencies. The study explores three significant questions about their professional lives: 1) How did they prepare themselves (in terms of their leadership learning) to be university presidents?, 2) What career paths did they follow to achieve the presidency? and 3) What did presidential leadership really mean to them once they became university presidents?

The intent of this study is to shed light upon the perceptions surrounding college presidential career paths, the leadership learning process, and the meaning(s) of university presidential leadership as experienced by Thailand's public university chief executives. This study identifies patterns of response to leadership learning experiences during the presidents' college years and during their careers and describes key elements in the journeys to become university presidents, especially the career ladders they climbed. It also identifies some patterns of response as the presidents described what it meant to be a president of Thai public universities. It is hoped that from the rich and detailed description of the university presidents' leadership learning and their description of their work as

university presidents, some patterns will emerge to help formulate tentative questions and recommendations for further research.

This study offers several unique characteristics. First, it traces the professional histories (both the educational and working experiences) of Thai public university presidents told in their own words. Interview questions helped the presidents reflect on their career paths and other important factors that contributed to their achieving a university presidency. As the presidents talked extensively about their leadership learning within their paths to university presidencies, the study also reached further into their thinking about presidential leadership as they were experiencing it at the time of the interview. This study covers the meaning(s) of Thai public university presidential leadership derived directly from the presidents' own words as they talked about their universities as organizations and their roles as leaders in them.

Second, rather than focusing solely on the product, which is "leadership," this study also emphasized the process of "learning." In other words, I was interested in not only what leadership knowledge and skills Thai university presidents were required to have, but how they learned to develop their knowledge and skills through formal and informal learning over an average of thirty years. It is believed that college training and learning during the career paths leading to a university presidency play influential roles in shaping the minds and beliefs of these future leaders. Thus, by examining leadership learning during these crucial years, we may be able to better explain why Thai universities today are run the way they are. This study helped me understand what university presidents learned prior to

becoming presidents, how they learned it and in what environment they learned best. By placing an emphasis on learning, I hope that my readers will be able to form new ways to conceptualize governance and leadership in higher education, which will result in new solutions to the art of administration.

Third, this study also traces the history of leadership learning experiences at the time these individuals moved along their career paths. This study offers an in-depth look at changes in individuals' leadership learning as time, responsibilities, context, and other factors changed. I hope that this study will help form new understanding about leadership learning, which is in itself a continuing process.

Fourth, rather than representing leadership within college and university presidencies as something mysterious, unproblematic or unreachable, this study intends to show that university presidential leadership is a "subject" and a "role" that individuals, including less-privileged groups (in Thai society this refers to women), can master and achieve through years of hard work and training.

Finally, this study uses qualitative methodology to gain data that focus on the meaning and interpretations university presidents make of their leadership, leadership learning and about their lives at Thai educational institutions. Qualitative study has many benefits, which will be reviewed in the methodology section.

Research Questions

Again, the purpose of this study is threefold: 1) to identify the characteristics and career paths of Thai public university presidents;

2) to describe how these presidents prepare themselves (in terms of their leadership learning) to achieve university presidencies; and 3) to explore the individuals' interpretations of college presidential leadership that they experienced once they became college presidents

The study addressed the following designed grand tour questions and related subquestions:

- I. How did Thai public university presidents prepare themselves to be presidents in terms of educational background, career paths followed, and continuous leadership learning?
 1. What are the shared characteristics and educational backgrounds of these presidents?
 2. What are their career paths?
 3. What kind of formal and informal learning did Thai public university presidents have during their college years and what is the role of college education in helping to prepare these public university presidents for future leadership responsibilities?
 4. What kind of informal, on-the-job training experiences did Thai public university presidents have during their careers prior to becoming presidents? What was the role of on-the-job training experience during an individual's career in helping him/her prepare to become a public university president and the job tasks associated with such a role?
 5. Who were the most influential people in these university presidents' learning of leadership and the work of college

president? How did these mentor(s) help these leaders learn?

6. What learning experiences did university presidents identify as most crucial to their current success? Why?
7. What do they think was involved in their achievement for a presidential position?

II. How did these public university presidents talk about the meaning(s) of presidential leadership and their work as chief executives and leaders of their institutions?

1. How did they describe the term "leadership"?
2. How did they describe what it means to be the leader of a Thai public university?
3. How did they talk about the work of university presidents? How did they view their institutions as an organization and their roles as leaders in them?
4. What do they consider most rewarding and most frustrating about their jobs as university presidents?
5. How did they evaluate their leadership?
6. What did they think were the best ways to prepare future university presidents? and
7. What are the important adult learning lessons that the presidents wanted to pass on to their successors?

Importance of the Study

The research findings will facilitate acquisition of the following:

1. Answers to the research questions will help us understand the characteristics, educational backgrounds and career paths of Thai university presidents and expand our knowledge of the individuals who serve as university presidents in Thai institutions of higher education.
2. New questions regarding leadership learning will be defined as a result of this study.
3. The Thai Ministry of University Affairs officers who are responsible for the curriculum, personnel and budget allocations at the time of the study may use the results of this study to help define policy planning. They will be able to answer questions, such as what is the role of the Ministry of University Affairs in promoting leadership learning? Which features of the current systems work well and which do not? What are the implications of promoting more women to become college presidents? What is the role of the state in helping leadership development programs for college presidents?
4. Scholars in comparative studies may use this study to create comparisons between Thailand and other countries in the area of higher education leadership.
5. Western consultants currently working with the Thai Ministry of University Affairs on issues related to Thai higher education may find the results of this study a valuable resource to help them better understand the background of Thai academic organizations, their leadership, and the contexts.

6. Future Thai leaders could use the results of the study as a means to set career goals to become better prepared as potential chief executive officers. These individuals would gain a better idea and understanding of what they need to learn and how best to learn them, as well as identify their current strengths to help them become university presidents.

Current and future female administrators who aspire to become college presidents will find the information in this study useful in helping them set their career aspirations and ways to achieve them.

7. Thai college faculty who are currently responsible for teaching and training future college administrators may use the results of this study to enrich their conversations about presidential leadership in higher education, especially the role of leadership learning during the college years and career experiences. The study could be used as a reading in classes, such as "Leadership in Higher Education."

8. Those who are interested in the issue of the values of college education will find some part of this work useful, especially the part that deals with the leaders' reflections on their leadership learning during their college years.

9. The results of this study would be useful for individuals in leadership development within academic organizations. The study helps identify what is currently lacking, what is needed, and how to go about in developing programs deemed suitable for helping Thai future leaders learn.

10. University presidents who participated in this study will find the interview process beneficial to their own learning because it stimulates self-reflection about their roles. The reflection process allows presidents to reassess their development and to strategize new professional goals.

11. The qualitative interview method used in the study offers a challenge for the researcher. The experiences from conducting this study will add to the field of research methodology, answering questions such as what happens when an interview is conducted in one language, but the analysis is completed in another? How much of the language barrier will be involved in attempting to translate across cultures?

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined in the context in which they were used in this study:

Thai public university president The chief executive and operative officer of a four-year governmental institution of higher education. The person was appointed by the governing body to represent it in its day-to-day operation. The president, as chief administrator, operates the university according to the policies laid down by the University Council. In this study, the term chief executive officer is used interchangeably with university president.

Thai public university Four-year institutions of higher learning under the supervision of the Ministry of University Affairs. Each public university has its own Act that empowers the university council to function as its governing board.

Thai state university outside the civil service under the supervision of the government

Thai public universities that "operate independently from the government bureaucracy with its own autonomous administration system and with government financial support in the form of block grants" (document of Ministry of University Affairs, Thailand, 1995, p.9). At the present time, there are only two institutions operating under this agreement.

Thai Ministry of University Affairs The governmental office whose major role is to supervise and coordinate Thailand's public and private institutions of higher learning. The ministry is responsible for the formulation of educational policy guided by the national education development plan. Other responsibilities also include standardization of curriculum, personnel management and providing recommendations for budget allocations.

Leadership The term leadership has been defined in many different ways. However, the ones defined by Bolman and Deal (199..) and Gardner (1995) are believed to be the best, because they are not too broad or too narrow. The researcher believes they fit best with this study.

Leadership, according to Bolman and Deal, means

a relationship between leaders and their constituents. It is a subtle process of mutual influence that fuses thought, feeling, and action to produce collective effort in the service of the purposes and values of both the leader and the led (p. 410).

For Gardner (1995), who studied leadership from the perspective of a cognitive psychologist, leaders are:

persons who, by word and/or personal example, markedly influence the behaviors, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings (here termed followers or audience members). The leaders' voices affected their worlds, and, ultimately, our world (p. 6).

And he views "leadership" as:

a cognitive enterprise, as a process occurring and recurring with--and between--the minds of leaders and followers."... a process that entails the capacities to create stories, to understand and evaluate these stories, and to appreciate the struggle among stories. Ultimately, certain kinds of stories will typically become predominant--in particular, stories that provide an adequate and timely sense of identity for individuals who live within a community or institution (p. 17).

Academic leadership

Traditional management theories that work well in explaining leadership in Business firms have limited applications to colleges and universities. This is due to the fact that colleges and universities differ from business firms in several ways. Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley (1978) note "the organizational characteristics of academic institutions are so different from other institutions that traditional management theories do not apply to them. Their goals are more ambiguous and diverse. They serve clients instead of processing materials. Their key employees are highly professionalized. They have unclear technologies based more on professional skills than on standard operating procedures. They have 'fluid participation' with amateur decision makers who wander in and out of the decision process" (p. 9 cited in Birnbaum, 1988, p. 28).

Since traditional management theories are not applicable (most of the time) in higher education, scholars in higher education suggest that we use other conceptual frameworks to describe academic leadership.

Leadership in academic organizations can be understood as taking different forms depending on how leaders look at their institutions. A university can be viewed as a bureaucracy, a collegium, a political system, or an organized anarchy. When the university is seen as a bureaucracy, leader's roles are to make decisions, get results, and establish management system. When the university is viewed as a collegium, leadership is defined as participative. The leader's focus is on striving to meet the needs of constituents and helping them realize their aspirations. In addition, it also emphasizes the leader's ability to manage processes of consultation and on interpersonal skills. When one looks at the university as a political system, leadership involves an ability to influence others through persuasion and diplomacy. The leader needs to be open and communicative. S/he performs a role as a mediator or negotiator between shifting power blocs. In the university organized anarchy, existing organizational structures and processes constrain leaders. Leaders "may make modest improvements through subtle actions and the manipulation of symbols" (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, pp. 66-67).

College presidential leadership College presidential leadership depends much on the presidents' own understanding of their institutions as organizations.

Presidents of universities are called upon in many situations to function simultaneously as chief administrative officer, as colleague, as symbol, and as public official. Each role may require different behaviors. Presidential leadership refers to one's ability to develop "complex behavioral repertoires enabling them to balance these roles." It is recommended that university presidents acquaint themselves with various theories of leadership and conceptual models of organizations so that they will be able to "generate multiple descriptions of situations and multiple approaches to solutions" (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, pp. 72-73).

Leadership and Position attainment

In the Thai context, especially in governmental agencies such as schools and universities, leadership and position attainment are closely tied. The position is synonymous with leadership. The higher the position a person obtains, the higher the expectations for leadership would be given to him or her. The higher position a person sits in, the higher quality of leadership others believe this individual has. Position and leadership seem to be nearly interchangeable.

Leadership, in the Thai context, does not yet extend to those of lower ranks. The term leadership most of the time is used to describe an individual holding a position. As a result, it is assumed that only superiors may lead. Leadership and position attainment are closely tied in the Thai university context because of the Thai civil service system award promotion by civil ranks. A higher civil rank identifies an individual as having the ability to take command

of those with lower ranks. Taking command most of the time is still believed to be one of the main jobs that a leader completes.

Though Western theory says clearly that a person can be a leader without holding a position and many Thais believe this, we often hear the term leadership is used to describe an individual holding a position rather than someone without a position. Leadership and its elements are seen as prestigious phenomena that seem to automatically come with a position. In the West we often hear a call for leadership from all individuals who make up organizations. Criticisms, such as "this executive lacks leadership quality" are found everywhere. This is not the case within the Thai context. Most Thai people normally equate a position as leadership and comments such those would make no sense to them.

Career path A person's work life progress that moves ones from one position to another

Profession Clark (1963) defines profession as "a specialized competence with a high degree of intellectual content, a specialty heavily based on or involved with knowledge. Specialized competence based on involvement in knowledge is the hallmark of the modern professor. He is preeminently an expert. Having special knowledge at this command, the professional worker needs and seeks a large degree of autonomy from lay control and normal organizational control" (p. 452 cited in Peterson et al., 1991).

Mentor relationship "Any long-term, professionally-centered relationship with a more experienced individual who may

have guided, advised and assisted (ones) in the early stages of their careers" (Moore, 1983, p. 18).

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized into eight chapters. Chapter 1 familiarizes the readers with the major points of emphasis for this study. It includes the statement of the problem, the purpose and focus of the study, research questions, a statement of importance, and definitions of key terms.

Chapter 2 provides an account of the history and governance of Thai higher education. Presidential qualification and selection models are also included.

Chapter 3 contains a review of related literature about leadership, American college presidential career paths, and leadership learning of college and university presidents

Chapter 4 includes details of conceptual framework, the research design, methodology, population, methods of data collection, the data analysis procedure, as well as limitations of the study.

Chapter 5 contains a summary of the findings and results of the data analysis for the first main research question which explored the characteristics, career paths, and leadership learning of the Thai public university presidents participating in this study.

Chapter 6 is a continuous summary of the findings and results of the data analysis for the second main research question. It focuses on the meaning(s) of university presidential leadership as experienced by these individuals.

Chapter 7 includes the participants' perceptions on the preparation of future Thai academic leaders.

Chapter 8 discusses the conclusions and implications of the study followed by implications for future research. Reflections on research experience is also included in this final chapter.

Chapter 2

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THAILAND: HISTORY AND GOVERNANCE

History

Thailand's university system was created during the reign of King Chulalongkorn (1868-1910). The country first opened a medical school at Siriraj Hospital in 1889, followed by a law school under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice in 1897. In 1902, Thailand opened the Royal Pages school, which was designed to prepare royal family members to work in different sectors of government administration. The creation of this school marked the real beginning of the university system and set this country's philosophy of higher education for fifty years until the revolutionary changes of the 1960s and 1970s (Watson, K., 1991, p. 561).

In 1910 King Vajiravudh, a graduate of Oundle School of English, adapted the English system to upgrade the royal Pages School to a Civil Service College. The college offered courses in agriculture, commerce, education, foreign relations, law, medicine, and public administration. In 1913 the king created an engineering school. Four years later, he combined the Royal Medical School, the Civil Service College, the Engineering School, and a newly created School of Arts, Science, and Political Science into one university. Chulalongkorn university became the first clearly recognized Western-style university of Thailand and followed European models

of higher education. It had selective entry, faculties, departments, and bureaucratic administrative structures. By the late 1980s the university had grown in size and enrollments offering courses in fifteen different faculties and in three specialized institutes. Its enrollment had increased to 19,000. A former minister of education noted in Nimanheminda (1980, cited in Watson, 1991, p. 561) that

The chief motive for the establishment of the first 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 and, concurrently, fighting extremely hard to survive and to keep her age-long independence.... The university established at that time was meant to meet the manpower needs as required in an attempt to run the country, fully determined to maintain its own sovereignty.

The philosophy behind establishing Thailand's institutions of higher education was similar to Napoleon's concept of the "grandes ecoles" in France. Thai universities would be the institutions designed to provide top civil servants for the government. All universities established during the next forty years were all connected to specific government ministries. Watson (1991) detailed several characteristics of Thai universities before the 1960s revolution. Thai universities were seen as "professional training schools for government" (Sippanondra, K., 1972) rather than as places for scholars involved in teaching and research. Most Thai universities were situated in and around Bangkok allowing key decision-making departments to have excessive dominance, at the same time limiting economic growth to only the capital.

Thai universities did not foster a spirit of critical inquiry. They tended to only produce specialists for limited fields that served

specific needs of particular government departments. Although a few foreign teachers were on staff, the language of instruction used was Thai; the attitudes and values encouraged in university instruction were largely based on Buddhist morality. University students were encouraged to be subservice to elders and to accept the past traditions and the existing system of the society. Due to the close ties between universities and specific governmental ministries, university education was seen as an important ticket to public service. Students during the first sixty years of the twentieth century saw public service employment as their highest goal. This belief changed in 1970s when the government cut back the number of its employees. By the late 1980s the public sector annually employed only about 1 percent of all university graduates (Watson, 1991, pp. 561-562).

From 1933 to 1943 five universities specializing in different fields were created in Bangkok. All the universities developed during this period were associated with different government ministries. In 1933 the University of Moral and Political Science was created with close ties with the Ministry of Public Justice and the Department of Public Administration. In 1952 the university was renamed Thumasart University. Today, Thumasart has grown in size, still focusing on law, political science, and social administration. It also has faculties of accountancy, economics, journalism, and liberal arts and science, all modeled after American system.

One year later, Thailand opened its first fine arts and national culture university, named Silapakorn University. In the early 1970s it extended its campus to the nearby province of Nakorn Pathom.

The Bangkok campus housed four Faculties: painting and sculpture, Thai Architecture, Decorative Arts, and Archaeology. The Nakorn Patom campus housed two faculties: Education and Arts (Pongpaibul, 1974, p. 3).

The university of medical sciences (Mahidol) opened its doors in 1942 also in Bangkok and operated under the auspices of the Ministry of Public Health. Since its opening, Mahidol University has played an important role in the medical and paramedical research of this country. In 1987, the university enrolled over nine thousand students in dentistry, medical technology, nursing, pharmacy, public health, sciences, social science, and tropical medicine. It also includes the Institute of Social Research, a research center at Ramathibodi Hospital, an Institute of Nutrition, an Institute of Science and Technology for Development, and a Faculty of Graduate Studies. The Faculty of Graduate Studies offers courses in related medical subjects as well as programs in linguistics and Southeast Asian languages, population planning, and communication disorders (p. 562).

In 1943 the Thai government under the leadership of the Ministry of Agriculture merged the specialized College of Forestry (1936) and the college of Agriculture (1938) into Kasetsart University. In 1958 the government added colleges of Veterinary Science and Irrigation Engineering and officially designated Kasetsart a university. Kasetsart University is located on the northern outskirts of Bangkok and is predominantly an agricultural university. However, it also offers a wide range of courses including business administration and economics, education, fisheries, engineering, arts and science, and social sciences. In the late 1960s it

added different research institutes, of which the most important is the Institute of Food Research and Production Development (p. 563).

The last of the specialized ministry-linked colleges was Prasarnmitr College of Education which was opened by the Ministry of Education in 1954 as a college for teacher preparation. Besides courses in teacher education, it also offered American-style liberal arts courses. The college expanded in size, adding three branch campuses in Bangkok and four outside Bangkok. In 1974 following student demonstrations, these colleges and a college of Physical Education were merged and upgraded to university status with the name Srinakharinvirot University (p. 563).

By 1954, Thailand had a well-established Western-style higher education system. All universities were predominantly located in the capital, Bangkok. By the 1960s Thailand became more involved in the international political scene and its expansion of higher education was similar to those that took place in different parts of the world.

Developments in Thai Higher Education in 1960-1997

According to Watson(1991), the four main catalysts for change in Thai higher education were economic, demographic, the "brain drain," and political. Economic pressures, associated with the needs for manpower (an aftermath of World War II) led the country to reconstruct its educational systems in both K-12 and higher education. The country embarked upon a series of national social and economic development plans that also influenced its educational development. The First Development Plan was introduced in 1960.

However, university staff were actually included in the planning process for the first time in the fourth Plan of 1977-81. The Second Plan (1967-71) stated that "Higher education will be expanded in fields necessary for the economic and social needs of the country. High-level manpower is needed in the following areas: engineering, agriculture, medicine and science." The fourth plan (1977-81), the fifth (1982-86) and sixth plans (1987-91) expressed the need for high-level manpower in the field of science, applied science, technology, and agriculture(p. 564).

The population growth in 1960s and 1970s placed pressures for higher education to expand its enrollment capacities. Due to the limited places in traditional universities, many young Thai students traveled overseas to obtain college degrees. The government quickly realized this situation caused a drain of dollars from the Thai economy. Young Thai students who went overseas for their higher education also absorbed new ideas and new attitudes from Western societies. The government was also concerned about the growing problem of the "brain drain" of Thai scholars to the West such as United States, Europe, and Australia. In 1967 the Thai government's University Development Council directed the establishment of graduate programs in Thai universities.

The fourth pressure for change in Thai higher education was the government's concern for the political stability of the country's regions. Rapid growth was concentrated only in the capital and its outskirt, leaving other regions, especially the north, northeast, and south to be seen as "politically unstable." (p. 565) The insurgency of Communism in the southern Thailand together with sporadic

guerrilla attacks against villages in the northeast and in the north's opium-growing area convinced the Thai government to create regional universities. These universities would create employment opportunities and serve as centers for rural development (p. 565).

The aforementioned four pressures resulted in three major changes in Thai higher education. The country quickly expanded the existing university provision including the opening of graduate programs; created new universities; and diversified institutions of higher education. The government extended Silpakorn University to Nakorn Prathom and opened three new regional universities in five years. Chiangmai University was opened in the north in 1964; Khonkaen University opened in the northeast in 1965; and, Songkhla University opened in the south in 1968. In an effort to diversify institutions of higher education and to raise the standard of English, the government opened a new graduate school, NIDA where classes were taught in English, and established different language centers such as American University Alumni Association Language Center and centers associated with Siriraj Medical Hospital and the Department of Technical and Economic Cooperation (p. 567).

The government also expanded in the field of technology. The Asian Institute of Technology (AIT), an international institution for Asian students was opened in Thailand. In 1971 the government of Thailand amalgamated a number of small technical institutes in and around Bangkok into one specifically Thai technological institution, King Mongkut Institute of Technology (KMIT). In 1974 Pasarnmitr Teacher Colleges and a college of Physical Education merged and were upgraded to university status as the Srinakharinvirot University.

To provide more universities, the Thai government encouraged the opening of private colleges and development of an "open access" public university. The open-access and distance-learning approaches used were influenced by practices used in the United States and Britain (p. 568). In 1971 Ramkhamhaeng University, Thailand's first open-access university was created. It consisted of four faculties: Education, Business Administration, Law, and Humanities (Pongpaibool, 1974, p. 5). In 1984 Thailand created the first truly open university (in Southeast Asia) named Sukothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) which modeled itself on the British system. By 1987 the private sector had grown into six private universities /institutes and eighteen private colleges. In 1990, four more regional public universities were established: Burapha University, Naresuan University, Ubon Ratchathani University and Suranaree University of Technology.

The Suranaree University of Technology, founded in 1990, and Walailak University, founded in 1997, are the first public universities in Thailand to "operate independently from the government bureaucracy with its own autonomous administration system and with government financial support in the form of block grants" (document of Ministry of University Affairs, Thailand, 1995, p. 9).

Today, there are eighteen conventional public universities, two open public universities, two public universities operated outside the government bureaucracy with its own autonomous administration system, and twenty-nine private universities and colleges.

Eighteen Public Conventional Universities

Burapha University

Chiengmai University

Chulalongkorn University

Kasertsart University

Khonkaen University

King Mongkut's Institute of Technology (Ladkrabang)

King Mongkut's Institute of Technology (North Bangkok)

King Mongkut's Institute of Technology (Thonburi)

Maejo Institute of Agricultural Technology

Maharakham University

Mahidol University

Naresuan University

National Institute of Development Administration

Prince of Songkla University

Silpakorn University

Srinakharinvirot University

Thammasart University

Ubon Ratchathani University

Two public open universities

Ramkhamhaeng University

Sukothai Thammathirat Open University

Two public universities outside governmental bureaucracy

Suranaree University of Technology

Walailak University

Twenty- nine private institutions

(List is not included here)

Chantavanich and Fry (1988) note that Thai higher education works to develop human intellectual abilities, advance knowledge and technology and provide numbers of high-level academic and professional personnel needed for national development (p. 658). Thailand's educational system of higher education is similar to the Western model, especially with regard to structure, content, and grading systems. While Thailand strives for academic excellence along Western guidelines, the country also stresses the conservation and transmission of national heritage including history, culture, social values, religion, etc. (Tongsopit, N. 1992, p. 777). This has always been a challenge for this country.

Governance

The government has always organized and controlled higher education in Thailand. Two authorities that play an active role in Thai higher education are the Ministry of University Affairs and the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of University Affairs is responsible for administering all public and private universities. The Ministry of Education, subdivided into several departments controls and administer postsecondary vocational-technical education and teacher training for Thailand.

The roles of the Ministry of University Affairs at the university level include curriculum development and administration of personnel affairs of all public universities. Although each public institution operates under a separate charter with some freedom, the Ministry of University Affairs still holds final power. The Ministry receives funds from the central government and distributes them to each public institution. Thai public universities receive almost 100 percent of their annual operational funds from the central government. Public university presidents (also called rectors at some institutions) meet regularly at the Board of University Rectors to discuss and decide matters of concern (Tongsopit, 1991, p. 773).

Olanvoravuth (1983) wrote that the method of administration employed by government universities was:

..large, complex administrative apparatuses operating with elaborate rules, controls, a rigid hierarchy, and highly specialized functions. Administrators tend to be as a rule followers rather than decision-makers or leaders. Administrative action is slow and paper work is elaborate because any action program must be proposed to the university governing board through the prescribed channels of the administrative hierarchy for approval (p. 48).

University Council

At each institution, faculties and departments play important roles in the academic and administration, with a university council serving as the senior governing board (Watson, 1991, p. 573). The university council, the equivalent of a board of trustees or board of regents, is responsible for overseeing policy planning and regulating the institution's affairs. The council takes part in almost every

aspect of the institution (Tongsopit, 1991, p. 775). The final decisions, however, are subject to government approval. The university council is led by an appointed president who is a prominent scholar or a politician or general/field marshal. The university president or rector serves as vice-president of the council. Other members of the council include deans, department head, and a representative of the faculty senate. Other members include senior government officials, academic heads from other institutions, and a number of civil dignitaries not directly employed by the university (Watson, 1991, p. 573). All members of the university council are appointed by the Ministry of University Affairs. Each member is appointed for a period of two years and may be reappointed in the future. The council usually has between nine and fifteen members. (Note: Vocational and technical training colleges do not have the governing councils. They are directly controlled by the Ministry of Education).

University President (Rector)

A university president, or rector in some institutions, is the chief administrator of the institution. The university president's role includes directing matters concerned with academic, personnel, administrative, and finance matters. Academic and personnel matters are directed through the faculty deans. Administrative matters are directed through a secretary-general, and financial matters are directed through a finance officer. Though the University Council may hold legal power over policy, academic development, and staff appointments, in practice most matters are

normally decided beforehand by an institutional president and the committee of deans. The real daily academic matters are dealt with at the department level, subject to the faculty board's approval. Since public universities are state institutions, staff including administrators and faculty members are state civil servants (p. 573). Since academic staff of Thai public universities are linked closely to the civil service, their freedom and autonomy are limited.

The university president is the executive officer of the institution and is usually assisted by vice-presidents or vice-rectors of different areas. The university president delegates authority to the vice-presidents according to areas of competency. The number of vice-presidents depend on the size of the workload of the institution. The university council advises the university president, who then passes the policy to his/her vice-presidents and to the deans.

Presidents' Qualifications

According to Chanruang (1994), each public institution has its own outline for its president's qualification, which are specified in the university act and by-laws. Many qualifications listed are shared among universities. Most universities look for a candidate who:

1. Has a doctoral degree or its equivalent (Some institutions also require that a candidate must have at least three years of college teaching experience.) If not a candidate
2. Must have a college degree and taught at the college level for at least five years or participated as a member of the university council for at least 4 years, or hold an academic

rank of professorship. (Note: the numbers of years vary depending on institutions)

Other important qualifications shared among institutions also included qualifications regarding leadership, acceptance among academic communities, personal conduct, good administrative experiences, and farsighted vision. The list includes:

- 3. Must be a good administrator, effective leader or skilled in administration**
- 4. Must be a scholar who is widely accepted by the academic community**
- 5. Must not sit in any board committee of a company or cooperation or must not have a stake in any activities that conflict with the university's policy**
- 6. Must have high moral standards and a strong sense of justice**
- 7. Must dedicate oneself to the institution**
- 8. Must not participate in any political parties**
- 9. Must be able to devote enough time to his/her duties as president**
- 10. Must have good understanding of a university under the government context**

Other qualifications that are found at some institutions include:

- 11. Must be skilled in building and maintaining institutional unity and be able to protect benefits of institution**
- 12. Must have far sighted academic vision**
- 13. Must believe and support academic freedom**

14. Must have effective human relations skills
15. Must be skilled in coordinating both internal and external constituents
16. Must have experience in administration
17. Must be interested in and see the importance of academic
18. Must have good, respectable personality
19. Never been punished for misconduct
20. Must be in good health
21. Must have knowledge, understanding, and belief in distance learning

Chanruang (1994) added that administrative qualifications that were cited the most were administrative experience in collegiate contexts and talent in coordinating work within and outside institution. Leadership qualifications that were sought most frequently in a candidate was being an initiator and being skilled in policy and planning. Academic credentials included successful scholarship, initiator of scholarship, and having work product in scholarship. With regards to the candidate's personality, the most cited qualifications were having generous open mind, followed by a respectable personal life. Other qualifications included being able to devote time to the job, having no conflict of interest with the institution, non participate in politics, and having good human relations skills (pp. 287-288).

The presidents of Thai public universities normally hold the office for a two, three, or four-year term depending on the individual's institution's policy with the possibility of reappointment.

A Thai university presidency of public universities, is a state civil service position, so the average income is far below that of the private sector. Olanvoravuth (1983) believed these chief executives derive their satisfaction from the feeling of self-actualization more than anything else.

The presidential Selection Models

In recent dissertation, Chanruang (1994) found that the selection models of public university presidents that practiced in Thailand could be categorized into three areas: search-based, election-based or a combination of the two previous areas. Among these, the combination of search-based and election-based model was found to be the most widely used among Thai public universities. However, the Suranaree University of Technology and Walailak University--the first two public universities outside the civil service based institutions--are the only two that practice the wide-scale search model which is comparable to the model used among U.S. institutions. The wide-scale seek to create opportunities for people outside academics.

The combination of search-based and election-based model also varies in practice. Chanruang (1994, pp. 313-315) presented the diagrams of three practices within this combination model:

Practice model 1 (Search-based combined with election-based)

University council appoint a presidential searching committee

Each college and institute nominates names of candidates for
faculty senates to vote on

The search committee narrows down the nominated names to
three to five candidates for further examination of
qualifications and interviews

The search committee recommends a final candidate to the
university council

The university council then appoints the president

**Practice model 2 (Search-based model from a search committee that
comes from election)**

University council authorizes election of a presidential search
committee

Presidential search committee members are elected

Each college and institute nominates names for presidential
candidates to the elected search committee

Search committee narrows down the candidate pool and proceeds with approaching qualification examination and interviews

Search committee recommends names and qualifications for university council's further consideration

The university council appoints the president, based on names recommended by the search committee

Practice model 3 (Combination model: Search-based combined with election-based using two separate committees)

University council appoints two separate committees: the search committee and the examining committee

The search committee asks each college and institute to nominate presidential candidate names (election process may be used at the college level, if desired)

The search committee narrows names down to five to seven candidates and proceeds by approaching the candidates

The search committee presents the results of its search to the examining committee for further consideration

The examining committee examines the candidates based on qualifications and recommendations from search committee.

The examining committee then narrows the name to one candidate

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The examining committee recommends the final candidate to the university council for further appointment

Chapter 3

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature review is composed of three fields of study that were brought together during this project. The review deals with literature relevant to the following studies:

Leadership in American and Thai literature

American College presidential career path

Leadership Learning (Development) of College and
University presidents

Leadership

While a call for leadership is heard on the campuses of most colleges and universities, we still struggle to define the term. Despite the long list of work written on the subject, the concept of leadership remains elusive. The following review of Thai and western leadership literature provided guidelines that allowed me to conceptualize leadership for the study. It also helped me in the data analysis process when I tried to answer the research question: How did Thai public university presidents describe their organizations and their roles as leaders within them?

Thai dictionary defines the word "lead" as "moving others forward." A "leader," then, means one(s) who moves others forward (Rachabunditayasatarn, 1982, p.434).

Thai scholars such as Chotikulchorn (1981) specifically defined the term "leader" as a person who is appointed or respected as the head of a group. S/he is talented in governing and directing and may lead followers or the community in either a good or bad direction. Those who lead the group to a good end are called positive leaders; those who lead others to a bad end are called negative leaders (p. 131).

Rukdrama (1984) believes a leader is a person who is appointed or respected by others to head a group and who holds authority in decision making. S/he is selected as a leader because s/he knows how to govern, direct and lead followers or the community to behave in a specific manner, positively or negatively (1979, p. 7).

The Thai scholar, Sathorn (1973, 1980) defines a leader based on the three considerations: 1) A leader is someone who emerges from among other group members. S/he holds power, influence or an ability to motivate others to follow her or his ideas, needs or commands. A leader, in his definition, has power over others' working lives or behaviors. Leadership is viewed as depending on the amount of power, influence and motivational skills an individuals may have. 2) A leader influences others through interpersonal relations. This influence is a two-way process. Sometimes, followers also influence the leader. Leadership, according to Sathorn, is shaped by the group members' attitudes. 3) A leader does not necessarily have to hold a position. Many head persons and executives may have authoritative power through their positions, but they may not be true leaders of a group. A true leader does not need to hold a

position but maintain power and influence and is talented in making others think and behave as s/he believes through the art of motivation (p. 152).

Bunjitadul (1986) defines the terms "leader and leadership" as having several characteristics. In his view, a leader is someone who 1) influences positive behaviors in others more effectively than other individuals within the group or organization. S/he is appointed as head of the work unit, as someone who influences the directions and behaviors as to lead an organization to meet its goals. In an organizational context, a leader, according to Bunjitadul, normally holds an authoritative position and is likely to hold a certain amount of power (1982, p. 95).

Jalernpunwong (1982) believed that a leader is a person who influences positive behaviors in his or her followers (pp. 15-17).

Wisalaphorn (1982) noted that leadership is created from the relationship between three main elements: power, influence, and authority. Leadership manifests itself only when members accept the power of the leader. One who has only authority or power but is not accepted by others is not considered a leader. The leaders and groups go together. Without a group, there would not be a leader and without a leader, a group's growth is limited (p. 17). The leader defines the group's destination. A leader is important to the well being of the followers and the quality of their group work. A leader's abilities and characteristics relate closely with the quantity, quality and value of the organization (Kaseamsin, 1973, p. 395).

The definitions of leadership given by Thai scholars appear to apply to an organizational context. Most stress power and influence

as important elements in a leader's capacities. A leader was talented in leading others to believe in him or her and behave accordingly through the art of motivation. Respect and acceptance from followers was considered crucial. Most Thai scholars see leadership as separated from positions as they believe that one does not need to hold a position, to be a leader. While some Thai scholars believe a leader could lead followers to both good and bad ends, others note leadership applied only to influences that resulted in positive behaviors in followers.

Western scholars, Bolman and Deal (1991) noted that "(Leadership) is not a thing. It exists only in relationships and only in the imagination and perception of the parties to a relationship. Inevitably, it means different things to different people" (p. 404). They list four definitions of the leadership concept that are most common but are still too broad or too narrow. The first is leadership as "the ability to get others do what (one) wants." Leadership here is associated with power that broadly explains leadership as an exercise of force. It also neglects leadership's artistic and poetic qualities, such as values, visions, and leadership as a relationship. The second most common definition of leadership was that leaders "motivate people to get things done." This concept is, in the authors' opinion, too narrow. It makes one feel that leadership is to be judged by its products and it also misses the issue of purpose and value.

The third definition commonly given by scholars and leaders is the belief that leaders "provide vision." Though this definition encompasses the meaning, purpose, and mission elements missing in

the previous two definitions, it suggests that leaders alone are able to create vision. It also fails to consider if the leaders' visions are liked or supported by others.

The fourth popular definition found largely among those who supported participative management is the one that defines leadership as facilitating. Here, the leaders' job is to "empower" others to do what they want. Bolman and Deal believe this definition again fall short because it suggests that leaders are powerful actors and their followers are dependent reactors. It also suggested that leaders can simply turn whichever way other people want (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 405). The four and many other existing, contrasting concepts of leadership suggest here that leadership is both "diffuse and controversial."

To begin to understand leadership as a concept, the authors believe that one must be able to distinguish leadership from power, authority, and management. They explain that most images of leadership suggest that leaders are powerful because they get things done and they get people to do things. This, however fails to take into consideration other power such as armed robbers, police officers, or prison guards. Though they have power, but they are not necessarily leaders (p.16).

Leadership also differs from authority (p. 406). Authority, "the phenomena of voluntary obedience," appears in three forms: traditional, legal, or charismatic. Traditional authority means people obey a particular custom or official because they see others do it. Legal authority refers to obedience to others because they reside in certain positions or offices that give them the right to make

decisions, such as school principals. Charismatic authority occurs when one obeys a particular person because that person is an example of hero or heroine (Weber, 1947, cited in Bolman and Deal, 1990, p. 407). Bolman and Deal believe these forms of authority fall outside the domain of leadership.

Finally, leadership and management are two different things. "One may be a leader without being a manager," and many managers cannot lead. Bolman and Deal state that leadership and position must not be tied together. It is unnecessary that leadership be provided only by people in high positions (p. 408). The authors offer a new view of leadership that they believe is more realistic. They propose that (1) leaders do not just make things happen but the organizational context in which leaders are in also counted.

"Organizational context influences both what leaders must do and what they can do." (2) Leadership is not a one-way process but a relationship between leaders and others. A two-way influence between leaders and their constituencies exists, which means "Leaders both shape and are shaped by their constituencies." (3). Leadership must not be equated with a high position. One can be a leader without holding a formal position of authority (pp. 409-410). Leadership, according to Bolman and Deal, means

a relationship between leaders and their constituents. It is a subtle process of mutual influence that fuses thought, feeling, and action to produce collective effort in the service of the purposes and values of both the leader and the led (p. 410).

(Note: Though my study deals with university presidents who hold high formal authority positions. It is not my intention to necessarily tie leadership with that position.)

Howard Gardner (1995) studied leadership from the perspective of a cognitive psychologist in his book *Leading Minds* and offered another interesting helpful way to think about leadership. Leaders are:

persons who, by word and/or personal example, markedly influence the behaviors, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings (here termed followers or audience members). The leaders' voices affected their worlds, and, ultimately, our world.

Gardner believes some leaders are "direct" leaders, some are "indirect" leaders and some exhibit tendencies of both. Winston Churchill was said to directly influence other people's thoughts, behaviors, and/or feelings. He reached various audiences through "stories"-- key ideas -- he communicated to them. Einstein, on the other hand, is an "indirect" leader because he used his ideas and theories to influence others. Eventually, his ideas were widely accepted by large audience (p. 6).

Gardner believes leaders achieve effectiveness only through the stories they relate to their audiences. The term "stories" are used to refer to any form of communication whether words, arts, dance gestures, the phrases of a sonata, mathematical equation or any other symbol system used by people in different domains. Leaders not only communicate stories but also "embody" those stories. Leaders become examples and believers of the stories themselves (p. 10). The leaders' impact depend largely on the stories they relate or embodied and the response of their audiences (p.14).

Gardner's analysis of leadership focuses on the lives and work histories of chosen leaders. He examines first, how different types of

leaders achieve varying degrees of success as they characterize and resolve significant social life issues in their own minds and of how, "in parallel or in turn," they attempt to transform their various audiences' minds to effect desired changes. In his (1995) study of leadership, he asked several questions: What are the leaders' ideas or stories? How do they develop? How are they communicated, understood, and misunderstood? How do they interact with other stories, especially competing counterstories, that have already drenched the consciousness of audience members? How do key ideas (or stories) affect the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of other individuals?"

Similar to Bolman and Deal (1991), Gardner notes that approaching the concept of leadership primarily in terms of the power they acquire or use is not recommended because leaders do not achieve significant changes through power. Studying leadership by focusing the leaders' personalities, such as their personal needs, traits, early life experiences, and relationships with others, was also inadequate because "the personality emphasis cannot explain the particular course called for by a leader and the degree of success achieved with various audiences" (p. 17). Thus he believes that approaching leadership from a cognitive point of view that refers to a concern with cognition -- "with the mental structures activated in leaders and followers"-- would help fill the gap (p. 17).

Gardner views "leadership" as:

a cognitive enterprise, as a process occurring and recurring with--and between--the minds of leaders and followers."... a process that entails the capacities to create stories, to

understand and evaluate these stories, and to appreciate the struggle among stories. Ultimately, certain kinds of stories will typically become predominant--in particular, stories that provide an adequate and timely sense of identity for individuals who live within a community or institution.

He concludes at the end that most of his chosen effective leaders share several things in common. Most appear to have a central story or message that reached a heterogeneous group of audience. Their stories speak directly to the untutored mind, "the mind that develops naturally in the early lives of children without the need for formal tutelage"(p. 291). Their stories are "inclusionary," encourage individuals to see themselves as a part of a broader community. The relationship between the leaders and their audiences or followers are complicated. Most leaders in Gardner's study are successful because they created and revised stories to best fit the changing conditions. Finally, successful leaders are able to choose and prioritize when necessary, whether they are trying to influence audience within a domain or within a wider society (p. 294).

Leadership Study Through Theories and Models of Leadership

Two major approaches were used by researchers in the study of leadership. Some researchers use leadership theories and models while others considered leadership within the context of organizational theories.

According to Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) and Middlehurst (1993), research traditions in leadership are categorized into six groups: trait theories (up to late 1940s); behavioral theories (late 1940s to late 1960s); contingency theories (late 1960s to present); power and influence theories (late 1960s to present); cultural and symbolic theories (1970s to present); and, cognitive theories (1980s to present). The following describe in more detail the characteristics of each theory.

Trait theories define leadership as linked to personal qualities. Researchers of trait theories attempt to identify specific characteristics associated with a leader's ability to function successfully (p. 7). Physical characteristics (height, appearance, age energy level), personality (self-esteem, dominance, emotional stability, initiative, persistence), social background (education, socioeconomic status), and ability (general intelligence, verbal fluency, knowledge, originality, social insight, cognitive complexity) are some of the important traits that researchers examined. While many traits are believed to be innate, others may be learned by individuals. Today, trait theories are no longer popular among researchers because many studies have proven that traits and leadership effectiveness are unrelated. The procession of the traits do not guarantee leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1981; Gibb, 1968; and Fiedler and Garcia, 1989).

Behavioral theories identify leadership as associated with behavior and style. Research in behavioral theories attempt to study leadership by focusing on what it is that leaders actually do. They examine leaders' patterns of activity, managerial roles, and

categories of behaviors. Leaders are differentiated based on whether they are directive, participatory, task or people-oriented, and/or interpersonal contact types (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 12). Using certain behaviors to identify leadership effectiveness is also problematic because some activities considered effective in one situation may be ineffective in another situation (p. 14). Leaders' behaviors may also be influenced by subordinates' performance (Crowe, Bochner, and Clark, 1972; Greene 1975, 1979).

Contingency theories state leadership is affected by the context and situation. To understand effective leadership, researchers in this school believe attention must be paid to situational factors. They observe the nature of the task or the external environment. Under contingency theories, it is believed that different situations and different tasks require different patterns of traits and behaviors. Many well-known models came out of these theories, including Fiedler's contingency model, the cognitive resource theory, the situational leadership theory, the path-goal theory, the model of decision participation, the multiple linkage model of leader effectiveness, and Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for hierarchical leadership (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p.14).

According to Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), power and influence theories suggest that leadership is associated with the use of power. Leadership is studied in terms of the amount of power and the manner in which leaders exercise that power over their followers. Two important themes in these theories are the social power and the social exchange approach. The social approach focuses on leaders' influence over followers. The social exchange, however,

consider influence that go both ways (p. 8). French and Raven (1968 as cited in Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 9) identifies five identified social powers that leaders use to influence others. Legitimate power is the power of influence that leaders use through the office provided by social and legal systems. Leaders use reward power to influence others through their ability to provide rewards. Coercive power is when leaders can influence others through their ability to threaten punishment. Expert and reference are the two powers that come from the leaders' own personalities. Expert power refers to the time when leaders can influence others through their expertise and through reference power when followers feel they personally like their leaders.

Cultural and symbolic theories consider leadership "the management of meaning." Researchers in this school examine leaders' influence on maintaining and reinterpreting a shared belief and value system that is meaningful for people in their organization. Cognitive theories suggest that leadership is a social attribution. It allows people to make sense of their own complex world and to invent their own leaders (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 7).

Of the six groups of traditional leadership theories, trait theories are the most primitive. Though many leaders may share common characteristics, a model that emphasizes traits is too simple to explain a concept as complex as leadership (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 24). Power and influence theories are related to trait theories. They both consider certain individual characteristics -- charisma, interpersonal skills, intellect, or expertise

-- as an important ability that contributes to leadership effectiveness. Within this group of theories, transactional and transformational models are the two models that received most attention. Under the transactional theory, the leader's and followers' relationship is perceived as being one of mutual influence. Transactional leaders work to maintain the organizational culture. On the other hand, under the transformational theory, the relationship between the two parts are perceived as being initiated and directed by the leader alone. Transformational leaders are seen as change agents of organizational culture (p. 25). Because a transformational leader is seen as a change agent, the idea appears to be more popular than its counterpart. However, it is believed that transformational leadership is rarely found in a real world context (p. 25).

Behavioral and contingency theories are closely related because both suggest that circumstances determine whether leaders will be task- or relationship-oriented. The difference between the two theories is the source of influence. While behavioral theories emphasize influence that comes from internal variables, such as leaders' personal qualities, contingency theories emphasize the influence of the external variables such as the nature of the task (p. 25).

While trait, behavioral, and contingency theories describe leadership based on the assumption that the roles of both the leaders and followers are clearly distinguished and organizational purpose is clearly identified, newer approaches known as cultural and symbolic

theories are based in different assumptions. Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) notes:

Instead of viewing leadership as an objective act in which leaders influence the activities of followers through the display of specific traits, or power, or behaviors, cultural and symbolic theories view leadership as a subjective act in which leaders elicit followers' commitment by constructing a reality that is congruent with followers' beliefs and that reflects desired ends (p. 25).

In these theories emphasis is on how leaders communicate, manipulate symbols and myths and use language.

While cultural and symbolic theories perceive the leader as an inventor of reality for the followers, cognitive theories view leaders as being invented by their followers. Under cognitive theories, perception is the most important aspect. Leaders are considered effective when they do what people consider the desired leader-like qualities (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 26). Pfeffer (1977, p. 110), who has been cited by large numbers of scholars in higher education, notes that "Successful leaders. . . are those who can separate themselves from organizational failures and associate themselves with organizational successes."

Both traits and power and influence theories have long been used on leadership in higher education. Many works appeared to associate leaders' effectiveness with individual characteristics. The results, however, appear to be varied and sometimes conflict with one another. Though exchange power theories sound better applicable to academic leadership, most studies found in higher education tends to focus on one-way influence. While scholars pay

more attention to the transformational theory, they seem to ignore the transactional theory side. Because behavioral and contingency theories concentrate most of their attention on the superior and subordinate roles and their relationships, it is believed that the two approaches are less applicable to higher education.

Recently, many scholars in higher education have turned their interest to cultural and symbolic perspectives. Cognitive theories appear promising for studying leadership in colleges and universities, but their use is still limited (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 50).

Leadership Study through Organizational Theories

Through their interaction, participants construct realities of organizational life and define the roles of their leaders. "Leadership within organization exists to the extent that people believe it does" (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 26). Different ways to view organizations suggest what leadership is and how it manifests itself (p. 26).

One of the most useful approaches from the organizational theory perspectives that helps in studying leadership is that of Bolman and Deal (1991), who suggest that organizations may be viewed through four "frames:" the structural frame, the human resource frame, the political frame, and the symbolic frame. The structural frame focuses on formal roles and relationship. The human resource frame considers people's needs as the most important factor. The political frame emphasizes conflict over scarce

resources, while the symbolic frames see organization as "cultures with shared values."

The perspective of the frame, according to Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), is useful for various reasons. First, it suggests that leadership will be interpreted differently when viewed by leaders as compared to followers. It is consistent with the ideas of other scholars in higher education who view colleges and universities as bureaucracies, collegiums, political systems, and organized anarchies. Finally, it suggests that effective leaders must be able to develop cognitive complexities to meet the requirement of the changing and turbulent environments (p. 27).

The structural or bureaucratic approach has been referred to as a "machine approach" where the basic thrust is based on the idea that "management is a process of planning, organization, command, coordination, and control" (Morgan, 1986, p. 25). Borrowing ideas from Max Weber and others, Stroup (1966) defines a bureaucracy as "a large scale organization with a complex but definite social function. It consists, moreover, of specialized personnel and is guided by a system of rules and procedures. In addition, a carefully contrived hierarchy of authority exists by which the social function of the bureaucracy is carried out impersonally" (p. 14). Making decisions, analyzing problems, determining alternate solutions, choosing the best, and executing it are examples of roles that leaders in this frame fill (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 33).

A family-like management system is typically referred to as a "collegium," "community of colleagues," "community of scholars," and/or a "human and academic community." Whatever the term,

this frame emphasizes consensus building, shared power, common commitments and aspirations, and leadership that emphasizes consultation and collective responsibilities (Birnbuam, 1988, Bolman and Deal, 1991). A collegium describes an organizational perspective that commonly emphasizes "human community and the human resource." Bolman and Deal (1991) suggest that a collegial model originates from the premise that "...people's skills, insights, ideas, energy, and commitment are an organization's most critical resource" (p. 121). Leaders who use this frame de-emphasize control and supervision. They view their role as a remover of organizational constraints on workers while trying to help them grow by increasing participation in decision making and enlarging job opportunities (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 29).

The political frame has five important characteristics: 1) the most important decisions made in organizations involve the allocation of limited resources; 2) organizations are comprised of a number of individuals and interest groups who form themselves into coalitions; 3) individuals and interest groups have different values, preferences, beliefs, information, and perceptions of reality. These differences are difficult to change; 4) to build organizational goals and make decisions, individuals and groups must be involved in the ongoing process of bargaining, negotiation, and jockeying for positions; and 5) power and conflict are a part of organizational life due to scarce resources and individuals' and groups' differences (Bolman and Deal, 1984, p. 109). Leaders within the political frame understand that organizations are fragmented into different groups with their own interests. Each group works to pursue its own

interests. Because one group is no more powerful than the others, they form coalitions and work together to achieve common goals (Bacharach and Lawler, 1980). Leaders within the political frame work as negotiators or mediators between "shifting power blocs. They influence outcomes by analyzing the preferences of different groups and designing alternatives that can find common ground between them" (Lindblom, 1968 as cited in Bensimon, Neumann and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 30).

A symbolic frame (Bolman and Deal, 1984, 1991) views organizations as cultures that are continually constructed by participants as they come into interaction. Cohen and March (1974) write from the perspective of symbolic and cognitive approaches and refer to colleges and universities as "organized anarchies." These academic organizations, according to them, display obvious characteristics: problematic goals, unclear technology, and fluid participation in decision making. Because of these characteristics, it is therefore impossible to try to apply traditional notions of organizational rationality.

The symbolic frame views organizations as "loosely coupled" with unclear goals. Participants of these organizations all participate in inventing structures and processes. The role of leaders within the symbolic frame is that of a catalyst or facilitator (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 33).

Leaders with adequate understanding of the four frames (the bureaucracy, the collegium, the political system, and the organized anarchy) can gain many benefits from using them. Morgan (1986) notes some of advantages of the four frames: 1) they provide leaders

with diverse ways of thinking about the organization's design in relation to administration and leadership in general (p. 321); 2) they allow leaders to open their thought process to read one particular situation from multiple perspectives "in a critical and informed way" (p. 322); 3) they offer leaders the "luxury of being able to jump from one position to another and merely describe or document what we see" (p. 330); 4) they offer a mode of understanding to find "an approach" to deal with different issues in different frames (p. 330); 5) they help describe an organization and suggest ideas and options as to how the organization could be run (p. 331); 6) they help extend leaders' abilities to read an organization (p. 336); and finally, 7) "They open numerous avenues for the way leaders attempt to organize in practice" (p. 335). Understanding the nature of the different frames enables leaders to view their organizations and their own leadership with diverse perspectives. Bolman and Deal (1991) remark that

Leaders need to understand their own frame and its limits. Ideally, they will also learn to combining multiple frames into a more comprehensive and powerful style. . . Wise leaders understand their own strengths, work to expand them, and build teams that together can provide leadership in all four modes--structural, political, human resource, and symbolic (p. 445).

Bolman and Deal, and Birnbaum's frames have been used to study leadership by some scholars in higher education. Bensimon (1989b) explored empirically the extent to which American college and university presidents use single or multiple frames or "lenses" in their description of good leadership. She found that the theories of leadership espoused by presidents in the study were more likely to

have single or paired-frame orientation than a multi-frame orientation. The single-frame category was found more often among community college presidents and paired- and multi-frame categories among university presidents. The finding that the most found single-frame theories used by chief academic officers of community colleges had either a bureaucratic or collegial orientation, according to the author, may be due to the fact that community colleges are viewed more often as "closed systems" with centralized decision making. The results also showed that new college and university presidents were likely to describe good leadership from a single-frame orientation while the multi-frame view was used almost exclusively by experienced presidents. It was concluded that "Quite possibly the more experienced presidents have assimilated the potential complexities of their role and so can more easily shift among frames" (p. 429). The reason why newer presidents appeared to exclusively use single-frame orientation may be because "their espoused leadership theories reflect normative perceptions of the presidential role rather than their own experience" (p. 429).

Since this study also deals with the career paths of college presidents, it will be helpful to include literature on their counterparts' career path, American college presidents. This body of literature will allow one to create a starting point to understand the presidential careers of Thai college presidents and the possibility to make comparisons later.

American College Presidential Career Paths

One of the most important presentations of American presidential career paths appeared in Cohen and March's *Leadership and Ambiguity* (1974). In this work, presidential careers were examined with the intention to produce a better understanding of leadership that functioned within a college identified as "an organized anarchy" (organizations with problematic goals, unclear technology, and fluid participation in decision making). Cohen and March (1974) asked several questions, some questions are somewhat similar to the research questions found in this study. Cohen and March's questions (in their words) included:

1. What systematic biases in the presidency are produced by careers prior to the job and the process of recruitment? In what ways are presidential careers and recruitment unique to presidents?
2. What are the possible interpretations of the patterns of careers for presidents and what consequences do alternative interpretations have for presidents? Is there a career "line" to the presidency?
3. How might we expect presidential behavior to be influenced both by anticipation of such careers and by the experience in them?
4. What are the problems for the college and president implicit in his background?

The study found that the American college president (from 1900 to 1970s) were most commonly middle-aged, married, male, white, Protestant, academics from well educated background,

middle-class, professional-managerial, native born, with small-town family background. They represented a conventional elite group. From 1900 to 1970, the average age of a college president in office was approximately 53. By comparing ten quantitative studies from ten consecutive years, Cohen and March concluded that the average age of incoming presidents during that period was the mid-forties. Younger presidents were found more in smaller schools, poorer schools, or in church-affiliated schools. These differences, however, were small (p. 12).

Citing Ferari (1970), Cohen and March point out that only 11 percent of the college presidents in the study were women. Nearly all of the women presidents led Roman Catholic women's schools or women's colleges (p. 12), which was consistent with Cohen and March's (1974) study.

Black presidents existed in small numbers, but most were presidents of institutions with black students as a majority. Roman Catholic and Jewish presidents were more likely to lead religion-based institutions of their own denomination. American non-church-related schools overwhelmingly hired Protestant presidents.

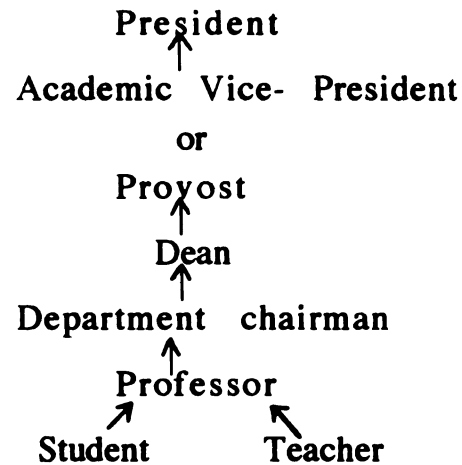
The two studies cited in Cohen and March's study agree that the majority of presidents appeared to have similar political affiliation as that of the governor seated at the time they were selected as presidents.

The most obvious characteristic of the American presidential career paths was that their presidents were academics. It was found that during the 1970s, 75 to 80 percent of all new presidents held doctorates; presidents of better-known schools held doctorates 90

percent of the time. Presidents' graduate degrees usually reflected the types of the institutions they served. Humanities, education, and religion remained important educational backgrounds for college presidents. During the 1970s, it was also noted that social science had become an important field as well (p. 15).

American presidents were found to have not only standard academic degrees, but their working experience was also exclusively in academic organizations. They worked as academic administrators for many years before achieving college presidency located at the end of the promotional chain found in an academic organization (p. 16).

Cohen and March (1974) concluded that "Presidents are made, for the most part, by the logic of hierarchy." They believe that a presidential career ladder is composed of five rungs. Presidents of American higher educational institutions during the 1970s were those who began their academic career as a college faculty member, moved into administration as a department chairperson, institute director, dean, and was later promoted to other higher administrative positions before advancing to a presidency (p. 19). A small number of presidents came directly from faculty positions, and usually at a smaller school. The majority of presidents, especially at larger schools, once taught a class and served as full-time administrators for several years. The mean number of years of administrative experience was ten. Cohen and March's "six-rung ladders" is believed to be the traditional promotional hierarchy for American academic administrators.



According to the authors, the entry steps of future presidents was more likely to be as a student (a graduate of the college) rather than teacher or minister as found in the past. The six rungs were not fixed. Many presidents bypassed one or more of the rungs. Fewer steps in the hierarchy occurred at smaller institutions (p. 20).

The authors believes that for many presidents, "the presidential career ladder is not a ladder within a single institution" (p. 20). Many of the presidents studied were promoted from the outside. This meant many of them came to their presidencies from other institutions. Presidents moved both horizontally and vertically. American academic faculty and administrators often moved from institution to institution. Citing Ferrari (1971), the authors stated that on the average, presidents had worked as faculty members or administrators at three different institutions including the one at which they were chief executives (p. 21).

The movement of these administrators, however, depended on at least three restrictions: specialization, parochialism, and status order. The movement of faculty members and administrators, for

the most part, seemed to occur within only similar types of institutions. Although they engaged in nation wide search for their presidents, most American institutions ended up choosing candidates who had close relationships (in the present or in the past) with the institution. When individuals moved from a smaller institution to a richer, larger institution, this was considered as a promotion. This kind of movement within and between administrative hierarchies that ordered in terms of status resulted in additional consequences:

1. Presidents chosen from outside by a high-status school generally had more administrative experience than presidents chosen by low-status schools.
2. The path to the presidency was longer and the president on the average was older for the higher status institutions.
3. Presidents who moved from one presidency to another usually chose a school with a faculty group that maintained a "stronger" reputation and internal authority. As a result, they found themselves with less internal power in their new positions (p. 23).

Cohen and March (1974) believe that the American's college presidential career path is a "fairly well-defined ladder with a relatively large number or rungs." It is assumed in this ideal career path that the college president is an academic. Their claim implies that the major role of presidents is as an academic leader of their institutions. These presidents are believed to understand, and share the values of academic community. The president, based on Cohen

and March's study, is viewed first as an academic and second as an administrator.

In most hierarchical career paths, moving up one rung was a sign of promotion, success and a validation of one's achievement on the job. However, this was different with colleges and universities. The authors note:

Since a college is an organization in which the validation of success through objective measures is relatively difficult, academic administrators move through a series of promotions to the presidency without a clear picture of where each step is taking them. Each new job is a 'report card' on the old job with all the ambiguity and all the pleasures of a high grade (p. 23).

Pre-presidential Careers and Presidents

What does presidential background and "pre- presidential career" tell us about presidents of American colleges? Cohen and March (1974) believe the path to the presidency in American colleges are similar to the paths to status in most stable institutions. It is made up of "selection and socialization" to ensure that all future presidents act in a "predictably acceptable fashion." The process suggested several implications.

Cohen and March note that future presidents of American colleges moved from one institution to another and up the rungs through a family of administrative organizations that are similar and "close" to one another. They reached their presidencies after passing through a series of "filters". Passing through each promotion or transfer, people with the "appropriate background" enjoyed a slightly higher probability to move closer to the presidential position. The filtering was characterized as gradual. Differences among candidates

at each promotional step were slight. For example, department chairpersons differed only slightly from the pool of senior faculty from which they were selected.

This presidential selection process resulted in the arrival of presidents with educational, racial, ethnic, sex, class, and other characteristics that search committees found appropriate and acceptable by both internal and external constituencies. Cohen and March (1974) predicted that future presidents of American colleges would be academics who would work their way up through a hierarchical career ladder. These candidates would work and live their lives exclusively in academic organizations until they became presidents. Most associated themselves with colleges and universities at about the age 18, when they first enrolled as students. After graduation, they would spend the rest of their "pre-presidential life" there. They would move from one institution to another and learn different types of work and responsibilities while moving up the academic hierarchy. The movement from one institution to another normally occurred within an acceptable distance. The authors concluded:

As a result, presidents commonly come to the job after 20 to 35 years of socialization into the values of academe, first from the viewpoint of a student, then from the viewpoint of a faculty member, then from the viewpoint of an academic administrator (p. 25).

The authors believe the result of such a socialization is twofold. First, because they tended to be strongly committed to traditional academic values, the presidents tended to accept the institution the way it was and support it. They did not make major changes at their

colleges and universities. This socialization also resulted in a misguided expectation that presidents shared the same values with other internal constituents. This was not always the case. The presidents' disagreement with faculty and students, in many cases, came as a surprise (p. 25).

The American college presidential career, according to the authors, is an "after-the-fact invention." It was predicted that future presidents would move from one position to another, leaving success behind with each position. However, there was little or no career planning on the part of the organization and the individuals. "A career (was) a backward-looking description of those movements. It is rarely a plan." (p. 25)

The filtration of a series of promotions, the long socialization period, and the ambiguities of success within colleges and universities have made the presidential career conservative and its impact on the college remains unchanged. The promotion filters produced a pool of prospective candidates for the presidency that seemed to look alike. Thus, breaking out from the so-called norm would be possible only if the selection procedure throughout the system changes. Socialization tended to produce presidents with a strong commitment to academe, so that any changes that occurred were limited (p. 27).

Some of Cohen and March's predictions regarding American college presidents (based on data from several studies conducted from 1914 to 1970) were both consistent with and conflict with other studies for 1980s and 1990s.

Moore's (1983) study of the careers of presidents, provosts, and deans of 1600 four-year institutions found some similarities in the characteristics of presidents when compared with Cohen and March's work. However, when the career histories of presidents were analyzed using Cohen and March's hierarchical presidential career ladder, only a small number of the presidents' career histories matched perfectly with the "ideal" ladder. This may be due to the fact that many of the provosts came directly from the faculty members. Several made one to three jumps in their positions before arriving at their presidency. Moore concluded that there was no "definitive" career path leading to the college presidency.

A national survey study of 2105 presidents from all types of institutions conducted in 1986 by the American Council on Education headed by Green appeared consistent with Cohen and March's (1974) findings. While Cohen and March studied only presidents of four-year institutions, Green included also two-year colleges. Thus, the comparisons between the two have been done with careful concern.

In comparing the two studies, it may be concluded that the college presidential profile and the presidential career path have remained largely unchanged in the past forty years (1940 to 1988) with slight changes in a very small number of increase in minority presidents (most were found in two-year institutions). However, Green's study still agreed with Cohen and March in that women and minorities were underrepresented at doctorate-granting universities and black presidents leading predominantly white institutions were difficult to find. The typical college president of the 1980s, according to Green, continued to be white, male, married and 53 years old.

They served for average of seven years. Most presidents had taught full time. More than 75 percent (the percent age was higher at four-year institution) held doctorate degree in Education, followed by Humanities. Mobility among institutions still occurred but only among similar types of colleges. The high degree of screening people with the similar background seen as traditionally "fit" still worked the same. This explains why there are fewer minority and female candidates in the pool of those who qualified for a presidency. The majority of presidents came to their presidency from another presidential or vice-presidential position. The largest single group of vice-presidents continued to be vice-presidents for academic affairs (or provost in four- year institutions). The background and career paths of the presidents continued to be "fairy" predictable, confirming the traditional observations of the research done in the past.

The American Council on Education sponsored the same study again in 1990. The same questionnaire were passed out to 2,423 presidents of all types of colleges across the nation. This new edition, printed in 1993, was compared with the older 1988 edition and revealed that the 1990 profile of presidents was nearly identical to that of the 1986 with slight changes in some areas. The numbers of women increased slightly. Presidents of color showed some gains as a percentage of all presidents. However, the net increase in the number of minority presidents from 1986 to 1990 was still relatively small for each group. The typical career path to the presidency, as found in 1990 continued to confirm the conventional wisdom and anecdotal data. Most presidents were still selected from

the outside. They came from institutions of similar types. While there was speculation that colleges draw presidential candidates from outside higher education, or from a rank other than academic vice-president such as chief fund-raising officers, the data did not confirm this. In 1986, while 10.1 percent of presidents came from outside, in 1990, only 9.6 percent came from outside.

The 1990 study suggests that the career path of American college presidents will remain the same in the future. A presidential search committee will likely select candidates with traditional academic and administrative experiences from comparable institutions. However, the authors hoped that this trend would change and search committee would be more receptive to women and minority candidates as well as candidates with different experiences.

The next section deals specifically with leadership learning of college presidents found in Western literature. This body of literature will be used as points of departure for me to compose interview questions and later when looking at the data.

Leadership Learning (Development) of College and University Presidents

'Leadership learning' is an ambiguous notion; it points towards a number of propositions about leadership development. The first of these is that leadership--or aspects of it--can be learned. The second is that learning to lead and learning about leadership are linked. In other words, leadership development includes learning to know about and to understand the art of leadership, in addition to learning to act as and learning to be a

leader--in the fullest sense. The process of learning is therefore active, involving engagement with leadership at intellectual, emotional and physical levels.

The third proposition is that learning for leadership takes place in variety of ways and relies on a range of strategies and opportunities. . . The forth proposition is that leadership and learning are closely related. Without an open approach to learning, opportunities for understanding and mastering leadership will be lost. . . A final proposition -- which is more of an aspiration than a proposition-- is that universities will develop 'a learning leadership' at the top of institutions, which will serve as an example for other levels and which will promote and facilitate learning throughout the institution. (Middlehurst, 1993, pp. 165-166).

A few books in the field of higher education use the term "leadership learning" as it is used for this study. Most of the literature reviewed uses the term "leadership development" that includes "leadership learning" as a way to describe how leaders prepare and develop professionally.

When the term "learning" is used, it seems to give a sense that the learner is an actor in the leadership learning process. When the term "development" is used, the emphasis is placed on the role of the organization to provide an opportunity for learning to occur. Middlehurst is the only scholar that I found who used the two terms interchangeably. He believes the term "leadership learning" could be replaced by "leadership development" when used within the context of formal organizations. "Leadership development depends on both individual and organizational effort" (citing Sadler, 1988; Conger, 1989, p. 166).

(Note: I prefer to use the term "leadership learning" rather than "leadership development" in the title of this study. However, readers are encouraged to think of the leadership learning process as dependent on the efforts of individuals and organizations.)

Middlehurst defines leadership development as a long-term process. It begins in early childhood and is subject to a range of influences and experiences. To be able to arrive at an understanding from these life events, one must continuously and actively learn the interconnections between the setting, its purposes and environment, individual and group behaviors and experiences, and the different tasks of leadership. One must test these understandings by acting and reflecting on them. To achieve this kind of learning, both individuals and institutions must be conscious of the learning process. They must be able to identify and evaluate the learning nature, its achievement, and its applicability to different contexts. Learning for leadership then depends on "learning to learn" (p. 166).

When leadership development is viewed within an organizational context, several characteristics may be noted. First, both individual and organizational efforts are crucial for leadership development (Sadler, 1988 and Conger, 1989). Second, leadership development can take place in planned events or natural processes occurring within or outside the organization (Burgoyne, 1988; McCall et al., 1988). Third, three important elements included in the term "leadership development" are education, training and experience. Each may be approached on a long-term or short-term basis (Hunt, 1992). Fourth, leadership learning deals with the full range of human capacities such as knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, values and

competence. Finally, leadership learning is a social process that requires individuals to engage in a continuous dialogue with others, self-analysis and reflection (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 166).

Middlehurst lists the crucial ingredients for leadership learning include learning about various things: oneself; others; organizational know-how; management skills; and skills to cope with uncertainty.

Learning about oneself involves self-development that results from self awareness and the practice of self-expression (Bennis, 1989). It may sometimes be defined as the process that involves assessing personal strengths and weaknesses, and looking for opportunities to learn about leadership whether through leading, reading, formal training, observation and exchanging ideas with others (Adair, 1988). Trial and error, interactions, and formal education and training are also included in this process (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

Learning about others is of crucial importance for leadership learning. Since leadership involves for the most part relationships between people, leadership learning also means learning how to develop interpersonal skills and the ability to analyze human interactions in different settings. Not only is that learning about others is necessary, many researchers also identify the importance of learning from others. Significant others, such as colleagues, managers, and mentors, may play important roles in one's leadership learning. They may serve as role models for appropriate behaviors and may identify inappropriate behaviors for learners. They also provide inspiration, advice, feedback, instruction, counseling or sponsorship (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

Learning about an organization's operation has been identified another key ingredient of leadership development. Leaders of academic institutions require many skills and competence in professional areas. They need strong credibility in professional areas: "Strong track records in professional areas (teaching, research, finance, accountancy or others) provide credibility, which is an important resource for leadership" (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 170). However, it must also noted that "although by themselves strong professional records will not guarantee effective leadership" (p. 170). Formal leaders of organizations must understand the day-to-day lives of their organizations. Accumulating knowledge and know-how takes time and effort. Leaders accumulate the knowledge and organizational know-how as a result of being a part of a variety of activities played out in different roles. The most effective method for this kind of learning comes from experience. Challenging activities provide learners with insight into the core of responsibility and accountability. It familiarizes learners with personal and cultural values and allows them to understand their own instinctive reactions to different kinds of people and problems. Green and McDade (1991) named two specific tasks that are required of academic leaders: envisioning a future, and shaping and interpreting value and culture. To envision the future, a leader must be able to define a mission, set priorities, communicate a sense of direction and enable others to take the initiative. The task of interpreting and shaping values and culture was, however, considered more intangible than creating a vision since it was believed that a culture is created simultaneously while living in it. Leaders influence a culture, its

rules, myths, rituals, history and symbols as they watch, listen, ask questions, create a frame of reference interpret, solicit feedback and encourage dissonant views. All these activities are helpful for leaders to learn to develop the multiple lenses and cognitive complexity referred to by Bolman and Deal and Birnbaum in the earlier part of this review.

Formal leaders in an academic institution must also be competent in technical skills and general managerial skills if they are to carry out their responsibilities. This means that they must learn these skills for themselves. Technical skills includes budgeting, personnel management, fund-raising, and interpreting statistics, and using information technology. General managerial skills include planning and organizing techniques, system and task design, decision-making and problem-solving abilities, time-management and delegation, diagnostic skills, appraisal and evaluation. It also includes the ability to understand that these functions take place in different contexts and the nature of operations from the small unit to the department, and to a college as a whole. Though different leaders within the institution vary, based on their roles, levels, and specialization, they must each have a basic knowledge and competence in technical and managerial skills so that they can create a common language within departments, or colleges, or at institutional levels. Middlehurst explained why those inspiring to a leadership position, as well as those currently in leadership roles, need to learn managerial skills by concluding that "in the complex institutions of today, managerial capability is a necessary adjunct to

leadership as well as a resource for leadership credibility" (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 172).

Uncertainty, ambiguity, and dilemmas are parts of lives within colleges and universities. Successful formal leaders are those individuals who have developed in themselves leadership learning that is based on the use of intuition and judgment. To develop these necessary skills, Middlehurst added that learners rely on techniques such as using guided imagery, searching for patterns, playing with ideas and scenarios, searching for answers by reading from outside their field, and uncovering dilemmas, conflicts and feelings. Similar to all aspects of leadership learning, successful learners are those who have open minds and a willingness to orient themselves to new perspectives (p. 173).

According to Middlehurst, the leadership learning process is broadly divided into two types: informal and formal. The informal learning process refers to leadership learning through observation, films and videos, discussions with colleagues, friends, advisors, family and others. Through this type of learning, it was believed that learners were important initiators of the process as they attempted to "invent themselves" through learning about self, context, and others (Bennis, 1989, p. 42). Formal learning involves those activities that occur in education and training. The learning context may be professional, managerial or general.

The value of learning from experience, particularly that gained "on the job" has been cited by many scholars. According to Middlehurst et al. (1992) and McCall et al. (1988) this learning on the

job may be structured, for example, when a learner shadows a predecessor in his/her role, undertakes a new challenging assignment or is coached by others. Most of the time, this kind of learning is less systematic and is done through observation, discussion, trial, and mistakes. Activities and circumstances, such as special projects, a broader scope of tasks or responsibilities, being oriented with role models, conflicts with superiors or subordinates, all have been identified as potential experiences for leadership learning.

Learning from experience: The importance of learning from experience, especially "on the job," has long been cited by scholars both within and outside higher education. White (1957) stated "no course of study, even participation in institutes, can take the place of the education that comes from experience. That is, an education can never be finished no matter how long one's administrative experiences may be"

(pp. 10-11). Several scholars studying colleges and universities, Vaughan (1986), Peterson (1972), and Ashmore (1978) attempt to identify patterns of experiences that provide opportunities for learning. All discuss some of the experiences, critical incidents, or pressures leaders face on a regular basis.

Vaughan (1986) studied community college presidents' self-reported perceptions of their successes, professional failures, and personal failures. He describes success as the presidents' ability to help make the college accessible to older adults, providing faculty the full opportunity to participate in the governance process, and being able to extend and share their beliefs and knowledge about the

community college with other people around the country.

Professional failures, on the other hand, are defined as the time when the presidents try to be all things to all people and were unable to deliver what they promised. It also includes the inability to communicate clearly the school mission to the public. Personal failures were used to refer to such things as the inability to bring people together, to develop their personal dreams, to listen to others, or to help students succeed.

Peterson (1972) studied the same topic, but took a different focus for his dissertation. He examined critical incidents that were believed to affect new and old experienced presidents of several colleges and universities in the Midwest. He interviewed 26 presidents and asked them to identify effective and ineffective events. The incidents were both internal and external. The study found several critical problems shared by the presidents that provided opportunities for leadership learning. These critical problems included finance, campus unrest, staffing governance, controlling governing board, public relations, subordinate ineffectiveness, student relations, compensation, and employee relations.

Ashmore (1978) and Berendzen (1986) present views on some of the pressures faced by college and university presidents. Their list includes working with vested-interest groups, enrollment changes, shrinking budgets, pressures to achieve more with limited resources, competition for funding, unions, federal governmental requirements, the media, and coping with feedback regarding their leadership.

Different pressures and problems provide opportunities for informal learning and professional development for these leaders. What individuals learned and how they chose to learn from these experiences, however, depended largely on themselves. What knowledge and learning lessons were derived as a result of having experienced the incidents varied from one president to another. Some of learning lessons were also shared by many of them. Several authors including Carbone (1981), Kauffman (1980), Brown (1979), and Borland (1976), tried to answer some of these questions.

Carbone (1981) interviewed several experienced presidents, focusing his attention on specific ways in which presidents stated how they learned. Carbone concludes that the presidents learned from the past, from their mentors and solid faculty members, and from specific administrative experiences. The presidents studied agreed that "experience is a good teacher" (p. 67). The lessons learned from past experiences were varied and the presidents were noted as flexible, tough-skinned individuals in control of their egos. They also learned that their decisions were subject to criticism, no matter what, as the author cited one president, "You will never make a 'right' decision in the eyes of at least a part of your public and employees" (p. 67).

Kauffman (1980) studied new presidents. He focuses on the influence that the predecessors might have on the new presidents and especially how new presidents learned about presidential leadership. He believes the responsibility for preparing prospective presidents is the job of school's board of regents. He identified three methods to help preparing future presidents. These methods are

mentoring, grooming prospective candidates, and sponsoring someone within the organization. The learning, according to Kauffman, should offer a variety of developmental opportunities, whether through a formal or an informal approach.

The developmental opportunities were identified in research by Brown (1978). He describes developmental opportunities as revitalization strategies. Since an organization changes and grows everyday, he believes that the people within that organization must be able to keep up and stay ahead of these changes. However, in most cases, it was believed that the real resource for developmental programs within organizations was scarce. As a result, "the obligation for revitalization falls less to the institution than to the individual leader" (p. 35). Brown believes that presidents could remain and enhance their vitality through five means. First, by learning from colleagues who could also be their role models. "Most leaders consciously copy an idea from one colleague, a technique from another. In the school of later learning, our colleagues become our faculty" (p. 36). Second, leaders learned from their advisors. An advisor not only gives ideas and techniques, but most importantly, motivates. Third, leaders learn to maintain vitality by having access to their role models. Individuals should have supporting networks, made up of those who often ask "penetrating questions." The fourth way to help leaders maintain vitality is through the habit of pursuing activities that help them learn. Development of self-learning is considered crucial.

The last way to help leaders maintain vitality, according to Brown, is through the recognition and use of specific experiences.

Leaders learn a great deal from specific failures or specific actions because these experiences normally help promote the consideration of alternatives and new theories.

Brown identified twelve revitalization strategies that provide leaders with many opportunities for learning. These include reading, travel or sabbatical, taking part in national associations, observing role models, exercise, attending workshops, writing major speeches or sports, keeping a good pace in a scholarly discipline, making use of support gained from professional networks, maintaining a cultural life beyond the job, getting involved with projects outside institutions, and doing regular self-assessment. These strategies require that individuals be good, self-directed learners.

Borland (1976) interviewed presidents of several Michigan community colleges. He identified the important roles that people and events play to facilitate the acquisition of certain presidential career positions. The presidents in Borland's study identified several experiences they believed to affect them in adulthood, both personally and professionally. Several presidents talked about the effect of growing up during difficult times, such as during the Depression and World War II. Forced to do without material comforts while growing up, these presidents believed they learned many things. They learned to depend on others and to value team work. They also learned the importance of risk behaviors and many developed very early in life a desire to lead.

Some presidents also identified a specific person who contributed to their growth. Encouragement from a co-worker or supervisor and/or bad experiences with specific administrators

proved to be motivating forces that help move these individuals into higher education administration. Borland notes:

The respondents indicated that while working in positions of leadership, they were visible to their superiors and, in turn, their superiors were visible to them. This relationship often provided the opportunity for the respondents to observe styles of management, the nature of the job, and the character of the president occupying the position (p. 247).

Much learning occurred when these presidents were young. Borland stated that "Michigan community college presidents indicated that , to a great extent, their beliefs and values orientations have been influenced by their early experiences" (p. 271). Values and beliefs that were instilled in these individuals at younger ages continued to have powerful effects on them as adults and leaders. These values include the importance of hard work, the belief in the goodness in all people, integrity, perseverance, responsibility, being unselfish, the Golden Rule, positive thinking, self-confidence, competitiveness, and the belief in helping other people.

Different people and different circumstances in their lives were reported by these presidents as being influential on them. The presidents who participated in Borland's study identified professors, teachers, coaches, other college presidents, spouses, family members, or other superiors in the job situation as people who influenced them.

Dotterer (1989) examined how life experiences, both professional and personal, influenced the leadership development of community college presidents in Michigan. His study offered interesting information for this study. Personal experience contributed significantly to the college presidents' growth and

development. Previously held professional experiences provided important lessons that the presidents later used during their own presidencies. Though formal academic experience was important, Dotterer found that it contributed less to the presidents' professional development than did informal, on-the-job experiences and personal experiences. Many people played significant roles in the presidents' leadership learning. Parents, coaches, and teachers were named as providers of learning opportunities during their early years. Instructors, spouses, predecessors (former presidents), and peers were identified as those who stimulated and provided knowledge, and support for these college presidents. The presidents also reported that they not only learned from positive, but also from negative experiences and people.

Summary

Three areas of study were reviewed in this chapter. The leadership literature which reflected the views of Bolman and Deal (1991) and Gardner (1995) on meaning of leadership, were used as groundwork for this study. Research on American college president career paths by Cohen and March (1974), Moore (1983), Green (1986) and the American Council on Education (1990) reflected the characteristics and career paths of American college presidents that were later used for comparison with Thai presidents participating in this study.

The third component for this study involved leadership learning by academic leaders as well as leaders in other fields. The

crucial ingredients for leadership learning by leaders include learning about oneself, others, organizational know-how, management skills, and the skills to cope with uncertainty. Besides, the leadership learning process can be both informal and/or formal.

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter includes conceptual frameworks, the design, and limitations of the study. The design section details explanation and description of the population and the sites, the development and use of the research instrument, the data collection procedure, and the data analysis method.

Conceptual Framework

This project is based on several works: Howard Gardner's *Leading Minds*, Gary Will's *Certain Trumpets*, leadership theories, and organizational theories (Bolman and Deal's, 1990; Birnbaum, 1989), and Cohen and March's college presidents' career ladder. Howard Gardner's *Leading Minds* provided models of format that I used to approach my interview data. I examined each case individually and later compared the cases, searching for common themes and categories. Additionally, I also sought themes that were missing in the literature (Gardner, 1995) by analyzing the interview transcripts in multiple stages involving processing strategies of analytic induction and constant comparison (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Merriam 1991; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). This meant I developed code words to designate the key ideas expressed in the respondents' comments, and sorted them into categories and searched for emerging themes.

In addition to format, Gardner's leadership theories also played crucial roles in helping me direct my thoughts about leadership as a concept.

Gardner states that leadership is "the subject that can be mastered and a role that can be achieved" (1995, p. 304). The best leadership training for potential leaders should be that which acquaints candidates with "leadership knowledge," or the "consciousness about the issues and paradoxes of leadership -- what is entailed in being a leader, and what can go wrong, as well as what can go right" (Gardner, 1995, p. 305). Potential leaders must familiarize themselves with many issues and paradoxes. Gardner lists several:

- A leader must have a good balance of technical expertise and broad-based communication skills necessary for reaching the "unschooled mind."
- Leaders must be able to create "stories" (cultures) that address individuals as well as groups.
- "The potential of such stories either to broaden or to fragment a sense of community"
- The realization that when a more comprehensive knowledge is distributed to a single authorized leader, dealings are easier.
- The knowledge that "all leaders are limited in what they can accomplish," that all leaders experience failures and triumphs, and that nearly all leaders eventually experience problems they cannot solve.

- The understanding that there are different types of audience. Audiences that may be manipulated by a leader, audiences that influence the leader, and audiences that attempts to work with the leader to match their interests.
- The understanding that leaders need support, not the exploitation or undermining of their authority.
- The choice between playing a leadership role as direct (a leader speaking to her audiences) or indirect (a leader achieves effects either through symbolic products or through the education of political leaders), and the possibility to mix the two roles.
- The tension between rational and spiritual approaches and "the desirability of synthesizing these complementary stories" (1995, p. 305).

Taking Gardner's theory of leadership learning as my point of departure, I viewed leadership learning as a continuous process that begins when we are young and intensifies as we reach adulthood. University presidential leadership is not mysterious, but a "subject" and a "role" that one may learn and achieve after years of schooling and working. Any effort to familiarize potential university presidents with Gardner's leadership knowledge must begin during their college years and continue throughout their careers.

I based my study on Gardner's cognitive approach which required that I allow my mind to actively compare cases stressing some features and downplaying others (p. 16). My work mirrored

Gardner's in several respects: both are qualitative in nature; both deal with how individuals learn to become experts and leaders in their individual disciplines; and the researchers in both studies sought themes that run across cases and other themes that were ignored in the literature.

Despite the above similarities, my work differs from Gardner's. While Gardner studied leadership during his participants' whole life course, my study is limited to participants' experiences from a thirty year period from when they began college to the age when they became college presidents. Second, while Gardner derived his data from available biographies, autobiographies and other artifacts, I derived my data mainly from personal interviews with my respondents, professional vitas and narrative writing.

Gary Will's *Certain Trumpets* served as a model of how to study leadership by focusing mainly on leaders' professional lives. Unlike Gardner, whose leadership study was based on the whole life course, and personal and professional experiences of individuals, Wills' study concentrated only on his subjects' professional work. Using Will's method as a model, I based my leadership study mainly on educational (college) and professional experiences of thirteen Thai public university presidents.

Leadership theories and Bolman and Deal's (1990) and Birnbaum's (1988) organizational theories as reviewed in the literature served as guides that allowed me to conceptualize and interpret the thirteen presidents' talk on their leadership. Attention to this conceptualization was present during the interpretation of the findings.

Cohen and March's traditional career ladder of American presidents was used as my starting point to help me understand the career paths taken by the Thai public university presidents. The results show that comparison across countries in this aspect is not only possible but also fruitful.

Research Design

To understand the presidents' career paths, leadership learning during their college years and in different careers of individual university presidents, and their perception on presidential leadership, this study used a qualitative research methodology. Crowson (1987) defined the objective of qualitative research studies as the development of an appreciation of the world as others experience it. An exploratory approach and interview methodology were chosen. Cross-case analysis was used as the main data analysis method.

An exploratory, qualitative methodology was chosen for this study as it was best suited to encourage university presidents to describe and reflect upon their stories and their experiences. The stories were elicited through a process of personal interviews, which were tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Participants were asked to go back in their memories and trace the leadership learning process that led them to the university presidency. They were also asked to discuss their roles as presidents of their institutions. I invited them to recall, talk, and explore not only their experiences and important incidents, but their feelings, expectations, assumptions, interpretations and perceptions. This study searched

for meanings and interpretations rather than fact finding or theory verification.

Research Tradition

Primarily, my study was located within the interpretive research tradition. Within this tradition, Thai individuals who were college presidents of Thai public universities were the focus of my study. This research attempted to describe the educational biography, working experiences, leadership learning of these individuals, and perception of presidential leadership. By listening to what these leaders had to share with regard to their own experiences, I tried to make sense and meaning of these words from the points of view of these university presidents. This type of study allowed me to examine each individual's experiences. Some were shared by several presidents while others were unique.

Within the interpretive research tradition, my study sought to understand what these Thai college presidents perceived, believed, and do. I was interested in learning how these college presidents made sense of their world as individuals, as adults, as learners, and most importantly, as leaders of colleges and universities. I was interested in learning how they related to others and more importantly about their own identities. By allowing these Thai university presidents to share not only their perceptions but also their feelings with me, the study sought to understand how these individuals accomplished what they did and why from their own perspectives. While the study tried to describe the beliefs and

actions of these individuals, it also tried to understand what these beliefs and actions meant to them individually.

The questions that were asked within this interpretive tradition were those that helped generate language, meanings, and actions. While the positivists would walk into the field theory-driven, the interpretivist would dig deeply into an individual's actions, meanings, and language to derive a theory that describes their field in a deeper sense.

My study was comprehensive in scope, time and methods. It focused on the college presidents' perceptions, meanings, and interpretations of actions in considerable detail. Attention was given to the language that was spoken, symbolized, and/or written by these college presidents. If evaluation was necessary, it would come from the subjects who defined what would be evaluated and why, or to what end or perceived benefit. The qualitative design included several important characteristics that directed my role as a researcher. I was concerned primarily with the process rather than the outcomes or products, meaning that my subjects made sense of their experiences, while my role was that of "primary instrument" for collection and analysis of data. Since a qualitative study is "descriptive," I was interested in process, meaning, and understanding gained through words. Furthermore, because a qualitative study involved an "inductive" process, I built "abstractions, concepts, hypotheses, and theories from details" (Merriam, 1988, 19-20, cited in Creswell, 1994, p. 145). During my data analysis I lived with the data for a period of time. By setting aside enough time to live and reread data over and over from one

point to another, it allowed me time to rethink and reshape my analysis. I made my voice as a researcher present in this study. My study focused not only on the problem itself but also on the experience of a researcher going through interviewing, observation, data analysis and others. The importance was not only what I learned about these Thai college presidents but also what I also learned about myself. I kept a daily reflection of my thoughts and feelings before, during and after each interview.

Setting of the Study

The context for this study was Thai elite public universities that were similar to Western institutions of higher learning with regards to structure, content, and grading system (Tongsopit, 1992, p. 777). These thirteen institutions shared common goals as stated by the Office of University Affairs. Thai higher education works to develop human intellectual abilities, advance knowledge and technology and provide the required numbers of high-level academic and professional personnel needed for national development (Chantavanich and Fry, 1988, p. 658). Of the thirteen institutions that participated in this study: twelve are under direct control of the Ministry of University Affairs (especially in the areas of curriculum development, administration of personnel affairs, and budget allocation) and only one was autonomous.

The university president (rector) of these institutions is the executive officer of the institution and normally holds the office for a three- or four-year term with the possibility of reappointment. S/he is a state civil servant. These elite public universities normally

promote people from within and groom individuals for a university president position. Presidents of these institutions follow career paths within an academic stream -- faculty member, department chair, dean, provost and/or vice-president and president. In preparing themselves to be future leaders these individuals learned to develop leadership knowledge through formal college education and informal on-the-job training during their careers. However, what leadership knowledge they gained and how they learned it is unknown.

Selection of the Site

I invited the entire population, a total of twenty-two presidents, of Thai public universities to participate in the study. They were identified through a current directory issued by the Office of University Affairs. Of the twenty-two, twelve presidents (eleven males and one female) agreed to participate. To increase more female voices in the study, the researcher also invited one more female ex-president to participate in the study and she agreed to. The total number of participants in this study was thirteen.

The data collection for this study was completed in Thailand from 1 February to May 15, 1997. Participants in the study were college presidents from thirteen different institutions located all over Thailand. The study focused only on university presidents of public institutions. Such an exclusion helped control other variables that may have arisen due to the differences between public and private institutions. Public institutions were chosen over private, due to the fact that public institutions in general were more compatible since

nearly all operated under the same state rules and regulations and their presidents displayed similar characteristics. Private institutions, however, normally differ from public institutions since they operate under limited state control and their presidents come from a variety of backgrounds. Some institutions were run by their owners.

The institutions that participated in this study depended on their presidents' willingness to voluntarily participate in follow-up interviews.

Selection of Participants

As previously mentioned, participants of this study are university presidents currently working for government-affiliated universities in Thailand. I decide to focus specifically on presidents of public institutions because this group of people normally represents a group of elite intellectuals who are among leading scholars in their fields. They represent a group of people with successful experiences in academic administration and who knows well what it takes to become a university president. Since they are all leading the most important higher education institutions with large numbers of faculty members and students, they represent a group of powerful decision-makers. In addition, since the presidents of Thai public universities are state civil servants, their average income is far below that of the private sector. The question of what inspires these individuals to a career in public universities is also crucial to the topic under investigation.

Gaining Entry

I first went to the Ministry of University Affairs, for a directory listing the names, addresses, and telephone numbers of all public institutions and their presidents.

I asked my advisor from Michigan State University to compose an invitation letter asking for support from respondents. This letter accompanied the letter from the researcher in the invitation package. By following the directory obtained from the Ministry, I then faxed a letter of invitation package to all subjects, which included:

1. a cover letter from the researcher explaining the study
2. a letter from Dr. Steven Weiland, the researcher's dissertation chair from Michigan State University

The respondents who indicated their interest in participating in the interview were contacted by phone and fax for further information on the issue of confidentiality and to schedule interviews.

The participants were asked to fax back their professional vitae before the interview dates. Those who were concerned with privacy, however, chose to hand deliver the vita to me on the day of the interview. Twelve of the semistructured and informal interviews were conducted at the participants' offices on campus; one was conducted at the participant's residence.

Methods of Data Collection

This study used the semi-structured interview as the primary method of data collection. Also, I asked the participants to provide

me with a professional vita or any narrative writing that would allow me to know them a little bit before conducting an interview.

Interview : I met with each participant individually. Each interview lasted approximately one and a half to two hours. Some presidents preferred to meet with me two times for an hour-long interview each time; others were happy with one two-hour meeting. Before the interviews started, I distributed a study abstract to the interviewee and also asked him/her to sign two copies of a consent form. One copy was for the participant to keep and the other was for me. I also described to the interviewees the issue of confidentiality and reminded them that the data would be reported in such a way that names and places would not be identified. I then asked the interviewees for permission to tape-record and to take notes during the interviews. All of the participants gave permission to be recorded. Before the interviews started, I also told them that they could ask me to turn off the tape recorder off if they felt uncomfortable.

The interview protocol was translated into Thai. The interviews were divided into two sessions.

Interview Session I: The first session of the interview lasted approximately one-half hour to forty-five minutes. The open-ended interview dealt with background information and the meaning(s) of leadership as each respondent understood and experienced them. I developed the questions and combined them with questions borrowed from Birnbaum (1992) book, How Academic Leadership

Works. Data from this interview was used to guide interview session II.

Interview Session II: The second session of the interview lasted anywhere from one hour to one hour and fifteen minutes. It was composed of questions developed by myself combined with questions borrowed from McCall et al (1988), *The Lessons of Experience* and Bennis and Nanus's (1985) *Leader*. The questions were divided into four sections:

1. Learning about leadership during college years.
2. Learning about leadership from different jobs leading to the university presidency.
3. Learning about leadership from other people (The roles of mentor(s) in their learning).
4. Reflection on their learning and lessons for the professional development of prospective leaders in Thai public universities.

Data Analysis

Cross-case analysis using variable-oriented strategies were used. The cross-case analysis helped enhance generalizability (Denzin, 1983, Guba& Lincoln, 1981, Miles and Huberman, 1994) and deepened understanding and explanation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, 1970, Miles and Huberman, 1994). Through this method, the study compared and contrasted across cases which enabled us to understand the overall picture of leadership learning experiences

and the meaning(s) of presidential leadership as shared and not shared by the presidents. "Multiple cases helped the researcher find negative cases to strengthen a theory, built through examination of similarities and differences across cases" (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 173).

Based on variable-oriented strategies, I looked for themes that cut across cases and bypassed or underplayed case dynamics. I compared the cases, searching for common themes and categories. Additionally, I also sought themes that were missing in the literature (Gardner, 1995) by analyzing interview transcripts in multiple stages, involving processing strategies of analytic induction and constant comparison (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Merriam 1991; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). I developed code words to designate the key ideas expressed in the respondents' comments, sorted them into categories and searched for emerging themes.

I used interview protocol questions, based on the sub research questions to guide this study into preliminary categories by which to group and analyze responses. Participants' responses were examined by question categories to check for patterns and relationships. While the interviews were transcribed and coded, I also began an ongoing process of "memoing" as a means of capturing intuitions, interpretations, and theoretical or conceptual notions as they were stimulated by working with the data. These were captured in a separate file so they could later be retrieved, coded and integrated into the process called "creating meaning" from the data which would

be included in the Interpretations Chapter. Discussion was analyzed in relation to the theoretical framework of the study.

Limitations of The Study

There are several limitations of this study. First, a small sample size of participants in the study may affect the study's generalization of the findings. However, it must be noted that qualitative researchers often sacrifice the breadth of the sample for the depth of understanding and richness of data.

Second, of the thirteen presidents interviewed, only two were female presidents. Because most thoughts collected in this study were those representing male presidents' voices, a generalization to female population must be made with care.

Third, the study reflected the perceptions and impressions of Thai public university presidents who chose to participate; their words represent only a partial view. Nonparticipants of this study, therefore, may find some perceptions and impressions not applicable to them.

Fourth, as Lincoln and Guba (1985) indicated, an interviewer of qualitative research can bring biases to the study in several ways: whether it is how I, as a researcher, develop the interview protocol, how I present the questions to the interviewees, or how I unconsciously use my nonverbal reactions to the respondents' answers.

Fifth, because this study was conducted with Thai public university presidents, there might be some limited generalization to university presidents of other countries.

Sixth, this study included only university presidents of Thai public institutions; therefore, there might be some limited generalization to presidents of Thai private universities .

Seventh, doing research across cultures and languages can be a challenge. Because the interview process and the data transcription were completed originally in Thai language and though I, as a researcher, tried to stay as close to the Thai language while trying to translate in a manner to get the message across in English, it must be noted that there are some Thai words or contexts that cannot be translated into English.

Eighth, the research product cannot be totally separated from the researcher. Data interpretations and choice of emphasis in reporting results were subject to the researcher' perceptions -- how I heard the participants and how I see the world. Interpretations made in this study would not necessary be fully agreed upon by others whose world views may be different from mine.

Finally, because a large part of this study dealt with leadership learning and experiences that occurred in the past, answers given were subject as well to the respondents' memories and their ability to reflect the history of their lives at the time of the interview.

Summary

In summary, this chapter provided a description of conceptual frameworks and design of the study. The chapter also detailed the description of population, site selection, data collection procedure, and data analysis methodology.

The total of thirteen (eleven males and two females) Thai public university presidents participated in this study. Of the thirteen, twelve were current presidents while one was an ex-president. An exploratory, qualitative methodology was chosen. The study used the interview as the main method of data collection and the cross-case method as the main tool for data analysis. The interview questions that were developed by the researcher were combined with questions borrowed from Birnbaum's (1992) book, How Academic Leadership Work, McCall et al.'s (1988), The Lessons of Experience and from Bennis and Nanus's (1985) Leader were used as guideline for the interviews.

The interview process was divided into two main sections: I. The meaning of presidential leadership and II. The leadership learning of Thai public university presidents. All the interviews were completed in Thai during a three and a half-month period. Most of the interviews lasted approximately one and a half to two hours and took place at the participants' offices. The interviews were conducted in Thai but data analysis and report were completed in English.

Chapter 5
FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS:
BECOMING A THAI PUBLIC UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to explore the characteristics, career paths, and the nature of these Thai public university presidents' discussion about their leadership learning experience, and to examine their talk on the meanings of presidential leadership and their work as chief executives of their institutions. The study also aims at identifying important elements necessary for the preparation of future Thai public university presidents. Cross- case analysis is used as the main method to analyze and collated data.

This chapter addresses the first major research question:

- I. How did Thai public university presidents prepare themselves to be a president in terms of education background, career paths that they follow, and continuous leadership learning?

I address the first major research question by focusing on the findings and interpretations drawn from the professional vitae and interview data and examined through the conceptual framework of this study. Cohen and March's college president career ladders was used in the first part to analyze background and career paths of the Thai public university presidents. Howard Gardner's method for

studying leadership phenomena and leadership learning through studying lives of the leaders was used in the second part. Gardner's belief in leadership as "the subject that can be mastered and the role that can be achieved " (1995, p. 304) through years of learning and practiced was stresses throughout my data analysis.

The first section of the chapter details personal characteristics of thirteen Thai public university presidents participating in this study in terms of gender, age, educational background, and professional background. The second part deals with career and career mobility, most importantly, career paths leading to the presidency. The final section of the chapter reports how leaders learn about leadership from their college experiences, from different work, and from other people. The chapter is divided into the following subheadings:

Personal Characteristics: Who are the presidents in this study?

Educational Background

Professional Background

The Presidential Career Paths

Career and Career Mobility

Tradition and Variations

Learning to Lead in The Years before Becoming A President

Learning during Formal Higher Education

Learning through Different Work Experiences

Learning from Working as a Faculty Member

Learning from Working as a Researcher

Learning from Working as a University Administrator

Learning from Other Jobs Outside The University

Learning and Support from Other People

Learning from Parents

Learning from Colleagues

Support from Family

Presidential Selection: The Presidents' Views

Personal Characteristics:

Who Are the Presidents in This Report?

I interviewed thirteen presidents: eleven men and two women. Of the two women, one was a current president while the other was a former president. At the time of this research, there was only one female president and she consented to participate in my research. To represent more women leaders' voice, I had included one more woman by inviting an ex-president to participate.

The typical presidents participating in my study was married, fifty-eight years old, and have served for an average of five years. There was no significant age difference between the men and women. The woman president heads an institution that has had women presidents in the past.

Sex:: Similar to the whole population, the majority of Thai public university presidents are men. In this study, out of thirteen presidents interviewed, only two presidents were women. Over half of the presidents interviewed (five men and two woman) lead universities inside Bangkok. The other six male presidents run universities located all over Thailand, known as regional institutions.

Table 1
Participants' Sex by Locations of Universities

	Men	Women
Universities in Bangkok	5	2
Regional Universities	6	

Age: The women and men were of a similar age. The median age of the presidents in the study was fifty-eight years old. Half of the subjects were between 61 and 65 years old. The other five were between 51 and 60 years, only one president was between 45 and 50.

Table 2
Presidents' Median Age by Sex

	Men	Women	Total
45 -50 years old	1		1
51-60 years old	4	1	5
61-65 years old	6		6
			12

Note: This table excludes the ex-president because her age at the time of the interview could not be compared with the other twelve presidents

Age When Achieving First Presidency:

When the subjects first achieved the presidency, three were between 40 and 45 years old; five were between 46 and 50 years old; one was between 51 and 55 years old; three were between 56 and 60 years old; and only one was above 60 years old. The median

age of the presidents when first assuming the position was 51 years old.

Table 3 Presidents' Median Age When Sitting as a President for the First Time

	Men No	Women No	Total No
40-45 years old	3		3
46-50 years old	4	1	5
51-55 years old		1	1
56-60 years old	3		3
61-65 years old	1		1

Educational Background:

Highest degree: Eight out of thirteen presidents interviewed held Ph.D., including the woman president. One president held an Ed.D. Another president held an M.D. The last three presidents held master's degrees.

**Table 4
Presidents' Highest Degree by Sex**

	Men No	Women No	Total No
Master's degree	2	1	3
Ph.D.	7	1	8
Ed.D.	1		1
M.D.	1		1

Field of study: Engineering was the leading educational background of most of the presidents. Five presidents held their highest degrees in engineering. The next most common field of background was in Education. Backgrounds in mathematics, business, medicine, social science, law and architecture were equally represented among the rest of the subjects.

Table 5
Presidents' Field of Study

Field of Study	Numbers of Presidents
Engineering	5
Education	2
Mathematics	1
Business	1
Social Science	1
Law	1
Medicine	1
Architecture	1
TOTAL	13

Where did they attend school?

Of all the subjects, there was only one president who received his bachelor and master's degrees from a Thai university. The rest were educated abroad at some point during their educational pursuits.

Seven presidents received their entire college education including their doctorates, from four different English-speaking countries.

Five out of thirteen presidents received their undergraduate degrees from universities in Thailand and later attended a graduate school in another country. Of these individuals, two received their master's and doctoral degrees from the United States. One received a master's and another received two master's degrees from the United States. The last of these five received a master's degree from the United States and a Ph.D. in a European country.

In brief, American colleges were the most commonly attended Master's and doctoral institutions by these top administrators.

Professional Background

Number of years in current position:

At the time of the interview, two presidents were in the first year of their presidencies. Two were completing their fourth year in their presidencies; three were in their fifth year; two were in their sixth year; and, two presidents have been working as presidents of more than one institution more than ten years. (Once again, the only ex-president was excluded from the table 6 because her status at the time of the interview could not be compared with the rest).

Table 6
Number of Years in Presidency

Numbers of Presidents	Years working as a President
2	1
2	4
4	5
2	6
2	10 +

Rank and tenure:

The chief executive officers in this study have strong connections with academia. This is obvious in their holding of faculty rank and tenure. All of the presidents held academic ranking and tenure. Six presidents held full professorships. Other six presidents, two of whom were women (including the ex-president at the time when she was in her presidency), hold the rank of associate professor, and only one president was an assistant professor.

Professional activities:

All the presidents participated extensively in external professional activities. Since Thai public university presidents are considered important civil service figures, most of their external professional activities are associated with the government at both the regional and national levels. Some activities that these presidents participated in were: consultant to the prime minister either or ministers; members of a board of directors of a governmental or regional association; member of a board of directors for the national higher education long-term plan; member of law making committees; and members of various other high-level national committees.

The Presidential Career Paths
(Careers and Career Mobility)

First position before the presidency:

Of thirteen presidents interviewed, six served as a vice president prior to their current positions. The majority of them were

vice presidents for planning and development. Three served as deans or directors. The other two came directly from a high ranking official positions from the Ministry of Higher Education Affairs. One president was recruited from another presidency; the last came directly from a faculty post.

Table 7
Presidents' Prior Positions

Prior Positions	No
President	1
VP	6
Dean/Director	3
Faculty	1
Outside Academics	2
All presidents interviewed total	13

Institutional mobility:

Over half (nine out of thirteen) of all the presidents interviewed were internal candidates. Two came from another institution and the other two presidents came from outside universities.

There was limited mobility among the regional universities and those located in Bangkok. Like their American counterparts, the data support the conventional wisdom that movement occurs within the same type of institutions. It is obvious from this study that the

regional universities also recruited candidates from other regional universities.

There was a substantial level of internal upward mobility in the career paths of the Thai public university presidents. The majority (nine out of thirteen) of the presidents were promoted following Cohen and March's 1974 "logic of hierarchy" -- faculty member, department chair, dean, vice-president, and president. However, a skip in one position existed in several cases. I will discuss about this skip of position later in the chapter.

The likelihood of presidents remaining at the same institution was quite high. At the time of the interview, eight presidents in the study were in their second term at the one same institution; two spent at least three terms at the same institution. (The ex-president also served two terms in her presidency at the same institution). The terms of presidency varied from institution to institution. The terms ranged anywhere from two, three, or four years.

Tradition and Variations:

Nearly all presidents interviewed (twelve out of thirteen) began their careers in public universities as faculty members. The majority of them (nine out of thirteen) moved up their career paths in a traditional manner that followed the promotional hierarchy (except the ex-president who said she served as vice president for four years before becoming a dean and finally reached her presidency).

Two presidents though started their careers as faculty members, they however continued their careers outside the

universities by working for other government agencies that dealt with Thai education. One president, a unique case, began his career with the university as a faculty member and then moved to the presidency by winning the election.

The majority of Thai public university presidents participating in this study began their careers as faculty members and as scholars who gained their names within their disciplines as they moved through administrative lines. Most of them were promoted in a manner similar to what Cohen and March (1974) described as following a promotional hierarchy or promotion through an institution's administrative structure.

While Cohen and March defined the American presidents' "ideal" career path as incorporating five rungs: president, provost, dean department chair and faculty member, I found the "ideal" career path of my Thai subjects different from the American presidents in one aspect. While Cohen and March indicated clearly that the last position leading to a presidency in their "ideal" presidential career ladder was provost, I found the last post before assuming a presidency at a Thai public universities was that of a vice president, usually a vice president of planning and development.

To allow me to better understand the career paths of Thai presidents, I will use Cohen and March's logic of idea and suppose that "ideal" career ladder of Thai public university presidents was nearly similar to Cohen and March's, with the exception that provost position is replaced with vice president for planning and development post.

If the Thai's "ideal" presidential career ladder incorporates five rungs: president, vice president, dean, department chair and faculty member, the data then shows that the career histories of three Thai chief executives match perfectly with this ladder. (Note: in the case of the ex-president, she served as vice-president before serving as a dean. Her case is rather unusual).

The career histories of the other ten presidents do not match perfectly because there were skips in positions as they moved up their career ladders. The skip of one, two, three or more positions in the Thai presidential career ladder may be explained as depending on circumstances and types of institutions. Regional institutions are limited by the numbers of candidates compared to institutions located in Bangkok. In another case, one president said that he was promoted from a faculty position directly to the dean of a college when he was young. This opportunity ironically became available during the civil unrest in 1973. It was a situation when Thai university students were up against the government. It was also a time when democratic ideal and communism corroded.

In addition to the skip in some positions, I also found that four of the presidents interviewed moved around in vice presidents' positions before reaching presidency. Many of them held several vice presidential positions, including provost, before finally becoming university presidents. These moves may have occurred internally or across campuses.

To better understand the Thai presidents' career paths, I will analyze career variation through the figure used by Moore (1983) called "variation on the normative presidential career path." First,

each president's career history was matched with the "ideal" career ladder. Second, each career history found to be unmatched with the ideal ladder was further categorized regarding the types of ordered deviation from the ideal. This meant I had to look at the numbers of rungs that were skipped and the nature of the substitute position(s).

In Figure 1, Variation 1 represents Thai presidents' "ideal" career path that is found in three of the professional experiences of the presidents participating in this study. This indicates that the three presidents served as faculty members, department chairpersons, academic deans, and vice presidents before moving into the presidency.

The next three path variations (2, 3, 4) represent the career histories of the largest numbers of the presidents (seven out of thirteen) who skipped one of the positions identified as part of the ideal career ladder of Thai presidents. The three path variations indicated that these presidents served as faculty members but skipped either a position as a department chairperson, dean, or vice-president on their way to the presidency. Table 8 shows that there are four presidents who skipped a department chairperson position; one skipped a dean's position; and two never served as vice president.

Career path variations 5 and 6 represent the career histories of three presidents who served as faculty members but not department chairpersons, deans, or vice presidents before becoming presidents. Variation 5, in particular, represents individual movement directly from a faculty position to a presidency. Variation 6 shows that the individual served as a faculty member and then moved to positions

outside postsecondary institutions before returning as a president. In these two cases, both presidents left universities to work for other governmental agencies.

Variation	1	2	3	4	5	6
President	•	•	•	•	•	•
Vice-president	•	•	•			
Dean	•	•		•		(out)
Department Chair	•		•	•		
Faculty	•	•	•	•	•	•
		____ Missing 1 ____ position			____ Missing 3 ____ position	

Figure 1. variation on the Normative Presidential Career Path

Table 8

Distribution of Thai public presidential career experiences among the variations of the American "ideal" career trajectory (Borrowed from Moore, 1983)

(N= 13)

Career Path Variations		N
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A.	Perfect Match (#1)	3
B.	Missing 1 Position	
1.	Minus Department Chair(#2)	4
2.	Minus Dean (#3)	1
3.	Minus Vice President (#4)	2
	Sub total	7
C.	Missing 3 Position	
1.	Faculty to President (#5)	1
2.	Faculty to Outside to President (#6)	2
	Sub total	3
	TOTAL	13

Learning to Lead in The Years before Becoming A President

The findings of the Thai college presidents' leadership learning was consistent with Middlehurst's (1993) beliefs. Leadership learning for these Thai presidents began during early childhood and was subject to a wide range of influences and experiences. To arrive at an understanding from these life events, the presidents continuously and actively learned the interconnections between the setting, its purposes and environment, individual and group

behaviors and experiences, and different leadership tasks. They also tested their understandings by acting and reflecting on them.

The presidents' experiences of leadership learning discussed throughout the rest of the chapter strongly supported Gardner's (1995) and Middlehurst's (1993) beliefs that leadership can be learned. Their studies also noted that the learning process is active. It involves engagement with leadership at intellectual, emotional and physical levels (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 165). The crucial ingredients for leadership learning identified by the Thai presidents were similar to Middlehurst's. They included learning about various things: oneself, others, organizational know-how, management skills, and skills to cope with uncertainty.

Leadership development is also a continuous process. The three important elements included in this process are education, training and experience (Hunt, 1992). The following section addresses specifically how the Thai presidents learned and practiced leadership during formal higher education and working experiences.

Learning during Formal Higher Education

The thirteen presidents interviewed were educated at different institutions. Some earned their bachelor degrees from Thai institutions and then earned masters' and occasionally doctoral degrees in other countries. Many left Thailand to attend college in other countries as early as eighteen years of age. Of the thirteen presidents interviewed, only one earned his bachelor's and master's in Thailand. The other twelve traveled abroad to earn degrees in an English-speaking country. (Colleges in the United States of America

were the most popular places, attended by seven of the twelve presidents).

When asked to reflect on their leadership-learning experience during their college years, the thirteen presidents believed that college classroom learning and extracurricular activities contributed to their leadership learning. Only one president stated that leadership could not be taught or trained and his college education had minimum value to his leadership learning. This president talked about a born leader as someone who emerged among others. He stated:

First of all I must make it clear to you....No matter what others may think, but based on my experience, I can tell you right here that leadership cannot be taught. A leader is born. When everyone thinks back, they will see that leadership shows up during the activities of one's life. For example, in a sports team, that person is the one who is the team leader. This will show among group members, including activities in schools. A person's leadership will emerge within a group.

This president believed leadership was an innate characteristic that an individual is born with.

I think (leadership) cannot be taught. No matter how much training a person may receive, it will not come from a true spirit and will not be real. Leadership is not a part-time or temporary condition. Leadership exists as a part of an individual's life.

Another president cautioned me to include learning in early years because she believed the practice of leadership started long before a person attended a college. She said, leadership practice began very early during her childhood. She believed a leader was someone who was in charge and oversaw that a group's mission was met.

Leadership, I say, doesn't start when we are in college. Leadership (practice) will start at the early age. You will notice which child will grow up to be a leader. This will become obvious as early as one or two years old. At a very young age, I always wanted to lead. I may not have realized it but sometimes I would gather my friends to come to play together. This is considered leadership too. Sometimes the situation allowed me to practice being a leader. Though I was the third child of the family, I happened to be the oldest and the biggest among the three who attended the same school at the same time. I had to take my other two siblings to school. I took care of everything for them, even taking the little one to the bathroom. This taught me to be a grown-up.

Despite the belief that leadership training started early in life, this same president agreed that her college experience provided opportunities for her to continue practicing leadership as she grew up. She believed a leader was someone who orchestrated activities among group members and ensured that the group's goals and objectives were met through hard work.

In school activities, I was always the one who set the time for a meeting or a school play rehearsal. In any group work, either in schools or in college, I always volunteered to be a group leader. Sometimes I took this role without being appointed. I wanted to lead and help the group complete our assignment. This meant that I had to work harder for others. Leaders are hard workers. They must be willing to work hard if they want to see the work completed. This may be the characteristic that I have possessed since I was young.

With the exception of the previous informant, the majority of presidents believed that college classroom learning and extracurricular activities contributed to their leadership learning to some degree. One president who completed his bachelor's, master's and Ph.D. in engineering from a university in the United States cited,

classroom education as important to building his fundamental leadership skills:

In college, I was trained to work hard. I was trained to think, speak and write effectively and precisely.

Another president, an honored and a Ph.D. recipient from an institution in Britain, described the value of his undergraduate education and compared Thai teaching methods with those of Britain. He said teaching in Britain would not dig deep into details as did Thai teaching. British teaching, in his experience emphasized the broader dimension of teaching, allowing him to hear a variety of different things at the same time.

Learning in Britain in my time, required that I read a lot and spend a great deal of time in the laboratory. This taught me the importance of combining and connecting between theories and practices. We need to have policies and planning. We were in the laboratory, we must understand theories well so that we would have plans of action. Once the actions were completed, right or wrong, we had to return to check the theories and originate plans. This proved to be beneficial in my work life here. My training in engineering built in me a love of putting theories into practice.

He continued to point out how college education helped develop in him what Gardner would term "leadership knowledge." College education trained him to initiate and complete his own project from scratch. The project required that he think of a question, explore the question, plan the product, and test it. At the doctorate level, the challenge lay in creating innovative ideas and products and publishing in well recognized journals. This college academic training proved useful when he began his career as a college teacher and continued to write, publish, and do research. His ability to write and

do research proved to be an essential credential as he progressed in his career path and became the president of a Thai public university.

Another president who completed his graduate work at a Big Ten university in the Midwest shared a different perspective on the academic value of an American college education. While studying abroad, he was involved in scholarly activities by working closely with the faculty. He tried to attend different seminars that allowed him to meet different scholars and theorists in his discipline. He also participated in professional networking, which kept him updated about current knowledge in the field. He shared with me one example of the benefits of his college education. At one seminar he met a prominent scholar and a well-known theorist from the University of Chicago whom he admired. The two began to develop a teacher-student relationship by sharing books and articles. After this president returned to Thailand, he continued to keep in touch with his colleague. They met at the international seminar. He also used his colleague's books in his class. This graduate school experience provided an opportunity for him to network with scholars in his discipline. This helped in his own learning as he worked to transfer and adapt Western knowledge to a Thai context. Through hard work, he became a leading Thai scholar in his field.

When I asked the presidents how being educated in foreign countries helped them in their careers especially in their presidencies, they all answered that the fluency in a foreign language, especially English, was an advantage to them as they moved along their careers as researchers and scholars who published many of their works in English and established contact with foreign

researchers. This also applied to their roles as university presidents. As representatives of their institutions, they interact with officers from different countries who are interested in supporting and expanding research activities with Thai institutions. As many Thai universities have moved to become international institutions, more leaders are needed who understand the culture of other countries, especially the Western world, as well as being able to speak and write English effectively.

Being educated in a foreign country where the culture differed from Thailand, however, can as well create conflict in some of the presidents' lives, especially when they began to reacculturate to the Thai culture after eight to ten years living and studying overseas. One president recalled that during his first year back, with the head of the department where he and several of his friends taught were charged as young radical minds or "trouble makers." The conflict within the department caused him to leave teaching and enter administration as he worked as an administrative secretary for the president's office. Even in his daily life, this same president expressed the conflict between cultures. While eating lunch alone would be normal in American culture, this was unusual for many Thai co-workers, who wondered why he did not wait to eat with his team, as was normally practiced in Thai culture. It is a normal daily picture in Thailand to see office people walking out in a group of three four or more to lunch for socialize purpose.

Another president talked about how his American education and culture trained him to think more like a Westerner. This was the result of ten years in America; the ten important years as he

matured. American culture taught him to voice his opinions, a habit that is less acceptable in some places in Thai culture. Even today, he still complains about a negative characteristic of Thai culture that he terms "na-wai-lung-lork" or hypocrite. He thinks many Thais do not speak their minds. Because he is in a leadership position, which is seen as being at a top of the hierarchy in most people's eyes, it is difficult to determine who speaks the truth to him.

When asked what experience provided the most lasting value in their leadership learning at the college level, the majority of the presidents interviewed stressed extracurricular activities an essential component. I was amazed when I discovered this pattern in all presidents interviewed. All of them had, at one time led some type of student club. One president said that while he attended law school in Thailand, he served actively as a law consultant for nearly all the student activities clubs in his institution. He represented his institution during a gathering of college students from other institutions. He is involved in the process to establish a center for Thai college students, which still exists till today. A female president recalled her role as a student leader during the time when female student leaders were still rare. She spent four years in undergraduate school as an active student leader and as a tutor to her friends. Tutoring was considered an essential part of learning process because books and materials were limited in those years. She believed this tutoring activity had lasting value in training her in the fundamental "leadership knowledge" that was an ability to transfer knowledge and information to audiences.

Another president shared his story of being involved in nearly all students activities at the college and institutional levels. During his first year in college, he worked as a secretary for the student newspapers, played all types of sports, and also led students to abolish the seniority system in his college. He later headed a student newspaper club and represented his college to work with other leaders of different colleges. During his college years, he also won two UNESCO student leadership training awards to two different countries in Asia. When he returned, he pioneered voluntary work camps for the first time at Thai universities. When this president went abroad to obtain a master's and a doctorate in the United States, he continued as a student activist, establishing the first Thai student organization at his institution and leading a local Buddhist organization. When I asked him to what extent did formal education play a role in his leadership learning, he said:

If you ask me what made me to be the person I am, I will say it comes nearly one hundred percent from my education...I grew and continued to develop my leadership knowledge throughout my entire educational experience.

This president apparently believed his early formal education especially at college levels played crucial role in helping prepare him to be a leader because his students' lives were filled with leadership development activities. He thought he was lucky because his master's and Ph.D. was in educational administration and that allowed him to explore different leadership and management theories. While in graduate school, he won a scholarship to be a part of leadership development. Another opportunity was his six months

internship in president shadowing program where he closely observed the president of one American university at work.

Other presidents who attended college in another country at the age of eighteen were equally active as student leaders. All ten out of twelve presidents who went overseas shared one activity in common: all served as a president of a Thai student organization at their institutions. Some served only one year; others served two years, but all shared similar experiences of leadership training. When asked to identify the value of this experience, these presidents agreed that the Thai student organization enabled them to identify with a group and with Thai culture, which helped ease homesickness. The organization also allowed them to practice leadership skills, such as initiating activities, conducting meetings, and educating other native and foreign students on campus about the Thai culture. One president explained:

Being in a foreign land in the old time could be a very lonely experience. When Thai people can get together and organized activities to satisfy our needs to identify and to be close to our own culture, it helped our homesickness. After the group's needs had been met, we then extended our activities to other communities. We thought we should take this opportunity to share the legacy of our culture with Americans and other foreign friends. Each year we would organize a Thai Night party and invited Americans and other friends from many different countries to experience Thai culture in the form of food, costume, dance, songs and other activities.

One president, who worked in a variety of jobs before becoming a president of Thai student organization in Britain with over one thousand members, believed that the experience served as the first true leadership training for him. He oversaw several activities such

as organizing and conducting meetings, planning and allocating budgets, seeing to the welfare of other members, organizing academic lectures and several New Year's and summer Thai festivals, and issuing a Thai newsletter.

Another president, who as a sophomore led a Thai student organization at one University in California shared with me a unique perspective about the value of this activity. Though most of the activities that he arranged for the organization were social events, he believed he learned how to approach different kinds of people with diverse personalities and needs. He discovered that in order to meet the goals of each activity, he had to be able to mix and match the members' diverse needs. Today, this "leadership knowledge" continues as an essential part of his daily work life as a university president.

This finding supports Middlehurst's (1993) statement that leadership learning is a social process that requires individuals to engage in a continuous dialogue with others, self-analysis and reflection. Since leadership, for the most part, involves relationships between people, leadership learning of these presidents also means learning how to develop interpersonal skills and the ability to analyze human interactions in different settings (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

One president who headed a Thai student organization while studying for his masters' degree in Switzerland, pointed out that the experience helped him network. He interacted with other diplomats and officers in Thai embassy and observed how the consulate operated. Another president who had a similar experience in Britain

stressed that this activity helped extend his networking and introducing him to many important senior officers. This networking paid off when he returned home and worked in state service.

Another president, who led the Thai student organization for two years during his study in Britain, explained "this organization was founded by King Rama VI to serve as a leadership training camp for Thai students abroad during their spare time." He added that while presidents of Thai student organizations at American institutions could choose their own team members, the system used in England was different. His team consisted of people elected to specific jobs. He faced the challenge of working with diverse people whose interests and ideas differed greatly from his. This ability proved beneficial for him when he left school and entered the work arena.

In addition to serving as a student leader of Thai students, one president told me about his leadership role in a fraternity comprised of American and foreign students. "This experience taught me about different cultures, especially the diverse thoughts and interests of students from different countries."

One president also shared how living in a dormitory while studying abroad also taught him how to conduct a meeting in a more formal sense, a new experience for him. While living in the dormitory, he had different opportunities to observe the dormitory staff's annual meetings. All the members wore suits and gowns that looked like graduation gowns. The meeting involved long, step-by-step procedures including the thorough use of articles. This experience proved beneficial to his career:

That was the first experience that I was exposed to a formal meeting. This helped me when I later had to organize a departmental meeting and meetings that required rules and regulations. All these required that I organized everything step by step. This helped teaching me how to prevent conflict in a meeting.

Despite the large amount of time these presidents spent on extracurricular activities while in college, some presidents also mentioned part-time work, such as working as a stack person in a library or tutoring younger children. Their employment not only gave them extra money, it also allowed them to meet a variety of people in the workplace.

Learning through Different Work Experiences

Learning from Working as a Faculty:

A long-used Thai public university guideline states several qualifications potential presidential candidates must have. One clearly stated qualification is that a candidate must have specific number of years of experiences in college teaching. As a result, the career path of a Thai public university president, in most cases, began with a faculty position. When asked if this trend would continue, many presidents saw the possibility of change in the next ten years. They believed this change may be the result of Suranaree University of Technology in 1990 which is the first "state university outside the civil service system, under the supervision of the Ministry of University Affairs." Suranaree University, the first full autonomous institution that is not a government agency, is comparable to an American state university. While the state still

offers certain guidelines, Suranaree University enjoys autonomy in governance, especially in budgeting and personnel matters. Experts have predicted that revolutionary change would occur in Thai public universities since many institutions are watching the model university in operation. At the time of the interview, several universities are already working on calling for full autonomy in governance from the Thai government.

One president, a supporter of this new university model believed that a college teaching career was not necessary for a university president.

For the presidency, I do not think teaching experience is necessary if that candidate is a professional administrator who understands the nature and roles of a university. However, this candidate must be an individual with all recognizable management credentials that may be accepted and respected by people in an academic circle. And to be able to understand the nature and roles of a university, a candidate need not be a faculty member.

Despite these changes in personal views, all the presidents I interviewed taught at a university for some years. Many spoke positively and fondly of their teaching careers. When I asked them to reflect back on their favorite career in the past, many of my informants identified teaching as their most favorite job. Teaching gave one female president a sense of pride to be able to help others grow intellectually and economically.

While I was teaching, I felt very proud to see my students graduate and find a job. Some of my students had very limited incomes. After they graduated from college, they were able to build their futures. I felt very proud to see many of them doing well economically and many attained high positions in governmental offices.

Another president said his college teaching was a lot less stressful than his administrative job. He talked about teaching with personal appreciation. Teaching, to him, was an experience comparable to writing books, novels, or poems, which he loved to do and was good at it. "These kinds of work give pleasure to life. Teaching brought happiness to my life."

Another president who worked in and out of universities and in the Ministry of higher education Affairs, shared that he knew and was determined to pursue a career in teaching early in his life. However, his career focused more on administration, as he was quickly steered into administrative work. Throughout his career as an administrator, he tried to teach at least one class. When I asked why he loved teaching, he told me a story about his early life how it connected with teaching and learning.

I was determined to be a teacher early on my life. When I was a child, I was unhealthy and school was far away. I did not attend school at the age I should have. My father was my teacher at home. When I finally entered school, I was three years behind other kids my age. In grade one, the teacher let me help her with the teaching. I have continued to teach my friends ever since. I always felt pleasure with teaching and appreciated the joyfulness it brought. I felt teaching was a prestigious occupation; it was something I wanted to do for the rest of my life. Finishing first in my high school class, I immediately chose teaching as my college major.

One city president talked of teaching as going hand in hand with research. The pleasure received from a college faculty career meant an opportunity to teach others, conduct research and interact with other scholars. He compared his teaching job to his administrative job:

It was fun...fun..having an opportunity to interact with scholars who shared similar interests with me, especially to exchange knowledge. This provided intellectual growth for me. When I became an administrator, I had to deal with all sorts of conflicts and problems that were hard to solve and tiring. Actually, I want to be a teacher and live an academic life more than becoming an administrator.

Another president believed being a faculty member in the college of medicine was a challenging job. However, when he thought back he realized it was his favorite career. He said teaching in a Thai public university, which is a government agency, can be a challenge to personal growth. Under this system, it is hard to get in. However once an individual gets in, s/he is set for life as long as an individual meets the necessary requirements. The current system requires minimum expectations of faculty members. Most Thai college faculty mainly teach with limited research responsibilities and service activities. Thai university faculty rarely do research because the current system lacks support and incentives to make the experience worthwhile in the eyes of majority of faculty. This dilemma for knowledge growth in Thai higher education is reflected in this president's words.

It turned out that I loved this teaching time because it had lots of memory involved. It was the job that gave me both disappointment and pleasure at the same time. The department head rarely paid attention to me or gave me any care and guidance. Everything seemed to depend on myself. Lucky, I speak and write English, all I did during that time was to write and publish. To grow personally and professionally in a (Thai) governmental service career depends mainly on one's hard work and strong ambition. Without ambition, one will continue to be an ordinary teacher. With ambition, one may be a good college teacher-- the one who

teaches, researches, serves and provides cultural preservation.

Whether a college- level teaching job will still be part of the career paths for future Thai public university presidents or not, is difficult to know. The presidents I interviewed, however, once taught as professors at a university. Most taught for many years and enjoyed careers as scholars. A college professor's life gave these presidents valuable learning lessons about leadership from the perspectives of faculty members who are important participants in the organization called colleges and universities. A college professorship allowed these presidents to understand how to help students achieve. The job also allowed them to interact closely with students.

This experience taught these presidents lasting leadership knowledge that paid essential role in forming the academic leaders they have become today. The followed list details leadership knowledge these presidents feel they gained by being faculty members during the early portions of their early careers.

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1. The experience allowed them to understand the nature and life of the institution and the true functions of the university from the perspectives of those who live with it.
 2. The experience allowed them to live closely with other academic people, thus helping them understand the shared and unique needs of different faculty members.

3. The experience allowed them to learn about the culture of scholars.
4. The experience helped them understand faculty members' work and duties.
5. The experience allow them to see and understand the problems and obstacles that exist within the universities from the perspectives of faculty members who live them daily.
6. The experience allowed them to develop a network of friends within the institution who would later become their primary supporters as they moved along their career paths.
7. The experience gained in a teaching job through reading and research created the love in life long pursuit of self education, a necessary characteristic of a good administrator.
8. Teaching allowed them to practice the art of public speaking and communication, taught them how to transfer information and how to speak so that students would understand them. This became a useful skill when these presidents became leaders and had to define and simplify the language so that all constituents would speak the same language during institutional planning process.

Many of the presidents felt the above learning experience paid off when they became university presidents. They offered a variety of examples to support their points. One president believed by

experiencing the life of a faculty member, it was easier for him to handle plans associated with teaching staff when expanding the institution and how to care for the teaching staff to ensure their satisfaction with his institution. Another president recalled the time when he first became the president that he relied on his knowledge about college teaching to rewrite the vision and make adjustments to the university missions when he found that the two conflicted with the reality of teaching at his institution.

Another president mentioned that his earlier life as a faculty member made him well aware of the university's life and people. As president, he continued to use the same communication method and leadership strategies, seeking consults and using personal and expert influence rather than power to influence in his dealings with faculty members. When faculty members experience problems that were called to his attention, he would try to approach the problem from the perspectives of faculty members as well. He believed this could be done only because he once faced the same problems as a faculty member.

Another president who believes strongly that a Thai university president should once in her or his life have been a faculty member explained the connection between teaching and administrative experiences:

The president's duties include overseeing the teaching and learning of the university and dealing with personnel matters. If the president lacks the knowledge of how faculty members work, this would create problems. Managing faculty members differs from managing other groups of personnel such as administrative staff. Unlike other staff, faculty members secure academic freedom. This affects how they will spend

their time in the work place. You cannot ask why faculty members don't come in to work at eight thirty every morning.

Learning from Working as a Researcher:

Two presidents identified research and development work as the most favorite parts of their job. The first president, who gained a national reputation as a researcher and as a team leader in many research activities, said his interest in research was inspired by his curiosity and the needs of the nation. He believed that Thailand should increase research activities so that Thai people would be able to support themselves in a long run. When discussing research, this president also shared similar views with several other presidents that in his earlier career, he never wanted or intended to be an administrator but a researcher. He never aspired to be a university president. However, he was asked by a search committee to join an administrative team as a president in helping a newly established institution recover from a bad year of leadership. He felt he could not deny the request.

When it was necessary and the institution needed me, I asked if I would be able to help them. I wanted to do my best. Today, I work with very cheap labor. My salary as a university president is only 30,000 bahts (approximately U.S.\$ 1200) a month and I am now at the age where I could retire. Though I receive a low salary, I continue to work only because I want to contribute to my society. If I had not been asked to take this job, I would not seek it. If I had to win an election to work as the president, I would never do it.

Similar to teaching, research provided an important learning experience for this president's leadership learning. Group research allowed members to practice working with others for a long period of

time. By heading many research activities, he learned to coordinate, mix and match people's talents and to oversee that the projects would succeed and make the most contribution to the society at large. The leader of a research team, he said, must establish high credibility in scholarship as the foundation for building trust among the members. A leader must be able to help the team reach its best potential.

The second president said that his favorite work in the past was heading the center for research and development. He was the initiator of the center, which served as the contact with outside industries and markets to bring projects to the university. The job helped him to develop internal and external networks which in turn allowed him to locate certain expertise within and outside the institution. He also oversaw the completion of different projects and allocated resources received. When asked why he liked this job, he said because it was just a small ordinary job title. Though the job appeared less important in other people's eyes, it was the job that required the best of him as he tried to establish workable formats for the center. When talking about this job, this president, too, shared with me how he never planned or wanted to become a university president.

He said he did not like the president job for two reasons: first, because it required attendance at countless numbers of social events and public speaking at these events, which did not match with his personal interest and personalities. Second, the job requires too much paper work and a variety of hundreds of problems that consume most of his time. He would rather spend his time on

development work. Though he never planned or wanted to become a university president, he could not turn down the requests of his former mentor (the ex-president) and the institutional community at large who believed strongly in his ability to move his institution ahead. The same institution where he has spent at least thirty years of his working life. At that time, when he was a vice president, he tried to avoid taking a presidency.

I tried to put off the situation by asking the ex-president to hold the seat as long as he could till was too tired to continue. Even when he finished his first two terms as a president, I continued to ask him to return.

When I interviewed this president, he was in his fifth year of the second term as a university president.

Learning from Working As a University Administrator:

Three out of the ten presidents who worked at different administrative post at universities till becoming a president said they had positive memories of their administrative work, especially as deans and early in their presidencies. Their appreciation came not as a result of holding a title but from holding a position with power that could be positively used to improving academia at their institutions. They dreamed of such results while still faculty members faced with scarce resources. The two old presidents (one was in his seventh year in presidency and another was in his thirteenth year in presidency at his second institution) who took part in building two regional Thai universities also added that their appreciation of their administrative jobs was a result of the time factor as well. One president explained:

At that time, I was able to do a lot of things; there was work everywhere waiting for me. It was during the early years. Whatever I wanted to do turned out to be a recognizable contribution. I was in a pioneering team. This allowed me to use the best of myself by putting my ideologies into practice. I was motivated to work with the newly established university. If I worked at an older university, I probably would not have had the similar opportunity.

Another president recalled that being at an academic institution thirty years ago was challenging, especially when he had just returned from the western world and had to work at Thai institution where materials were scarce. Despite the scarcity of resources, he still felt there were many opportunities that motivated him to continue to work at the newly established university.

When I asked all ten presidents who moved along the administrative hierarchy what they learned from working as administrators in different positions, they all agreed they learned a great deal from each administrative job. They learned leadership skills that prepared them to be future university presidents in Thai institutions.

Learning from Chairing University Departments:

One president believed that heading a department provided an opportunity for him to learn about his faculty's strengths and weaknesses and how to handle personnel matters. He learned how to balance his personal moral judgment with institutional rules and regulations when dealing with personnel problems. This experience is applicable to his current work as a president. He said "It helped me to be at ease with the decision-making process."

Learning from Working as a College Dean:

Presidents who were once served as deans of the college of **their** discipline thought the deanship provided a good training **ground** as a simulation of a larger organization for future presidents. A college represented a smaller unit that is comparable to a **university**. One female president who became the president **immediately** following her deanship, believed that the dean's job **made** it easier for her to make the transition. She believed that such **experience** was more necessary than a vice-presidency because the **deanship** allowed her to exercise a greater amount of leadership **when** compared to vice-presidency.

I don't think it is necessary that a president must be a vice-president before her or his presidency. In any job, being a vice president or an assistant requires less leadership practice than being a leader of a smaller unit. A vice-president still has to work under the guidance and policies laid out by the president. A university president, however, should have at least been a dean to experience real leadership practice.

The following is a list of examples of leadership experience gained **from** working as a college dean, as agreed upon by several **presidents**:

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1. The job offered experience in all aspects regarding the governance of students, faculty, and staff.
 2. The job taught the future university presidents all aspects of administration in academics, personnel, and finance.

3. The job exposed them to the difficulties and burdens involved in the work of a university administrator, thus helping these women and men understand the life of middle management.
 4. The job served as a training ground to test administrative theories and skills while trying to learn from the mistakes as well as from achievements. While it is often less risky and more acceptable for a dean to make mistakes. One president noted that presidents are not allowed to make mistakes. The experience of working as a dean prepared and helped these people to make fewer mistakes as presidents.
 5. The deanship taught them how to live with a large group of people and how to mix and match strengths of people to ensure the success of a variety of projects.
 6. The deanship provided direct opportunities to learn how to deal with diverse groups of faculty members. The experience taught them how to become academic leaders and how to communicate with faculty members by using expert and reference power rather than position power, which has no place in an organization called college and university.
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Learning from the Vice-president's Position:

Eight presidents, whose career paths included working as university vice-presidents as their final step before becoming

university presidents, believed that the vice-presidency was a good place for them to learn in advance about the job of a university president. Several of them spent several years moving from one vice-presidency to another and learning different fields of knowledge. Some experienced movement within a university and the others moved from university to another. One president called his vice-presidency the "school" that helped him to pass the exam to become a university president at the proper time. Unlike a deanship, the vice-president's job requires a person to work within a specific scope of employment, for example in curriculum development, student services, research and development and so on.

The presidents whose career paths included a university vice presidency all agreed that the benefits received were numerous. The following list details these benefits.

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1. An opportunity to work on tasks that were part of the president's responsibilities. They were allowed to learn and practice in advance some parts of the president's work requirement. Those informants who moved from one vice- presidency to another during their careers gained longer practical training time.
 2. The vice presidency provided an opportunity for these future presidents to market themselves and make themselves known to the community through recognizable work and achievement.

3. An opportunity to learn how to deal with people from different colleges and how to compromise, balance, and handle conflicts of interests.
4. An opportunity to use their best knowledge and abilities to work on specific areas of expertise, while not having to worry about their own leadership performance, since they are members of a team. One president explained

Being a vice-president was easier. I was required to perform work of my own expertise. I did not have to be responsible for the leadership thing. We were just number two, number three, number four while the president was number one. Sometimes it was easy. Responsibilities could be pushed to the top.

5. An opportunity to work closely with the ex-president who most of the time ended up as their mentor and taught them what it meant to be a university president. Former presidents often served as the current presidents' role models. One president interviewed said "I learned to copy what I considered strengths in my former boss and use them as role-models."

Learning from Other Jobs Outside the Universities:

One president began his career not as a college faculty but as a lawyer at a firm. When I asked him to reflect back on how his law career helped him with leadership learning, he said it taught him how to communicate. He learned to ask questions from different points of view and how to study patterns that exist in conversations.

Today, as a university president, he said he still uses these skills when communicating with other people, especially at a time of crisis when investigation for the truth is involved.

The two other presidents, though starting out as faculty members, moved to other governmental agencies before returning as presidents. They stated that this nontraditional career path helped them with their university presidencies. One president said that while working with the Ministry of Higher Education Affairs, he was involved with long-term policies and planning for the development of Thai higher education. After he became a university president, it was easier for him to lead the development of his institution's plans and policies along the same direction as the national plan. His familiarity with the ministry's inner workings also made it easier for him when he dealt with the ministry as his institution's representative. One example was his success in establishing the new science college for his institution, whose reputation had been as a social-science institution. As a former ministry employee, he knew what kind of proposal and preparation the ministry would be looking from the university. He knew which proposal would be rejected and which would be approved. Knowing that government would look for readiness in terms of teaching staff and materials, he spent many years preparing for the new college by creating new disciplines as programs and placing them in a related science college. Once these programs had grown in terms of expertise and materials, he then asked his team to submit the proposal to the government. It was approved.

The experiences gained while working at the ministry, as a reviewer of university proposals, eased my work as a university president. Without this experience, I probably would have submitted the proposal prematurely.

Another president who once worked at the Ministry of Higher Education Affairs credited his past job in the Ministry as helping him to make good connections between higher education at the national and institutional levels. While working in the ministry, he also had an opportunity to increase his network with different powerful people at the national levels. This came in handy during his presidency.

(A position) at the Ministry of Higher Education Affairs helped me on several ways with my current presidency. I explored different experiences at the broader national level. I looked at higher education from a national point of view. I worked with national plans and policies and coordinated them at the government level. When I came to work at the university level, which was on a smaller scale, I was capable of viewing both the small and large picture. Many connections that I developed at the Ministry of Higher Education Affairs came in handy for the benefit of the university. I believe when they search for a university president, they should not only look for personal credentials but also the connections that come with a candidate. Connections are hard to build and they take time. When a person has made it to the top of the organization, the connections with people at national levels and among ministries seem to come automatically.

Learning from Other People

Consistent with Borland's (1976) and Dotterer's (1989) findings, events and people play important roles in facilitating the acquisition of these leaders' presidential career positions. Like many American college presidents in Borland and Dotterer's studies, the Thai

presidents identified a specific person who contributed to their growth. Events that proved to help move them into higher education administration was encouragement from a co-worker or supervisor and/or bad experiences with specific administrators. Different people and circumstances in the presidents' lives were also reported as influential to them. The people identified included professors, teachers, coaches, other college presidents, spouses, family members, or other superiors in the job situation. Consistent with Kouzes and Posner's (1987), findings, these significant others such as colleagues, supervisors, and mentors played important roles in their leadership learning. They served as role models for appropriate behaviors and occasionally identified inappropriate behaviors for the presidents. They also provided inspiration, advice, feedback, instruction, counseling and/or sponsorship.

When asked who was most influential in their success, the presidents' answers can be grouped into three categories:

1. Immediate relatives, such as father, mother, or spouse
2. Those of higher position or higher seniority, such as former bosses or teachers
3. Friends, colleagues, and subordinates

The teaching and learning strategies found among the presidents and their parents, mentors, and spouse most often developed into three patterns:

Direct teaching: Most often occurred in a parents/child relationship such as advising, being a model for the child, providing the child with the

facts and allowing the child to share responsibilities during a family crisis.

Indirect teaching: Most often this occurred in a boss/subordinate relationship, such as being given the opportunity to observe and/or work on a variety of tasks, including those requiring high risks, delegating work based on trust to subordinates and allowing them to learn from their successes and failures.

Supportive role: Most often this occurred in the spouse relationship. The spouse provides and supports opportunities of other partners to grow professionally.

Learning from Parents:

The following findings were consistent with Borland's (1976) study. Similar to their American counterparts, these Thai presidents identified several experiences they believed affected them in adulthood, both personally and professionally. Several of the presidents in this study talked about the effect of growing up during difficult times. They believed they learned a great deal as a result of doing without material comforts while growing up. Much learning occurred when these presidents were young. Several presidents explicitly stated that their beliefs and values were influenced by their early experiences. Certain values and beliefs that were instilled in these individuals at younger ages continued to have powerful

effects on them as adults and leaders. These values included the importance of hard work, the belief in the goodness in all people, integrity, perseverance, responsibility, being unselfish, positive thinking, self-confidence, competitiveness, and the desire to help other people.

Several presidents in this study cited their parents as the most influential for their success. The same president who learned many lessons from everyday life, identified his mother as the most influential person in his life. He said his mother was the one who demanded he continue his education. She always told him that nothing was more worthwhile in life than an education. As he reached college age, his mother sold her gold belt to send him overseas for college education.

Another president, who earlier spoke in this chapter that he was an unhealthy young boy who had to stay home and receive home schooling from his father, identified his parents as the main inspiration of his life. He said his father, who was his first teacher, taught him to read and write and inspired him to become a teacher. He was the only one in the family who became a civil servant-- the rest of the family were either merchants or farmers. Besides teaching him to read and write, his father set a good example how to lead a life as a decent man. Unfortunately his father passed away at the age of 69 leaving his mother to care for the family alone.

His mother then became the most significant role model for this president. He recalled that his family was poor so his mother had to work very hard. His mother taught him to fight for life, to work hard and to know what life was. According to him, his mother was an

example of a woman of strength, endurance, diligence, and bravery. He believed his mother taught him the ability to tolerate problems, and cope with crisis and be brave in making decisions when needed.

My mother taught me about life. Besides being the head of the family (after my father died), she also led a working team. She was a hard worker. We children had to help her by working very hard under her supervision. She taught us how to work and how to lead our lives not through words but through real-life experiences. She presented herself as an example to her children. All the children in my family worked, cooked, had to work at our grocery store and delivered goods to customers.

Another president identified his mother as the person who taught him most about Buddhist philosophies, especially about moral and justice. He also talked about his father as the person who taught him about manhood and the significance of fighting for a better life.

Another president identified Buddha and his father as the two most important figures in his life. He said he read a lot of Buddha's teaching and tried to lead his personal and working lives according to the Buddhist philosophy. His father, who had only few years of schooling was a successful self-learner who set an example for his son at a very young age.

I remember the early time when my father was a merchant who boated along the Chaopaya River where roads were unavailable. I remember seeing my father always reading books. He subscribed to political journals, learned to speak Chinese and English from books that he brought when coming in town and was eventually able to communicate with Chinese people and read English labels on medicine packages.

This president thought he learned to love to read, to observe and enjoy a life long learning from his father. At a young age, he learned to communicate with different accents and diverse cultures

from workers who came from different part of the country to work in his parents' fields.

Learning from Colleagues:

Seven of the thirteen presidents interviewed cited former bosses as their mentors who were their role models for their career. Most of the presidents enjoyed more than one mentor in their lives. Many had two, three, or more. Different mentors served as different role models, depending on what the presidents saw as their mentors' strengths. Most of the mentors cited were their immediate bosses with whom they worked closely throughout their career paths.

One male president of a regional university told me that he had many people who played special roles in his success. Two were former bosses. He shared with me memories of four different mentors whom he used as role models for his life. Each mentor had a different personality and leadership style; each represented a unique role model for this president's personal and work life.

The first mentor named was a military man who represented the model of person that the president used in leading his life. His model was an honest, trustworthy, industrious, ambitious, and practical person.

The second mentor was the person who could adapt and adjust and knew what it took to work successfully in Thailand's environment. This mentor had a strong sense of direction and a determination to complete manageable planned objectives. The president defined this model as:

a style of person that I am today. Someone who can work at any level. Someone who steps out of the tower to see what is going on in the field and tries to solve the problems in the field rather than sit in the tower.

The third mentor was a former university president and a charismatic man. He was someone who could communicate well with people and make other subordinates feel good about themselves. He was also a peace maker, a kind-hearted person who had a unique way of handling a crisis and knew how to bring people back together during difficult times. He was the person that everyone loved and highly respected.

The fourth mentor, who was another former university president, was a man of vision and planning.

He was a knowledgeable and talented person who completed many important irrigation projects for Thailand. He was a hard working-person who worked with his staff all day and all night.

The strengths of the four mentors represented different models for this president's personal and working life. The completed model that this president uses in leading his personal and professional life is a combination of the strengths that he picked from his different mentors and place them together where he felt most perfect for him. When asked what method these mentors used to teach him, the president believed it was an indirect method. He was given different opportunities to work with his mentors on different projects. During these projects, this president would observe their working styles and behaviors, especially those he considered effective and valuable.

The second president, whose former bosses became important mentors, shared with me the stories of two important mentors in his

life: one male and one female. The male mentor was the ex-president and his direct superior, a man of intelligence who was skillful and quick in completing his work. He was also just, stable, and a risk taker. His teaching style was rather indirect in that he opened many opportunities and support for this president to attempt a variety of tasks.

By working closely with him, I learned how to be a cautious leader who could visualize the possible flaws and drawbacks in any plans and be able to prevent problems before they occurred.

The female mentor, another former boss, was a thorough and sensitive leader who taught him how to be a caring, a people-oriented leader. "She was the leader who was not afraid to show her emotional side to me. When she told me the story of a student who was in a crisis, she cried."

The third president shared with me that he had only one mentor, his long time direct superior, an ex-university president whom he believed could be his teacher for life. This mentor was a mix between a task- and a people- oriented leader. While he emphasized quality of work for excellence in academia, he also gave good care of his subordinates.

He was supportive and understanding. He delegated work to me and allowed me to learn on the job. Above all, he taught me the value of trust that proved the key for a successful relationship between a leader and followers.

The fourth president said he was lucky because he always had good bosses throughout his careers. Most of his bosses were good friends as well as good teachers who gave suggestions and taught him successful working philosophies for his life. While working with

these mentors, this president observed his leaders' behaviors, thinking, and decision-making patterns. There were both good and bad times. Both, however, turned out to be important learning lessons for this president. He said:

I remember my department head asked me to compose a letter in English. I think he wanted to test me to see how well I could write in English as I had just graduated from a school in the Western world. The first letter that I submitted he corrected almost every word. At first I felt desperate and lonely but as time went by, I got used to it. I think there was an important learning lesson there.

He continued to talk about the relationship with this department head, the man who influenced his decision to continue working with the government agency.

When I first returned to Thailand, I felt my salary with the university was very small. I also dreamed of working at the international level. I applied for an international job where I would be stationed in Paris. When I submitted my intent to leave the university to my department chair, he asked me how I could be so ungrateful to the alma mater that gave me my scholarship for education overseas. I felt ashamed. I continued to work for the university. In thinking back, it's like my superior tried to teach me something and tried to keep me in academia. This is the story of how I became the government servant, unable to leave, up till today. Looking at it from one dimension, I owed this to my superior who inspired me to stay with this educational system. If, however, I look at it from a personal dimension, if I left to work overseas, I might be richer than this. (He laughed)

The fifth president, who was female, told me that there were three mentors in her life, two male and one female. All of her mentors were former superiors whom she called professor. These mentors gave her support, advice and direction, helped her networking, and served as models of good behaviors.

One mentor taught me different things about leadership, such as thinking of others rather than self; learning how to think; and being brave to lead others. He had a unique way of teaching others--he brought up a problem and asked that I and others think about the solutions. Everyone was encouraged to voice their opinions. When his ideas were wrong, we could also tell him and bring explanations to the table.

A similar scene might not be available in many universities. This president believed it was also the culture of her institution that allowed her to participate in administrative leadership. She concluded:

My institution is like that. People here are activists. They place their hands on every issues. They speak up, whether right or wrong. They all share and voice opinions until the best ideas are found.

The sixth president believed he learned a great deal from all of his superiors. Different superiors taught him different things. One female superior continuously guided him and provided a variety of food for thought. Another superior, who was an ex-university president, trained him for administration and leadership. Like most presidents aforementioned, the president learned from these mentors by observing them at work over a period of time.

What is most important for one to grow is to observe. One must observe his surroundings and try to find meaning and be able to make sense of what one sees in front of oneself.

These findings supported McCall et al. (1988) and Middlehurst et al. (1992), who noted that most of the time learning on the job is less systematic and is achieved through observation, discussion, trial and mistakes. Activities and circumstances, such as special projects, a broader scope of tasks or responsibilities, being oriented with role

models, conflicts with superiors or subordinates have all been identified as potential experiences for leadership learning.

The seventh president shared with me that his mentor was his guardian, whom he lived with for many years. What this mentor taught him was to be a good human being who had a respectable manner. Like many mentors, his guardian taught him through example and by being a role model. He shared with me how he learned his table manners by observing the way his mentor arranged the table, used utensils and a napkin, and how he did not speak when chewing food. His mentor also taught him how to do laundry and iron cloths.

He was not picky with me. Nothing liked that. He went about doing his business as usual but me, I observed. While living with him, I tried to be a good help. I would clean and dust his bicycle and carry it up and down the stairs for him. He had a car, but preferred to use a bicycle. I also learned how to arrange furniture in the office, where to put the typewriter.... When I was a student, I once wrote a report with the title "Lessons from a dining room".... How we eat and what we eat can teach us many things.

Support from spouse and children:

Five presidents (two females and three males) identified their spouses and children as crucial supporters. One female president said

My husband respects my professional growth and supports my work outside the home. He never questions how I would spend my time. My children also require less of their mother's time by behaving well and never create any problems for their mother.

Another female president believed her success as a married woman in professional work was possible because she had a good family life. This meant that her husband and only one child were dependable and supportive. She stated "Family is important. Only if there is no problems in our house, we will be able to spare our hearts and find time to work for others."

Three male presidents talked about the supportive roles of their wives and children. Being supportive to the male presidents meant their wives required less time of them and allowed them to spend a greater amount of time on professional work. One president recalled the time when he had to leave his wife behind in Bangkok for one year while he was living at the university down south. "My wife never complained, but encouraged me to pursue my career. All of these would not be possible without her strength."

Another male president said he was lucky to have a wife who understood him and children who grew up well behaved and successful in schooling. His wife never complained about his long hours of work or his low civil-service salary. He stated "Family is important. The quality of my professional work depends on the quality of my personal life."

The third president believed his wife was the most important person behind his success.

She demands less of my time. She takes good care of the children and motivates me to go forward with my professional aspirations. She also brings in a significant income for the family, which makes it possible for me to continue to work as a public university employee with a limited salary.

Presidential Selection: the Presidents' Views

When I examined the critical contributions to their achievements in their presidencies, I discovered the presidents of the Thai public universities named different things. Many believed they helped themselves through continuous years of hard work. Others identified support from search committees and institutional communities. Some said it was a combination of the search process and time appropriation.

One president thought 75 percent was a payoff from a life of hard work, while the rest depended on chance--whether one would be nominated by a search committee. Another president said it was the search committee who came to him after he had retired. He pointed out that being chosen for a presidency also depended on a match between one's known personality and qualifications and the needs of the institution. The search committee approached him because they knew that although he had already retired, his expertise could help his alma mater. Because of his love for and connection to his alma mater, he did not turn down the search committee's request. "At that time, I felt my life actually could be divided into two, one that I called my own personal being and the other was devoted to my work."

Another president believed his achievements in his administrative career came from his own hard work and devotion, combined with situations where institutions were facing crises. Throughout his life, he was called upon to solve different problems and crises at different academic institutions. He remembered an early administrative job where he was asked to joined an

administrative team to deal directly with student uprisings based on the qualification that he was once a student activist during his college years. The committee also felt that his age and experience allowed him to communicate more effectively with the angry students. Later, while working for the Ministry of Higher Education Affairs, he was sent to solve a different crisis as an acting president at several universities. He described his advancement in his administrative career as "depending on situations and the push from authorities." He added

I never ran around or campaigned for a position and nobody ever pampered or mentored me either. Briefly, my path to the college presidency was determined by the situations that arose. When the situations were there and the authorities saw a match between my abilities and the crisis, they then pushed me into it. This is the reason why I never felt I owed anything to any particular persons.

One president of a smaller institution believed time also played important role. He stated that it was how long one worked for an institution combined with how well the person contributed to his alma mater. "It is like when a fruit is ripe, people in the institution would see it and ask you to take this job."

Four other presidents, who achieved their presidencies partly through votes from an internal community, said the votes from their colleagues and friends in the institutions helped determine their futures as presidents. Effective campaign teams made a world of difference in the election process. Under the election system, the presidents concluded it depended on one's qualifications compared to the other candidates, the quality of the campaign pursued and the voters.

One of the four respondents was the president who said he wanted to be a university president because he felt he could handle the problems facing his institution. He told me he had to run for election four times before he finally won. He believed winning the presidential race was the result of his learning about strengths and weaknesses of the institution and by networking with the different groups of people in it.

When I asked the presidents to name the three major reasons why they thought they were chosen as presidents of their institutions, their answers varied. The following list provides the most crucial factors that explained why these future presidents were chosen to lead their institutions. The list is ordered according to the frequency of citations. For example, 5 indicates it was cited by five presidents.

Followed is a list of most crucial factors the presidents believed helped them to be chosen as presidents:

-
1. Displaying special characteristics of a good leader such as hard working, industrious, caring, trustworthy, just, risk-taker, knowledgeable, talented, good health, kind-hearted, and having good human relationships and communications skills (5).
 2. Maintaining respectable career histories and good family life (4).
 - 3 Participating in the history and the pioneer team which helped build their institutions. They know the

institutions well and have a good sense of direction for the institutions (4).

4. Having a number of years of administrative experience at different levels, especially as a dean and a vice president (3).
 5. Having a long list of achievements and national recognition for administrative and scholarly work (3).
 6. Having an academic rank, especially at the professorship level (3).
 7. Having the personality, qualifications, and expertise that match the needs of the institution, especially at a time when the institution is facing a crisis (2).
 8. Presenting institutional plans that satisfies the board of regent at the time of the interview (2).
 9. Having experience in education and a good understanding of both Thai higher education and university life (2).
 10. Being an internal candidate who has served the institution all of his/her professional life (2).
 11. Having a strong connection and network with outside constituencies, including important powerful figures at the governmental level (1).
 12. Talent in fund-raising (1).
 13. Having an ability to communicate with larger audiences, especially an ability to put theories into practical terms that are understood by all audiences (1).
-

Many of the factors cited by the presidents were quite predictable. Important factors cited most often by the presidents included qualifications regarding leadership, acceptance among academic communities, personal conduct, holding the rank of professor, and positive administrative experiences tended to match the written qualifications in the guidelines for a presidential search (see literature review). What is considered new information refers to the fact that some presidents believed being able to present institutional plans that satisfied the board of regent's at the time of the interview was also a crucial factor that explained why they were chosen to lead their institutions. This implies that good preparation for an interview must not be overlooked.

"Having a good family life" was frequently cited by many presidents. This strongly reflects the Thai values and the Thai civil service system which require that all civil servants must maintain an acceptable family lifestyle to secure employment with the government. Factors regarding their participation in the history and a pioneer team who helped build their institutions appeared to me to be the only factor that may be less applicable for future candidates for university presidency. The reason behind this is that the era of university establishment will soon pass. What left ahead would be more in the form of extension of campuses.

What also interesting about the list is to see that the ability to raise funds was hardly cited by these presidents. The apparent reason is because Thai public universities, except for the two newly established Suranaree and Walairak universities, are fully supported by the government. This factor clearly differentiates the work of the

Thai public university presidents from those of their American counterparts. While fund-raising skills are de-emphasized here in Thailand, it is placed at the top of the list in American presidential search guideline. If Suranaree and Valairak universities succeed in their governance system, it is probable that the Thai government will allow autonomous governance in the public institutions within the next decade. If this is the case, fund-raising, which is now at the bottom of the list, will become a top priority, as is the case with the American system.

Overall, the Thai presidents' perceptions of why they were chosen to lead their institutions appear rather predictable. It is, however, fair to ask if there are other factors that were not mentioned or were left off the list. Factors such as the political aspect of the search process may be considered harder to reveal at the time of the interview.

Summary

The findings of research question I, which deals with characteristics; educational background; the Thai public university presidents' career paths; and most importantly, how the presidents learned to be leaders, were presented in this chapter. Thai public university presidents participating in this study were academics; most were promoted in a manner similar to Cohen and March's (1974) description of following a promotional hierarchy or promotion through an institution's administrative structure.

The data from the interviews revealed that the thirteen presidents' experiences of leadership learning strongly supported Gardner's (1995) and Middlehurst's (1993) beliefs that leadership may be learned and that the learning process was active. The presidents believed the combination of learning from classrooms, extra-curricular activities, other people, and especially learning on the job as they moved along their career paths all contributed to their leadership development.

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**LEARNING FOR LEADERSHIP IN THAI HIGHER EDUCATION:
CAREER PATHS OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS**

VOLUME II

By

Porntip Chaichanapanich

A DISSERTATION

**Submitted to
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Chapter 6
THE MEANING(S) OF LEADERSHIP FOR THAI PUBLIC
UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS

Introduction

The second major question in this study asked:

- II. How did Thai public university presidents talk about the meaning(s) of presidential leadership and their work as chief executives and leaders of their institutions?

Again, in this chapter, I addressed the second major research questions and the sub-questions by focusing on the findings and interpretations drawn from the interview data and examined through the conceptual framework of this study. Theories of leadership together with Bolman and Deal's (1990) and Birnbaum's (1988) organizational theories were used as guides that allowed me to conceptualize and interpret the thirteen presidents' discussions about the meanings of presidential leadership.

The first section explores the general meaning(s) of leadership phenomena as defined by these leaders. The second section examines the presidents' discussions about presidential leadership within Thai public universities. The chapter then ends with the presidents' sharing of other factors that involved in their lives as

presidents of Thai public universities. The chapter is divided as follows:

Meaning(s) of Leadership in General and Presidential Leadership in Particular

Leadership Defined by The Leader's Personalities and Abilities

Leadership as Specific Roles

Leadership as the Art of Understanding

The special characteristics of Thai public universities

Specific Leadership and Management Required in An Academic Organization

Working under Thai Government Control

Other Factors Involved in the Lives of Thai Public University Presidents

Evaluation

Criticisms

Obstacles

Satisfaction

While I was composing the data analysis, I asked myself "who is my audience? What would be different if I wrote this dissertation solely for an American audience? What would be different if the study was geared for Thai audience? Would it make a difference if I addressed both audiences at the same time?"

It becomes clear to me that this dissertation is written for both an American and a Thai audience. My committee will first read this study from the perspective of American scholars; in the future this study will be available to other Thai scholars and students who are interested in the topic. Writing for both audiences who live in the different parts of the world and whose views and perceptions of leadership may vary (due to the difference in ideologies, values, religious beliefs, cultures, day-to-day experiences, and even geographical climates) requires a different approach. To write for both groups in this single study means I must be able to draw a line that will help separate and bridge the two cultures. In other words, I must be able to answer to my audience what is American, what is Thai and what is universal in my context.

When my dissertation chair read my first draft of data analysis, he commented "This sounds like I am reading the study about American college presidents except that once in a while there is some Thai culture and flavors mixed in." What makes the next two chapters of the data analysis surprisingly Americanized as if I was doing the study with American college presidents? In other words, why are the experiences of Thai public university presidents so similar to those of their American counterparts? I believe the following will help explain why.

1. Leadership is a universal concept. While local cultures alter, mask, and disguise some aspects of leadership, the generic make-up of leadership is still universal. The process of leadership is not one person's act but the activity that occurs between the leader and the led. Leaders in different parts of

the world may employ similar or different methods and strategies to get things done. However, the bottom line is that all leaders, regardless of regions and cultures, work to "influence thought, feeling, and action to produce collective effort" (Bolman and Deal, 1990, p. 410) to achieve purposes and values shared by the leader and the led. Because leadership is universal, if this study were to be read by a European or a scholar from China, I believe they too will find some part of the data analysis speak to their leadership.

2. The history of Thai higher education makes it clear that the Thai university system is strongly influenced by European and American higher educational systems. The second public university of Thailand, built in 1933, followed the American system. Other institutions built during the 1960s up to the present have also modeled themselves after these systems.
3. Not only is the system influenced by European and the most part American higher education ideology, twelve of the thirteen presidents participating in this study were educated in the West. Seven were U.S. graduates. These people who took part in pioneering many Thai universities built during the 1960s and 70s to the present, had a lot to do with how Western, especially American, influence made its way into Thailand. It is appropriate to ask here why the United States continues to take a leading role in educating large numbers of foreign students on their campuses. Not only for financial reasons but the answer is also evident in this study. The most lasting value of American education is not the knowledge itself

but the American ideology that these foreign graduates carry home with them.

4. Not only are the leaders of Thai public universities educated in the West, particularly the United States., at the present, the majority of the faculty members and administrators in Thai public universities are also the product of American education. Each year, Thailand sends its citizens overseas particularly to the United States for graduate schools and imports American teachers into Thai campuses. These faculty members carry with them the Western ideology of academic freedom and professionalism, which helps explain my point why the Thai public university presidents' descriptions of college presidential leadership is so similar to their American counterparts.
5. The majority of literature, including that written by Thai scholars, on the topic of leadership and higher education reflects Western and American higher education scholarship. Books used in most Thai administration classes to train current and future administrators are also based on Western theories. It is therefore understandable why Thai faculty members and administrators, including the presidents, appear to look at colleges and universities as organizations in a fashion similar to American institutions.
6. Of equal important worth mention is the issue of how the study is done, who does the research, and from what perspective the data were interpreted. As much as I try to exist outside the data, it is still a reality that one cannot separate research from

the researcher. A researcher affects how data are written and organized. I composed and chose the interview questions and interpreted the data, and affected how the study would look. Since my understanding and experiences of higher education is also influenced by American theories, it is unavoidable that I would bring into my study American ways of looking at the problem. Why? Because we can only see what we are capable of seeing. The interesting question to ask here is what if this same study was completed by someone who was never directly influenced by American higher education system, would the final product be different?

Due to the above factors, the Thai presidents' perceptions of college presidential leadership as it appears in the rest of the chapter is, for the most part, similar to those of their American counterparts. However, despite the several similarities, some differences exist randomly throughout the presidents' discussions.

What is considered "Thainess" or a Thai flavoring presents itself in the different forms: as Buddhist philosophies, Thai civil service system, Thai seniority and respect and the crucial role these concepts play in Thai society, women's status in Thai society, and personal conduct including the strong belief in maintaining one's married life in Thai society.

1) Buddhist philosophies:

Several Thai university presidents indicated either explicitly or implicitly that they used Buddhist philosophies to guide their

leadership conduct. Summapun (1986), in his *Management Based on Buddhism*, noted that leaders of all types and all levels from international to the family unit should have disciplines and lead their lives with several moral principles. Not only for themselves, leaders should also reinforce the similar disciplines and encourage the similar principles among their followers. Basic Buddhist teachings applicable to leadership and management emphasize that one abstain from a) taking other lives, b) stealing, c) adultery, d) uttering a falsehood and e) be intoxicated. An individual must a) be kind, b) work at a decent profession, c) be monogamous, d) be honest and e) be stable and unreckless. The author noted that in practice, leaders must be able to keep the five disciplines and maintain the five principles. Leaders must also lead their lives according to the "10 principles of an honest man," which consist of honest actions, words, and thoughts. Honest actions demand that individuals refrain from killing, stealing, and committing adultery. Honest words principles suggest that individuals abstain from uttering a falsehood, speaking sarcastically or using rude words or drivel. Honest thought principles require that individuals avoid avarice, be able to control themselves and maintain solitude. This principle also suggests that one not being misled by anger and fatuousness.

Other important Buddhist principles (*dharma* -- the teaching of the Buddha) geared specifically toward those who are in governance or leading positions are known as *Todsapitarachadramajariyyatikata* -- the 10 right principles for governors. They include the beliefs that leaders must maintain a) alms-giving, b) disciplines, c) giving and sacrifice, d) honesty, e) humility, f) eradicate sin, g) control anger

h) not exploit others, i) endure and j) follow righteousness. Based on these ten principles, leaders must know how to give of their own benefits for others' benefits. They must maintain honesty for themselves as well as for others. They are humble. They respect their elders and extend a helpful disposition to their younger followers. Through transcendental meditation, they rid themselves of greed and anger. They extend kindness and good will to others. They are proud of who they are and have no envy of those who succeed. They do not exploit or take advantage of other people. They endure hardship and other forces that may hurt their feelings. Finally, they live firmly by righteous principles. As leaders, they hold to justice based on truth and are impartial when it comes to dealing with people (pp. 44-51).

Not only do Thai public university presidents use Buddhist philosophy to help guide their leadership, they also use them to guide their personal lives. They appear to believe strongly that the one important qualification that university presidents must have is respectable personal conduct, a well-groomed manner, and a "firm" family life. All these qualifications are in fact clearly marked in Buddha's teaching as indicated above.

2) Governmental Control

Because Thai public universities at the time of this study were still under the auspices of the Thai government and since all university employees were classified as civil servants, two crucial characteristics differentiated Thai university presidents from American university presidents. They were: Thai public university presidents run their institutions according to strict guidelines

developed by the Ministry of College and University Affairs and Thai public university presidents earn smaller salaries than mid-management personnel earn in the business sector. The comment about the issue of a college presidential job as being low paid emerged many times within the data. Olanvoravuth (1983) noted that these Thai chief executives derive their satisfaction from self-actualization more than anything else. This is not true in the American setting because American public college and university presidents earn salaries comparable to their private sector counterparts. They also live in large homes, usually a presidential house, provided by the institution.

3) Thai culture:

Seniority and respect: The two terms were cited many times by different presidents. This indicates that leadership in the Thai context, particularly under the civil system, is tied closely with seniority and respect for one's age and years of experiences. Because age and the elders signify wisdom in Thai society, many presidents participated in this study agreed that one must reach a certain age before one may achieve a leadership role.

Sexism in Thai culture

The women's movement in Thailand lags far behind the West. The majority of Thai women have been taught that their role in the family was to be the "back two legs of the elephant while men will take the lead as the two front legs." This teaching appeared to be reflected by this study's data.

The Meaning(s) of Leadership in General and University Presidential Leadership in Particular

The term "leadership" is used frequently in many situations but most people have different meanings for the term. These presidents, too, have their own understanding of the term, which was usually derived from experiences working within the academic environment. In this section I will analyze how these presidents talked about the term leadership, particularly presidential leadership in Thai public universities.

When I asked these presidents what the term "leadership" meant, their answers varied, depending on how "leadership" was examined. Their definitions of leadership, for the most part, appeared to fall within trait theories, behavioral theories, power and influence theories, and/or contingency theories.

According to Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), trait theories define leadership as linked to personal qualities. Researchers of trait theories attempt to identify specific characteristics associated with a leader's ability to function successfully (p. 7). Physical characteristics (height, appearance, age energy level), personality (self-esteem, dominance, emotional stability, initiative, persistence), social background (education, socioeconomic status), and ability (general intelligence, verbal fluency, knowledge, originality, social insight, cognitive complexity) are some of the important traits that researchers examined. While many traits are believed to be innate, others may be learned by individuals.

Behavioral theories identify leadership as associated with behavior and style. Research on behavioral theories attempt to study leadership by focusing on what it is that leaders actually do. They examine leaders' patterns of activity, managerial roles, and categories of behaviors. Leaders are differentiated based on whether they are directive, participatory, task or people-oriented, and/or interpersonal contact types (p. 12).

Contingency theories state leadership is affected by the context and situation. To understand effective leadership, researchers in this school believe attention must be paid to situational factors. They observe the nature of the task or the external environment. Under contingency theories, it is believed that different situations and different tasks require different patterns of traits and behaviors (p.14). Many well-known models came out of these theories, including Fiedler's contingency model, the cognitive resource theory, the situational leadership theory, the path-goal theory, the model of decision participation, the multiple linkage model of leader effectiveness, and Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for hierarchical leadership.

Power and influence theories suggest that leadership is associated with the use of power. Leadership is studied in terms of the amount of power and the manner in which leaders exercise that power over their followers. Two important themes in these theories are the social power and the social exchange approach. The social approach focuses on leaders' influence over followers. The social exchange, however, consider influence that go both ways (p. 8). French and Raven (1968) noted five identified social powers that

leaders use to influence others. Legitimate power is the power of influence that leaders use through the office provided by social and legal systems. Leaders use reward power to influence others through their ability to provide rewards. Coercive power is when leaders can influence others through their ability to threaten punishment. Expert and reference are the two powers that come from the leaders' own personalities. Expert power refers to the time when leaders can influence others through their expertise and through reference power when followers feel they personally like their leaders (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 9).

In this study, I found that most presidents talked about "leadership" in terms of specific traits related to the leaders' effectiveness. They tended to describe leadership in terms of a leader's personalities and/or abilities. The presidents believed these specific traits were factors that differentiated leaders from followers. They often referred to personality in terms of self-esteem, dominance, emotional stability, initiative, and persistence and referred to ability in terms of general intelligence, verbal fluency, knowledge, originality, social insight, and cognitive intelligence.

Some presidents also described leadership from the perspective of behavioral theories. Leadership was described in terms of actions and managerial roles that a leader performed. In other words, these presidents tried to explain what leaders actually do (Mintzberg 1973; Sayles 1979). At other times, the presidents also talked about leadership from a contingency theory point of view. They believed that diverse situations require different patterns of

traits and behaviors and effective leadership depends on each situation.

Several presidents believed leaders could accomplish tasks through the exercise of power according to power and influence theories. The term "leadership" was sometimes considered in terms of "the source and amount of power available to leaders and the manner in which leaders exercise that power over followers through either unilateral or reciprocal interactions" (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 7). Two presidents mentioned explicitly the existence of expert and referent power.

Leadership Defined by the Leader's Personalities and Abilities:

Many presidents participating in this study described "leadership" from a trait theory approach. "Leadership," most of the time, was described in terms of a specific personality and ability a leader displays. One president talked specifically about the quality of an academic leader as someone who was skillful in scholarly work and administration, respectable, and a visionary. He added:

Leadership in the university context refers to a leader who is widely accepted and respected for his/her ideas, knowledge, and skills in administration. S/he must hold respectable credentials according to Thai culture. When s/he talks, people listen. S/he also has vision that will lead the institution in the right direction.

To this president, a leader must have respectable credentials as defined by Thai culture, meaning that an individual is a man or a woman of standing with seniority and a respectable, successful

career history. An individual must maintain a good family life and never demonstrate a single flaw. A successful leader, according to this president, would maintain and continue to increase respectable credentials throughout his or her life. Without this "Thai" credential, he believed "one cannot command others." Maintaining and continuing to build "Thai" credentials, he added, referred to the preservation of goodness and high principles. When working, s/he would base his or her judgment on rightness, rules and regulations combined with principles and moral. Here, not only that the president defined Thai culture as dictated by seniority but also "Thai credential" that is outlined and guided by Buddhist philosophies. Buddhist philosophies stress goodness, high principles and morality.

One experienced female president talked about "leadership" as a special personality and ability that a leader must have.

Leadership means we must have courage when making a decision and knowing when and how to sacrifice for others. Also, we must be developers with meaningful ideas to move our organizations forward.

Like her colleague, another female president believed "a leader must have the good sense to lead his/her team and be talented in creating and initiating ideas for the team."

Another president listed several crucial leadership qualities. He stated leaders must have vision and be able to transform it into actions. The ability to communicate their vision to an audience at large was also necessary. For example, at this president's institution, everybody received a booklet that described his vision for the institution at the beginning of the year. By making his goals

accessible to all, he assured that all constituencies of his institution, especially the internal community, would understand where the institution was headed and be able to create their own goals and objectives that were compatible with the institution.

Having good vision and planned policies alone is not enough. A leader must be skillful in communicating his vision and policies to constituents. If your constituents lack understanding and knowledge of what goes on in your vision and plans, it is nearly impossible to gain their supports.

Other personality traits of leaders described by this same president also included: expert influence, being trustworthy, having problem-solving skills, and having moral courage. This president believed expert influence was a quality that leaders continued to develop through years of hard work. In universities expert influence was proved by individuals' academic and administrative achievement.

He further explained leadership in terms of a leader's qualities. "Other members trust their leaders only when they see that their leaders are honest, just, and devoted workers." Leaders must be skilled problem solvers, quick to handle all unpredictable situations with moral courage.

One president defined leadership as the characteristics possessed by leaders. His description of leadership was slightly different from the previous ones. He stressed the importance of decision making as something that is most crucial to a leader's role.

A leader must have the appropriate personality, knowledge, experience, health, firm married life, and be widely respected by others. The most important is that a leader must know how to make a decision and make it well. If a leader is slow at

decision making, it may cause problems. At the same time, if decisions that are made too soon, there is also a problem. A leader cannot make mistakes.

Besides displaying the appropriate characteristics and being able to make the right decisions at the right time, university presidents as leaders must stick to their plans and deliver what they have promised to their constituents.

Another president, whose career had always been with one institution, defined leadership in terms of qualities possessed by a leader. He believed leaders must have vision and plans of actions to reach defined goals and objectives. They must be trusted and accepted by all. He noted that trust and acceptance are proven by one's performance over several years of hard work. Leaders, he believed, must also be good models of work and hold referent power that went beyond position power such individuals had. He explained why others personally identified with and liked him:

A leader must be able to gain respect and consideration from others. When a leader asks someone to do something, s/he will want to do it not because a leader has position power alone but because a leader also has referent power. S/he will want to do it because s/he respects and likes his/her leader. Such respect and consideration are the result of trust that a leader has built from years of working with these people. It may be because a leader helped others in their past working relationship.

Leadership as Specific Roles:

Occasionally leadership was described in terms of personality, ability, or types of power influence; at other times it was also described in terms of behaviors--what leaders do--or a combination

of all. One male president who came from outside universities saw leadership from a combination of trait and behavioral theories. He believed leadership was both a quality and behavior that leaders have. To him, the trait that qualified leaders was the one that others viewed as crucial for leaders to have. Leaders are individuals who behave in such a way that creates trust and persuades others to take positive actions. He believed what leaders do should positively influence others. Leaders generate a powerful force that persuades others, creates trust and faith, and leads the group to reach the goals it has set.

The same president further explained that quality leaders process is not necessary innate, but is nurtured over time.

I do not believe in a born leader, but I feel leadership qualities can be accumulated through different means, whether through experiences, training, and self development. When an individual has amassed leadership qualities, which may include power, prestige, and charisma, it will show. We then can say that s/he has a leadership quality. Some people may be born with certain qualities, however, many leadership qualities are nurtured over time. And there are many different ways that help in leadership development.

Leadership was also described in terms of the roles leaders play. One president talked about the role of academic leaders as those who direct and drive people's energy in such a way that tasks are completed and the university as a whole fulfills its set goal. To be able to direct and drive people, this president believed leaders must first have a firm understanding of their organization and the lives within it.

These findings were consistent with Middlehurst (1993), who identified learning about an organization's operation as another key

ingredient of leadership development. Like Middlehurst, these presidents believed that formal leaders of organizations must understand their organizations' day to day lives. They also agreed with Middlehurst that accumulating knowledge and know-how takes time and effort. They accumulated their knowledge and organizational know-how by being a part of a variety of activities played out in different roles. The most effective method for this kind of learning comes from experience. Challenging activities provided insight into the core of responsibility and accountability. It familiarized them with personal and cultural values and allowed them to understand their own instinctive reactions to different kinds of people and problems.

Leaders direct and drive their constituents' energy through the art of persuasion and relatedness. Similar to his counterparts, this president also described leadership in terms of the specific personality and ability that successful leaders possess. He added "Leaders must have creative ideas, an art of motivation, and the ability to build trust from others."

Another president believed leadership depended as much on a leader's position or where h/she is in the organization. He sees leadership as the art of dealing with others: "Leadership means leading other people's hearts, ideas and behaviors."

One experienced president, in his tenth year as a president at his second institution, believed the main role that leaders play was to stimulate, persuade, and create actions within others. To do this, leaders must spend a great amount of effort and time to make others understand and see the benefits and consequences of the

recommended actions. He noted that a leader, especially in the university context, must be a good listener and be able to bring together different ideas so they work best for the institution. He also stressed the vital function of teamwork.

Leadership as the Art of Understanding:

Most presidents described leadership in terms of a leader's abilities or personalities; others discussed it in terms of what leaders must do. Some included both topics. A few referred to leadership more as the art of understanding the environment they were in. One president believed leaders must first understand their organizations and their roles as leaders within them. He explained,

Before attempting to move their organizations in any direction, leaders must first study their organizations. They must study the nature, history and present environment of their organizations as a means to project the future.

This same president also believed that today's world leader must also study their own country in comparison to other countries. They must open their ears and eyes to information not only at the local, domestic, or national levels, but also at the international level.

We need to read what political leaders in European countries as well as President Clinton say. University presidents need to know what has been said about education in today's global society. They must keep ahead with new research information. For example, recently they are talking about cloning. I think university presidents must study this issue as well. We must read what cloning is all about and its consequence on the environment. If we as university presidents do not know what cloning is, how can we then understand genetic engineering and its consequence on the environment? If we know very little about it, how can we then tell whether or not our

institutions should add genetic engineering and environmental studies into our curriculum?

Leadership involves not only one's understanding of the environment, but also one's understanding of his/her role as a leader. This same president believed academic leaders must know how to manage their time. Good college presidents spend a good amount of time outside their offices. They know which meetings and what paper work are important and which can be delegated to others. Their vice-presidents are able to complete their routine office work. The presidents then gear their energy to other useful tasks, such as spending time to determine the direction of the university and securing funding resources for the institutions. The same president said "What I like to do most in my life but find difficult to do in my college presidency is to set aside time to think and reflect about my work."

Another president who leads a large regional institution differentiated academic leadership from others. To this president, leadership is also the art of understanding what a university is all about.

Leadership in the academic environment involves leaders' understanding of the educational system, its philosophy, and the working strategies that are appropriate to this type of organization. Leadership involved one's ability to create trust and make others feel confident in both themselves and their leaders to lead their universities to meet mutually set goals and objectives.

The Special Characteristics of Thai Public Universities

David Riesman (1996) once said:

I never wanted to be a president myself, because I thought the position so onerous, even when it was far more equable than the situation now. From the beginning, I was curious about individuals brave enough to take on the often unanticipated hazards unique to the position of president. I realized that they had to have a certain buoyancy to survive the many assaults upon them, and an ability to focus on the more positive aspects of the job (p. 86).

Specific Leadership and Management Strategies Required in an Academic Organization

Though leadership in all types of organizations may share certain common features, diversity also exists. Leadership strategies that work in one organization may be unacceptable in the others; ones that work for one university may not work on other campuses. The presidents of this study all believed that leading Thai public universities differed greatly from leading business sectors and/or other governmental agencies. (Here, I will once again introduce American theories on characteristics of colleges and universities to help describe the Thai universities). What distinguishes college presidential leadership from other types of leadership is the fact that colleges and universities have their own unique characteristics that demand different kind of leadership and management. College and university institutions differ from other complex organizations in that they operate with an "open" system and their subsystems are "loosely coupled."

Higher educational systems are thought of as "open" because they participate in active interaction with the outside world. College and university boundaries allow--and even require--the flow of input from the external environment. Processing these external inputs (i.e. students, ideas, societal demands) occurs in a number of ways and then is generated outside through avenues such as research publications, new technologies, and college graduates joining the work force. Individuals that progress through higher education exemplify the open system. After acceptance, students are educated and prepared for employment in society. College graduates typically enter the work force in any number of ways as teachers, lawyers, business people, medical doctors, engineers and so forth. Whether it is direct, where graduates become active with their alma mater, or indirect, when graduates as workers or even parents influence higher education, the process is viewed as cyclical.

College and university subsystems tend to be "loosely coupled" which indicates more autonomy within a subsystem and weaker connections between them. Examples of these subsystems are academic departments, student services, public safety, alumni, public relations, and so forth. The loosely coupled system which is viewed as "an adaptive device essential to the survival of an open system" (Weick, 1976, cited in Birnbaum, 1991, p. 4) allows flexibility for each subsystem to better respond to diverse and conflicting demands (both internal and external). However, administrative processes are easily slowed down by autonomous subsystems that are logistically difficult to coordinate. Birnbaum (1991) stated that "a major frustration of administrative life in loosely coupled systems is the

difficulty of getting things to work the way the administrator wants them to" (p. 31).

The two common elements of university systems--open and loosely-coupled--produce unique factors that tarnish the image of a smoothly, efficiently, and productively run college or university. Consequently, significant challenges in university management include power struggles between the board of trustees and the faculty; different agendas for administrators and faculty; unique management needs; an unclear mission and ambiguous goals; meeting the diverse demands of students; and keeping up with rapidly changing technology (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley, 1977, p. 2).

Colleges and universities have long existed as places that preserve and develop human knowledge. Similarly to American institutions, Thai institutions continue to guard this most precious element by practicing strong traditions that stress the freedom to think and to follow knowledge. Clark (1963) noted "academic man is a special kind of professional man, a type characterized by a particularly high need for autonomy. To be innovative, to be critical of established ways, these are the commitments of the academy and the impulses of scientific and scholarly roles that press for unusual autonomy" (p. 452 in Peterson et al., 1991). Because their main members (faculty members) are highly regarded as professional and protected under the shield called academic freedom, authoritative power that is normally used to get tasks done in other types of organizations is inappropriate in an academic setting. Several

presidents raised this point explicitly. One female president asserted that:

Leadership in colleges and universities differ from leadership in other settings. Presidents of other organizations can command order and everybody, most of the time, fulfills the commands or they are subject to punishment. But this is not the case for a university because university people are secure and enjoy academic freedom. University presidents ordering faculty members is an unlikely picture.

A male president stressed the same point.

We normally believe that chief executive officers would hold authoritative power but this is not the case for the university presidents. College and university president have no authoritative power. All they have are duties that must be completed. They run their organization, not by authority, but by art, an art of making others believe in them and bind into their ideas.

Because authoritative power is considered incompatible with college and university culture, academic leaders turn to other leadership approach. Presidents participating in this study appeared to share a common approach when they said the best way to get things done around their campuses was through consultation and asking for support from their members. One president suggested that academic leaders specifically in university context consult, listen and rely mainly on human intellect as a means to help solve the problems. He defined this human's intellect method by saying that:

Winning and losing in university context is measured by the quality of opinions and ideas that ones present. Since the quality of ideas are guarded as highly respected by academic people, the human's intellect method then refers to an effort to direct decision makings based on theories and logical reasoning.

This can be done not through authoritative power but through consultation and participative management.

One president said he normally got things done around his campus by devoting large amounts of time to discuss and explain why things were done in a specific manner. Building mutual understanding among one's constituency was believed to be the most crucial tactic for maintaining support from his faculty, administrators and staff. Another president said he normally managed by compromising when dealing with faculty groups who played powerful role in his institutions. Another president believed most of his supporters accepted him as their leader because they saw that he relied heavily on referent and expert power to get things done.

While Thai institutions of higher learning try to provide possible means to promote freedom of thinking in their members, they also stress the importance of diversity in human thought. One president stressed the importance of an academic leader being the type of individual who understands people and appreciates diversity in human natures and their ideas.

University presidents must value and appreciate diversity of minds and ideas of people. If these leaders can learn how to appreciate this and believe in the fact that diversity results in our being able to continue to exist, these leaders will be able to accept the diversity in faculty members, students, and other staff and being able to take better care of them. The university presidents cannot lose sight that people are what a university is all about: students first and faculty members second, followed by other staff members.

Another president stressed the similar point that colleges and universities are the places for people. Because these institutions are

given significant roles, to graduate well-developed, educated citizens into society, their leaders must be well developed and educated themselves. They must be intellectual, well groomed, decent characters. The same president differentiated college presidents from presidents of other organizations based on three characteristics. First, college presidents must be good scholars who are well respected by people in academics. Second, they must lead their institutions not by profitable values but by rules and regulations, traditions and customs, and principles and morality. Finally, they must understand that their goal is to make their organization a prototype of the ideal society that represents one where people may live together peacefully.

The democratic society is one where members can function well together. They respect each other and live well together because they each lead their lives not by emotions but by intellect. They each hold on to their moral principles, logical reasons, and rightness in their decision making.

Working under Thai Government Control:

Because Thailand's Ministry of University Affairs still exercises direct control over several aspects of most of Thai public universities, presidents in this study also noted that the challenge of public university president's job depended on ones' ability to be efficient and creative while working within the rules drawn by the government. One president stated that though he did not worry too much about university funding because his institution received the majority of its support from the government, the universities were obligated to follow closely governmental policies and rules. This still proved a challenge in his administration. He added that the process

involved in following governmental policies meant slow, long, tiring struggles with red tape.

Being a governmental agency also affected other factors of university lives. The most frequent drawback of being part of the government was the regulated salary rate for university employees. Because the government maintains a lower rate of salary, many good candidates for faculty positions turned to other organizations or the private sector that paid much more.

To deal with the current situation of university people being underpaid, one university president suggested that academic leaders must adapt ideas from for-profit organizations.

In the past, we never talked about financial profit in universities but social profits the universities produced for society. I think this will not work anymore. In today's situation, leaders must also think about economic issues. People within the government sector are moving to the private sector for economic reasons. If we, the universities, do not do something different and if we do not find more creative ways to attract potential people back onto campuses, our universities are going to grow weaker. What guarantees do we have in terms of the quality of teaching staff? Why does being an academic mean that one must be poor? Why are they paid a lot less than their friends who may be working in other places?

The same president suggested the role of today's university presidents also included taking care of economic problems currently faced by university staff. He believed university presidents must be equipped with financial ability. They must know how to manage budgets, bring in money from outside sources and disburse money balancingly among employees. He added:

We must be able to pay our employees at the comparable rate with the private sector. We must be able to make our

employees feel that they will be financially secure in this organization while being proud to be public people who devote their lives for social profit.

The meaning(s) of presidential leadership seemed to reside, for the most part, in the heads of those who occupy the positions, how they see themselves as leaders within their organizations. Whatever presidential leadership meant to them, the presidents interviewed obviously shared one commonalty. All agreed that their jobs required strong commitment and devoted endless hours to their responsibility.

Other Factors Involved in the Lives of Thai Public Universities' Presidents

Leadership Evaluation:

When I asked them how they knew they were effective leaders, nearly all the presidents agreed that leadership effectiveness cannot be separated from institutional output. To examine a president meant examining the institution. This meant that evaluating institutional progress normally reflects the president's leadership effectiveness. The presidents said they looked at different aspects when they tried to evaluate their own work and leadership. The list includes the following factors:

Output and cost efficiency

Completion and success of the task and goals set

Time efficiency

Comparison with other institutions

The rank where institution is chosen by students in the
national university entrance exam

Progress in academic, building and teaching materials

Level of team cooperation among staff within the institution

Level of support and satisfaction from staff

Input from outsiders such as The Ministry of University

Affairs and the University president Board

Input from foreign visitors and consultants

Level of satisfaction of internal and external constitutes

Level of contribution to the society at large

Level of output from staff members

and

Physical and psychological well being of the presidents

Criticisms:

Because leaders exist among diverse groups of people and because their decisions affect the lives of these people, all leaders are subject to criticism. Pleasing a large and diverse group of people is an impossible task. Whatever leaders do and whatever their decisions, they are always subject to criticism. Similar to Carbone's (1972) study of American presidents, this study found that all Thai presidents interviewed agreed with this fact. They stated that they constantly experienced criticism.

A president of a new regional university located in a smaller province shared his experience as a university president living in a smaller town.

Anybody who becomes a university president in this community will be constantly evaluated one way or another, both directly and indirectly. Every day, people will look at your work progress, leadership, even your personal life. This situation also applies to faculty members who live in this community. None of us can escape from this situation.

One president of an inner-city institution said he dealt with criticism by attempting to ignore it. Another president said he only responded to criticism based on provable evidence and used it to mirror himself. Criticism based on one's personal opinions that lacked provable evidence was worthless in his eyes. He shared with me the Buddhist philosophy:

Praise and criticism, for me, is no difference. I learned this from Buddhism. Criticism based on trustworthy evidence is worthy of attention. I normally come back to look at myself and try to improve myself accordingly. However, criticism that lacks logical support is worth nothing. Do not pay attention to it. Why would you have to take the burden? If they still want to talk about it, let it be. This is also true for praise. Praise that has no truth is equally vulnerable. It can mislead you into believing in something that you are not.

It was not always easy for these presidents to quickly pinpoint specific criticism. When I asked them for examples of some criticism, many paused for a long time while they tried to offer a specific example. Their examples of criticism were varied, but appeared to fall into one of the four categories. Most criticism cited either dealt with the presidents' physical characteristics, personalities, abilities or personal leadership styles. One president said he was criticized in two areas. First, he felt people said he lacked social skills. The president said because he preferred to meet people at work more

than at the social events, he found it difficult to function at social events.

I never liked social events in the first place. I don't sing and I don't like dancing. Before I became a president, I never attended a wedding party. Once I became a president, I could not escape some social events. I think this is my weakness.

Second, he knew that people criticized him for giving special attention to faculty teams. He explained that this was due to his own personal interest and engineering background. He was a hands-on person who liked to get involved at the implementation level.

I always have had a strong interest in the kind of work that occurs in the lab rooms. I like spending time with those who work in the labs. Other people criticized me for spending too much time with academics.

Another president felt most of the criticism he heard tended to attack his ability, personality, and leadership style. He was criticized for lacking vision, rule bonding, and group favoritism.

A third president said he is criticized for being too conservative because he changed the search process for the dean and institute directors at his campus from a purely democratic, campus-wide voting process that caused disunity among people to a wide-search that was based on the candidates' credentials. He believed the voting process allowed young, inexperienced candidates who happened to campaign well in the election to become a director or academic dean before they were qualified. He said this was a problem, because the young inexperienced director of institutes or dean of a college lacked respectable scholarship experiences and years of seniority. These omissions made it hard for him or her to command respect from other faculty members and other staff.

Some young inexperienced candidates found themselves in the dean's office by winning an election. In this office, they faced many problems in their work. These problems were the result of their lack of scholarship and seniority rank within the Thai civil service system. How can s/he command respect when many of his or her subordinates have higher civil ranks than him or her? In the Thai civil service system, it is evident that those who occupy a leadership position must have respected credentials in combination with seniority to be successful in commanding respect from others.

One president of a regional institution talked about how criticism traveled to him.

Criticism arrives in different channels. Sometimes, it comes from faculty members who are my friends. Sometimes, it is discussed in student meetings; at other times, it is printed in the newspapers.

One criticism that he was aware of was that he continued to build new facilities while ignoring the preservation of old ones.

Many times the president's leadership style was also the subject of criticism. One president said he was normally criticized for his concern for and defense of his subordinates. Though he believed this, in fact, should be a desirable leadership quality in a person, he found in real life that some people still saw it as taking sides.

They criticized me because I tend to care too much for my subordinates. I believe in the principle that no one can work alone. No matter how talented one may be, we all need a team to help. I am the kind of a person who gives better and higher concerns to my subordinates than to my boss.

One female president thought she was regularly criticized as a leader who saw her task more important than people. She thought this criticism came about because people under her administration

had to work very hard. It was common to see people stay after hours to meet a work deadline.

Many people say that I am the kind of person who gives priority to the task rather than to the people. I think because I never allow my staff to have free time and their time is often occupied with work and work. May be this is why they criticize me.

Another, newer female president who had just completed her fifth month as a president at the time of the interview, stated that there were some people who were quick to judge her only by her appearance. Because of her appearance as a woman who spoke nicely to people, some people mistook her politeness for weak leadership. She commented:

Because I am not a strict, fierce looking boss, some people say they are content working with me. However, some people see me as weak. At the beginning of my presidency, they even said that because of my so-called weak looks, I would be unable to complete work or people would not be afraid of me. Later, I showed them that they could not judge my leadership by my looks or how I talk. At several meetings, I demonstrated my strong leadership ability when wrestled against one another by ideas and thoughts.

The last president shared with me that people at his institution appeared to have unreasonable expectations about his role as a president, especially on how he should spend his time. He thought many people on his campus assumed that their president should spend most of his time on campus and not off campus. Others asked him why he spent so much time doing business off campus. He responded with a metaphor:

As the president of this organization, I see myself as no different from the head of a family, a father of the house. If I,

as the head of the family sit around in the house every day, how will I support my children and my wife? It is impossible. I realize that my duty is to regularly check on work inside the house to see if anything is deficient. The fact is that I have so many house keepers. I have up to seven vice-presidents who can take good care of most of the internal work.

Obstacles:

What is considered the most challenging task for people who occupy the college presidency? More than half of the presidents in this study said personnel management was the most frustrating duty they faced in their careers, especially when dealing with academic professionals who were protected by their professionalism. Similar to American colleges, these Thai presidents also said trying to please everyone on campus was a nearly impossible task because the university is made up of different types of people who come from diverse disciplines and interests as American scholar, Clark (1963) explained

" . . . in the college or university. . . , there are 12, 23, or 50 clusters of experts. The experts are prone to identify with their own disciplines, and the 'academic profession' overall comes off a poor second. We have wheels within wheels, many professions within a profession. one of the disciplines on a campus is likely to dominate the others; at a minimum, it usually takes an alliance of disciplines, such as 'the natural sciences' or 'the humanities,' to put together a bloc that might dominate others. The point is that with a variety of experts-- chemists, educationists, linguists, professors of marketing-- the collective control of the professionals over one another will not be strong. The campus is not a closely-knit group of professionals who see the world from one perspective. As a collection of professionals; it is decentralized, loose and flabby" (p. 454 in Peterson et al., 1991)

The problem with personnel management also occurred when these Thai leaders tried to mobilize people's actions. One president said, "The hardest for me is to find the mutual ground where everyone in this campus will work in co-operation for joint benefits." The problem with personnel management also extended to the issue of motivation or how leaders could motivate and get the best from others. One president of an older institution complained about the lack of motivation and interest in his faculty. Another president from a newer institution showed his concern by wanting his undergraduate teaching staff to go the extra mile in their teaching and services. To him, good teachers not only attempted to prepare the best materials and help their students to reach their best potential intellectually, they also showed sincere concern for the well being of their students.

Presidents from all types of institutions shared a common concern in the area of personnel administration. While presidents of the older universities talked about the challenge to motivate their staff, especially their faculty, the president of the newly established university stressed the double barriers of both building and maintaining teaching personnel.

I think the most difficult task of being a university president is to build and maintain a strong teaching force for the institution. Since teaching and learning are at the heart of the university, the first crucial move for new institutions is to be able to build a strong teaching team. The challenge lies in how new schools can attract good candidates, how we can bring them in to join the teaching team, and most importantly how to keep them happy so that they will continue to be motivated and committed to life-long self-development.

The next most cited challenge for Thai public university presidents was the status of the universities being state institution inside the civil service system. As I mentioned earlier, the obligation for a governmental agent includes strictly following the rules and regulations regarding curriculum, finance, and personnel outlined by the Ministry of University Affairs. The lack of institutional autonomy makes it difficult for the administration to take on any challenging decisions that may emerge. One president shared with me the story of a long, tiring process he and his team were going through as they tried to regain autonomy from the Thai government. At the time of the interview, this president and his team were trying to change the status of their institution from being a state college inside the civil service system to a public university "outside the civil service system, under the supervision of the Ministry of University Affairs." The change would result in the institution's ability to run itself especially in terms of curriculum, finance and personnel in the manner long practiced by American state colleges. The process involved grew more frustrating as he was forced to go through endless lists of different committees before finally reaching the Congress. The last time when he nearly reached the Congress, the government was overthrown. He had to begin the process again in order to be approved.

Another challenging task of the college presidency also included the ability to secure government grants. One president also pointed to the challenge in maintaining high quality while being able to respond to the work force's demands.

Satisfaction:

Robinson, P. R. (1988) a former president of an American college, once stated:

The life of a college president can be fun; it can kill; it can be eternally frustrating--but it also can provide an inner satisfaction that few other professional afford (p. 71).

I strongly believe that this statement speaks to Thai public university presidents as well. Being underpaid and overloaded with duties and endless responsibilities seems to be the major characteristic of the Thai public university president that was shared among the presidents interviewed. If this is the case, the question to ask is what satisfies and motivates these individuals to continue to strive for the best for themselves and particularly for their institutions as presidents. What do these individuals find the most rewarding about the president's job?

Several presidents believed their college presidency served as a trophy, a reward for their long devoting years of devoting and hard-working. One president shared that the presidential position satisfied his self fulfillment, especially since it came as a surprise. " I am proud to be here because I never hoped to come this far in my academic career." One new female president stressed a similar point: "I am proud to make it here, to stand at the top of the administration. This shows that I can do it."

Another president saw his presidential position as a door to contact with large audiences. "The job allows me to make the best of myself and widely recognized by people both within and outside institution." One newly elected president said his presidential position brought him prestige, something that he could be proud of.

Two presidents believed their presidential positions provided opportunities for their adult learning. One female president said her presidential work helped change her as a person, something that she could be proud of. She believed the duties and responsibilities involved in her presidency helped her become a type of person who would always ask what is in it for others instead of what is in it for herself. The job changed her from being a present-bounded type of person to a future-oriented person who always asks what would it happen tomorrow and the next day. Another male president said his position helped open his world view to the outside and brought in new life perspectives since the job required that he travel to various places and meet a variety of people.

Not surprisingly, a large numbers of presidents saw their positions as an opportunity for them to be able to make some social contributions to other people, especially to the society at large. The same president who shared that his job helped open his world view also talked about his accomplishments at two institutions where he resided as a president in opening several remote campuses to promote better access to higher education for Thai citizens. One president, whose college degree was sponsored by the Thai government, described the reward he received from his presidential position as providing him with an opportunity to give back to his country:

The most rewarding aspect about this job is an opportunity to make myself valuable in order to show my gratitude to the country who educated me. I am very proud to be a part of building and educating our young people and I am very proud to take part in the development of Thailand's higher education.

One male president, who was approached by his alma mater to take the presidential job after he retired from a previous job, said he sought no prestige at this point, but another important opportunity to continue to serve his country and make significant contributions to his society.

Another younger president said what was most rewarding about his job was an opportunity for him to challenge his talents and ability to initiate, create and lead a team of people in undergoing one of the most important tasks of the nation, the education of the citizens.

While the presidents saw their presidencies as either a prestigious reward for long years of hard work, an opportunity to give back to society, or a challenge to make the best of oneself, two presidents saw their job as both satisfying their interests as well as allowing them to contribute to the public.

One president of a small institution said what was most rewarding about the job was to see his administration's accomplishments in turning his institution into an elite school that was widely recognized for quality graduates. He also stated that the job also allowed him to satisfy his own interests, in helping others to succeed.

Another president shared with me how his job as a president satisfied his personal interest as well as allowed him to live his life contributing to the society:

The job allowed me to do what I like most--to be a teacher. To me being a university president also means being a teacher. I work as a teacher of teachers, of students, and of parents. This is what is most rewarding. Everywhere that I resided as a

president, I always have close relationship with the students and teaching staff. Here, the students call me "Big father." I asked them why they called me that and they said because they felt I was like their father more than something else. Like I say, one reward of this job is an opportunity to use my love of teaching to help educate young people.

Summary

The findings of the second research question, which dealt with the Thai public university presidents' talk about the meaning(s) of presidential leadership and their work as chief executives and leaders of their institutions, were presented in this chapter.

The genetic make-up of "leadership" is universal. The Thai university presidents' definitions of leadership, for the most part, appeared to fall within trait theories, behavioral theories, power and influence theories, and/or contingency theories. The presidents described "leadership" in terms of leaders' abilities and/or the roles they played. Presidential leadership within Thai higher education, though appeared similar to the Western world and their American counterparts, differences also existed. College presidential leadership within the Thai system was shaped not only by Western influence, but also by specific factors, such as governmental rules, Thai culture, and Buddhism.

Chapter 7

LEARNING FROM LEADERSHIP: THAI PUBLIC UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS ON THE PREPARATION OF THE FUTURE LEADERS

Introduction

This last chapter of data analysis and interpretation detailed the presidents' perspectives about the preparation of future public university presidents in terms of qualifications and training. It also included significant lessons that these leaders felt were crucial for them to pass on to others.

The Preparation of Future Thai University Presidents

Future Qualifications:

Thailand recently opened the first two universities called "state university outside the civil service system, under the supervision of the Ministry of University Affair." Several presidents interviewed for this study believed this concept would extend to other institutions. Some believed within next ten years, most public universities would become autonomous. While still receiving certain guidelines from the state, these universities would enjoy full autonomy in their governance. Though these universities would still receive some funding from the government, it would be small and

come with obligations. In the future these new universities would have to find how to find their own funding and run themselves.

If this trend continues, many presidents interviewed also believed that it might affect the current career path of future Thai university presidents. Because these new universities would have to independently support themselves, they must be able to adapt business strategies from for-profit organizations to their own administration. For many presidents, this meant that candidates for future university presidents would have to be equipped with new skills. They must know how to fund raise for their institutions as well as how to manage them efficiently. Though it was predicted that the candidate pool for university presidents would be open to people outside academics, the challenge still existed in how many non academics would demonstrate a real understanding of the university as an organization and its culture.

It is hard to predict precisely the characteristics of future Thai university presidents. It is, however, even harder to predict if Cohen and March's traditional career paths of American college presidents would still be somewhat applicable to describe future university presidents for this country. These experts helped me generate a preliminary list of tasks that aspiring future university presidents at least complete to prepare themselves for the future. The list includes:

1. Be an expert in the field of your study and earn the highest academic degree available in that area.

2. Accumulate as much national recognition and credibility for your work. Make your work recognized by people in your field as well as general public.
3. Make your work and your profession beneficial and contribute to the society at large.
4. Arm yourself with a variety of experiences including leadership and administration, from a variety of perspectives. Accept all types of work experiences as a learning opportunity.
5. Maintain a respectable personal life. Always watch your behaviors in public.
6. Develop skills and experiences in fund-raising and finance.
7. Develop skills and experiences in business administration.
8. Develop a network with people in academics, at the university and governmental levels. Make sure that you are congenial with all political parties.
9. Be a life-long learner and arm yourself with a broad variety of knowledge.
10. Learn about the university as an organization and its culture. Become acquainted with university life at least from a teaching perspective. This can only be achieved through many years of teaching.
11. Achieve excellence in scholarship and research and secure a professorship rank to gain respect from other academics.
12. Do not let your career expectations ruin your concentration. The ladder to the college presidency is a long, steep one that requires a firm understanding of move you make. Even when

you are at the point where you think you are ready, there is still no guarantee of the position.

13. Search for and follow opportunities, such as the opportunity to be a president of a smaller and remote institution will be higher than at the larger, and more prestige ones. One president said this reminded him of the American saying "Go west, young man."
14. Regularly volunteer and familiarize yourself with all kinds of committees and community work during your careers.
15. Since the college presidency is still a lower-paying job when compared to others, commit yourself to seek the college presidency means you will begin to develop earlier the idea of not expecting monetary return from this career.
16. Begin asking yourself three important questions: Do you like being a leader? Are you ready to work twenty hours a day? Do you enjoy dealing with people?
17. If you are a woman trying to succeed in a field long been dominated by men, you should prepare yourself to be the kind of woman who will be ready to handle personal rumors and criticism.
18. If you are a woman trying to become college president, you must dedicate yourself to your career. Unfortunately, you cannot allow your family life to interfere with career commitment. The bottom line is to find good help for your children and household shores. The two female presidents interviewed shared that they were lucky to have spouses and children who supported their success.

Having accumulated all the above qualities, however, still does not guarantee that one will achieve a college presidency in his or her life. One president noted that it all depended on chance, when a search committee saw a fit with one's qualifications and the institution's immediate needs. For woman candidates, it also depends as well on the institution's culture. One female president said:

It depends on an institution and its people. Here, in this institution, they do not care much if you are male or female. I think this place is known as one of the less sexist institutions. I think a woman will have a better chance here. Some other places still do not allow women to go through. There, it doesn't matter how good you are, they still will not pick you over the males.

When I asked the two female presidents specifically why they thought there were so few women who were university presidents, they both agreed that Thai women tended to devote most of their time to the family. The long list of obstacles that lie ahead of them cause women to give up sooner. One female president explained:

Most Thai women have no ambition to fight to the top because they know there is hardship and trouble waiting ahead of them. While many make it to deanship and vice-presidency, they aspire less to presidency.

Another obstacle for female candidates also included the belief that women themselves fail to support female candidates. The same female president added:

Women are not only discriminated against by men but also by women themselves. Many women still do not support candidates of the same sex. They do not vote for women. Take Congress as an example. If women support women, we would probably have female representatives numbering half of our

Congress. Why? Because our population has long had equal numbers of male and female citizens.

The Training:

All presidents interviewed believed there was no single best way to train future university presidents because presidential leadership is so complicated that one cannot simply be put into a ready-made package of training. One president said training one to be a university president would not be possible because this position depended not on an individual's qualities alone, but also on chance, time, and location.

This position is not permanent and it is different from ranks in the military. In the military, you may be able to hope for the top position if you follow certain steps of qualifications. Whether you make it or not, you still can at least hope. Hoping for a university presidency is impossible and I do not recommend it.

Another president noted that successful leadership development must be that which is "caught rather than taught."

By caught I mean we learn from observation, from experience, from being involved in the incidents, from the environment, and from having a chance to experiment and test out our theories in real situations. You can teach someone all kinds of good leadership theories, but it will not make him/her a leader.

What can the university and the people who are concerned with leadership development programs do? Instead of leaving leadership learning to individuals or to chance as has been the case for Thailand, what can universities do to be actively involved? Several presidents interviewed agreed that there were certain things

that universities at least can do for individuals who come into the pipeline. Similar to Kauffman (1980) who studied American college presidents, Thai university presidents in this study believed the responsibility for preparing prospective presidents was the job of the universities, particularly the university councils. The learning, according to them, should offer a variety of developmental opportunities, whether through a formal or an informal approach.

The same president who believed in leadership learning from being caught in situations rather than taught through formal learning, stated that a leadership development program for university presidents should come in the form of a mix of different learning experiences. The three categories of training programs include: 1) providing learning opportunities through the observations of real presidents at work; 2) providing learning opportunities through on-the-job experience; and 3) providing a variety of leadership theories in the form of a seminar or continuing education classes as a way to expand their outlooks.

Two presidents believed leadership learning through an observation program can be accomplished through the "president shadowing programs" which allow a learner to follow and observe closely real university presidents in action for a number of months. This program, which is already in place but in small numbers, must be increased in greater numbers and in cooperation with overseas universities must be extended.

One president suggested that learning on the job may be regularly done through the university support programs that serve as support programs to help college deans with strategies in handling

academic administration, personnel management, and budget and finance.

Another president suggested that formal seminars based on the mix between theories and practical applications should be available at all times to update and practice department heads, deans, and any administrators with a variety of knowledge important for leaders. Necessary courses include: leadership, organization management, finance, public speaking, public relations, mission and vision writing, planning and policies, conflict resolution, and most importantly governmental rules and regulations.

Crucial Chapters in Leadership Class:

When I specifically asked the presidents to name the three most crucial chapters that they thought must be included in a class entitled "Leadership in Thai Public Higher Education," their chapter outline represented diverse methods of approaching the subject. The following is the list of the three chapters that each president suggested. Since the presidents were asked to limit the lessons only to three chapters, the three chapters represent a package with an introduction and ending in themselves. The lessons presented varied in scope and concentration. Some presidents referred to the term leader as it directly related to the presidential position, while others extended the term to other leaders within the institution:

President A: Chapter 1 Buddhist Philosophy That Applies to
Leaders' Morals, Concentration,
and Wisdom

Chapter 2 The University and Its Functions

Chapter 3 Management in a University Context

- President B:**
- Chapter 1 Vision and Mission of Public University**
 - Chapter 2 Academic Administration**
 - Chapter 3 Personnel Management**
- President C:**
- Chapter 1 The Meaning(s) of Academic Leadership**
 - Chapter 2 Duties and Responsibilities of Presidents**
 - Chapter 3 Qualities of Good Presidential Leadership: Lessons from Experienced Presidents**
- President D:**
- Chapter 1 The Nature of University and its Duties**
 - Chapter 2 Problems and Dilemmas facing Academic Leaders**
 - Chapter 3 Problem solving strategies**
- President E:**
- Chapter 1 Philosophy of Higher Education**
 - Chapter 2 Policy Planning and Implementations**
 - Chapter 3 Academic Administration**
- President F:**
- Chapter 1 Achieving excellence in scholarship and research as a means to gain credibility in the academic arena**
 - Chapter 2 Participative Leadership**

**Chapter 3 Governmental and Institutional Rules
and Regulation regarding administration
of academics, personnel, and finance**

**President G: Chapter 1 Personality, Behaviors, and Roles of
Leaders**

**Chapter 2 Building Human Relations skills in
Leaders**

**Chapter 3 Skills and strategies in Handling
Meetings**

**President H: Chapter 1 The University as an Organization: Its
Roles, Philosophy, and Culture**

Chapter 2 Analysis of the University's Needs

Chapter 3 Outlook for the Future

**President I: One chapter lesson: Leadership and Lives based on
the Buddhist Moral Principle**

**President J: Chapter 1 Understanding Thai Higher Education:
Its Structure and Cultures**

**Chapter 2 Building Excellence on Academic
Campuses**

Chapter 3 Characteristics of Effective Leaders

- President K:**
- Chapter 1 Analysis of Thai Public University and Its Leaders (What characteristics do we need in a leader?)**
 - Chapter 2 Effective Leadership Behaviors and Roles in Thai Higher Education Context (How to be an effective leaders in Thai context?)**
 - Chapter 3 Other important Skills and Knowledge needed by leaders in Thai higher education context (Human relationship skills, conducting meeting, group dynamics etc.)**
- President L:**
- Chapter 1 Duties and Responsibilities**
 - Chapter 2 What to do and what not to do**
 - Chapter 3 Adaptation and Flexibility**
- President M:**
- Chapter 1 Understanding University Lives**
 - Chapter 2 Management of Academics, Personnel, and Finance**
 - Chapter 3 Characteristics of Good Academic Leadership**

By examining the above leadership lesson outline, it is evident that the presidents in this study shared beliefs that leaders of academic institutions, particularly the presidents, must gain knowledge in different areas. Whether through formal or informal

learning, the presidents stressed the importance of learning about academic leadership and how it works within colleges and universities.

Other important topics included learning about governmental rules and regulations and to increase managerial skills in three areas: academic, personnel, and finance. The issue of leadership effectiveness in terms of leaders' roles and behaviors also received considerable attention by the presidents.

What was interesting about the given lesson outlines was that Buddhist philosophy once again was identified as a crucial element in leadership training. One female president said if she taught a course called "Leadership in Higher Education," she would devote the class hours to help future leaders learn about leadership based on Buddhist's philosophy. She called her lesson "Leadership and Lives based on the Buddhist Moral Principles."

The reemergence of Buddhist philosophy as a crucial factor in this lesson outline once again confirmed my belief that college presidential leadership in Thai context was also influenced by Buddhist philosophy. It is a vital factor that differentiates Thai leaders from their counterparts in America and other parts of the world. In what way and how Buddhist philosophy is placed within Thai presidential leadership context is a topic that deserves further attention in future research.

Significant Adult Learning Lessons:

Erik Erikson (1950) introduced the concept of generativity in the context of a life-span theory of personality development. He

noted "Generativity is primarily the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation" (1963, p. 267). Generative adults nurture, teach, lead, promote, and produce products that will benefit society and contribute to the continuity of future generations (McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1992). One may be generative in the private realm of friends and family; others may be generative in a variety of life pursuits such as in their work lives, professional activities or volunteer endeavors.

According to McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992), generativity has been identified with behaviors, motives and values, and/or with a general attitude toward life and the world. Generative adults may express their generativity by bearing and raising children. They may have a concern for preserving what is good and make an effort to improve other things better. They maintain a broad perspective and understand their place in the generation sequence (p. 1004). Guided by their commitment, generative adults may express generativity in any form by "creating, maintaining, or offering" (p. 1005). McAdams (1985) pointed out that generativity extends to behavior when one tries to conserve, restore, preserve, cultivate, nurture, or maintain what s/he sees as worthy of such behavior, "as in nurturing children, preserving god traditions protecting the environment, and enacting rituals (in the school, home, or church) that link generations and assure continuity over time." (cited in McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1992, p. 1005). Becker (1973) and McAdams (1985) added that "generative behavior sometimes involves the seemingly selfless offering up of that which has been created or maintained, passing something or someone on to the next

generation as a gift, granting the gift its own autonomy and freedom" (cited in McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1992, p. 1006).

Generativity, according to Erikson is an adult issue because society comes to demand that adults take responsibility for the next generation, in their roles as parents, teachers, mentors, leaders, organizers, 'creative ritualizers' (Browning, 1975), and "keepers of the meaning" (Vaillant & Milofsky, 1980).

Cultural demand and inner desire cited as the two sources that motivate generativity in adults. They work to promote a conscious concern for the next generation. Motivated by a belief in the goodness of their fellow humans, adults' generative commitment may be stimulated and later transformed into action determined by individuals. How demand, desire, concern, belief, commitment, and action relate to one another is determined by the story that individuals create in an effort to provide for the next generation (McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1992, p. 1004). This "narration" or life story that the adult creates was explained by McAdams as a process of the adults' identity development where generativity was incorporated within it. He suggested

identity development is the major psychosocial issue for the preponderance of one's adult life time, and generativity is incorporated within it as one of many different and important aspects. In the context of an evolving personal myth, an adult constructs and seeks to live out a generativity script, specifying what he or she plans to do in the future to leave a legacy of the self for future generations"(p. 1006).

After reading about the theory of generativity, I began to ask myself several questions. Does a theory of generativity speak to the professional life stories of the thirteen Thai presidents I am now

studying? If it does, to what degree and how? The issue must be examined from diverse perspectives.

First, it may be said that the presidents in this study are highly generative individuals who chose to work in education. This is the field that is believed to be one that allow individuals to work for the care of other generation. If this is the case, McAdam's and de Aubin's "inner desire" plays a stronger role as a motivational source to stimulate generativity in these presidents. What evidence do I have to support this claim? If we reexamine the presidents' discussion in the previous two chapters, we will see that the life stories of these leaders demonstrate strong supporting evidence that these individuals represent a group of adults who spent an extraordinarily large part of their life trying to, in Erikson's terms "establish and guide the next generation." Words such as "contributing to society," "My life is devoted to my work," "I am very proud to be a part of building and educating our young people," "One reward from this job is to be able to use the love of teaching to educate young people." that appeared throughout their discussions in the previous two chapters indicate their strong concerns for the well being of the next generation. These individuals chose to spend an average of forty years as public people to teach, write, research, and lead and by their actions, represent examples of individuals who have devoted their lives constructing and seeking to live out a generativity script "to leave a legacy of the self for future generations" (McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1992, p. 1006).

Second, it is also possible that these presidents live their lives in a highly generative manner because their roles (in McAdams and

de St. Aubin's term, "cultural demand") motivate them to be. It may be that they became highly generative persons because of the demands of their roles as teachers, writers, researchers, administrators, and most importantly, leaders. The presidents' high generativity may have been the result of their roles as leaders. Gardner's (1995) definition of leadership, which was used as conceptual framework throughout this study, identifies a leader as someone who is highly generative. Gardner defined leader as someone who

by word and/or personal example, markedly influence the behaviors, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings. The leaders' voices affected their worlds, and, ultimately, our world.

It is true that inner desire and cultural demand motivate generativity in adults (McAdams, 1985). But which plays the larger role? Does each characteristic affect different actions in adults? If a leader's act of concern for the next generation is motivated largely by his/her own inner desire, will it be different from acts that are demanded by his/her leadership role? I do not know if inner desire or cultural demand plays the stronger role in the university presidents' actions. It also may depend on the situations and individuals.

My motivation for conducting this study was to examine specific areas of the Thai university presidents' lives (in this case, leadership learning and their work) and share their stories to others, especially those newcomers whose aspirations may lead them down a career path to a similar leadership position. My obligation here as a qualitative researcher is to represent the experiences of these

highly generative leaders and pass on the lessons gleaned from their lives to my audiences. When I asked the presidents to identify a "significant learning," defined as lesson they would like to pass on to other people, the presidents offered different insights and beliefs. Some provided basic values and beliefs; others imparted basic management and leadership philosophies; and some cited personal awareness. The combined list represents an interesting collection of philosophies that these real practitioners and leaders use in their lives, both professionally and personally.

Lessons of basic values and beliefs;

- 1) One must be a good lifelong self learner who continuously expands his/her knowledge as a means to help improve his/her work and personal life.
- 2) One must follow the Buddhist philosophy: be kind, seek knowledge, and work hard.
- 3) One must work hard and work smart.
- 4) One must live by one's principles and be devoted to society.
- 5) Real happiness is in one's heart, not in financial prosperity.
- 6) There is nothing that our ambition cannot conquer.
- 7) Ambition and hard work will lead you to your destiny.
- 8) We only have one life. We should help our country.

Lessons of basic management and leadership

- 1) One must not think of a presidential position as prestigious, but composed of duties and responsibilities that one is

committed to and has promised to meet to those who support him/her.

- 2) To be a leader, one must be prepared to face all kinds of situations, both the good and the bad.
- 3 Leaders must know how to restrain their tempers.
- 4) Leaders must never make enemies of those who have authority and power.
- 5) Education is at the heart of everything. We cannot compete with other countries if our education still lags behind them.
- 6) A college president's duty is to see that our graduates become the strength of our nation.
- 8) Mistakes make the best learning lessons for leaders.
- 9) Leaders make decisions based on the rightness and the well being of people as a whole.
- 10) The ability to read people can be a helpful asset.

Lessons of personal awareness:

- 1) One should study in the field of his/her interest to do well.
- 2) One must follow a healthy life style in order to work fourteen hours a day.
- 3) One's success depends on one's endurance.
- 4) Exercise is important to one's health.
- 5) Life is composed of ups and downs.
- 6) Our lives are divided into personal and professional.
- 7) Family and friends are important factors in one's journey of life.

Summary

The presidents' perspectives on the preparation of future public university presidents in terms of qualifications and training, including significant lessons that these leaders felt were crucial for them to share with others, were presented in this chapter.

The Thai presidents who participated in this study believed that aspiring future university presidents must complete certain preliminary tasks to prepare themselves for the future. They also concluded that a leadership development program for Thai university presidents should come in the form of a mix of different learning experiences: observations of real presidents at work; on-the-job experience; and seminars or continuing education classes. The data gathered supported the assumption that these presidents represented a group of adults with high "generativity." As the interview ended, the presidents provided an interesting list of philosophies to pass on to the next generation. The list was composed of three broad categories: 1) lessons of basic values and beliefs, 2) lessons of basic management and leadership, and 3) lessons of personal awareness.

Chapter 8

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE, AND REFLECTIONS

Introduction

In this study, the characteristics and career paths of Thai public university presidents were examined. Interesting patterns and subtle variations emerged during the presidents' discussions about how they learned to be leaders during their college years and different career experiences. In addition, the study revealed diverse meaning(s) of Thai college presidential leadership as viewed through the eyes of these practitioners. The study also presented an interesting outlook for the preparation of future Thai university presidents.

This chapter presents the conclusions drawn from the study's findings as well as the implications of these findings and suggestions for future research. Personal reflections on the research experience will be shared, summarizing the research process and discussing specific personal insights into the researcher's learning.

Conclusions

The main purpose of this study was to explore the characteristics, career paths, and natures of these Thai public university presidents' discussions of their leadership learning experiences, and to examine their observations about the meanings

of presidential leadership and their work as chief executives of their institutions. The study also attempted to identify important elements required for the preparation of future Thai public university presidents. Twelve current presidents and one ex-president were interviewed. Cross- case analysis is used as the main method to analyze and collate data.

Summary of the Major Findings:

Research question 1:

How did Thai public university presidents prepare themselves to be a president in terms of educational background, career paths that they followed, and continuous leadership learning?

The typical president of a Thai public university participating this study is male, 58 years old and holds academic rank and tenure. S/he served an average of five years in his/her presidency. A majority of the presidents earned doctoral degrees. Most of the presidents came from science disciplines -- engineering was the most common field for the subjects. All but one earned their college degrees overseas. Most of the presidents attended American colleges, followed distantly by British institutions. The most common position obtained just prior to the president's post was that of a vice president. A majority of the subjects were recruited internally. The data indicated clearly that the current career paths of Thai public university presidents were academic. The majority of the presidents in this study appeared to follow Cohen and March's (1974) "logic of

hierarchy," or promotion through the administrative structure of the institution.

The data from the interview section revealed that the presidents' experiences with leadership learning strongly supported Gardner's (1995) and Middlehurst's (1993) belief that leadership can be learned. Their conversations also confirmed that the learning process was active. It involved engagement with leadership at intellectual, emotional and physical levels (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 165). The crucial ingredients for leadership learning identified by the Thai presidents were similar to Middlehurst's. They included learning about various things: oneself, others, organizational know-how, management skills, and skills to cope with uncertainty. Nearly all the presidents interviewed believed that college classroom learning, especially extracurricular activities contributed to their leadership learning. They believed both classroom education and extra-curricular activities helped build fundamental leadership skills while they were young adults. Leadership learning is a continuous process. The data indicates clearly that the leadership learning of these presidents began early in their lives, continued into their college years, and intensified as they moved into adulthood and worked at different jobs. All of the Thai presidents interviewed taught at the university level for some years. Many spoke positively and fondly of their teaching careers. They also believed teaching at the college level taught them lasting leadership knowledge that played an essential role in forming the academic leaders they had become today. As college professors, these presidents learned valuable lessons about leadership from the perspectives of faculty

members, who are important participants in the organization called colleges and universities. It also helped the presidents understand how to help students achieve. The experience exposed them to the nature, life, and functions of the university from the perspectives of those who live and work with it. They lived closely with other academic people, and helped them appreciate the shared and unique needs of different faculty members. They became aware of the culture of scholars and the faculty members' work and duties. As faculty members, the presidents developed a network of friends within the institution who would later become their primary supporters as they moved along their career paths. The experience gained in a teaching job through reading and research created a love for life long pursuit of self education, a necessary characteristic for a good leader. Teaching gave them the opportunity to practice public speaking and communication, taught them how to transfer information and how to speak so that students understood them. This became a useful skill when these presidents became leaders.

Some presidents whose career paths included heading a research team, believed the experience helped them learn to coordinate, mix and match people's talents to oversee projects successfully and to ensure the project would contribute to the society at large.

Heading a department provided an opportunity for these presidents to discover their faculty's strengths and weaknesses and how to handle personnel matters. They said they learned how to balance their personal moral judgment with institutional rules and regulations when dealing with personnel problems.

Presidents, who once served as deans of a college of their discipline, thought the deanship provided good training and served as a simulation of a larger organization. The dean's job offered experience in all aspects of the governance of students, faculty, and staff. It taught them about administration of academics, personnel, and finance. It exposed them to the difficulties and burdens involved in the work of a university administrator, helping these women and men understand the tasks of middle management. It assisted them by allowing them to test their administrative theories and skills. Working as a dean prepared and helped these people to make fewer mistakes as presidents. It taught them how to work with a large group of people and how to mix and match their strengths to ensure the success of a variety of projects. It provided direct opportunities to deal with diverse groups of faculty members. The experiences taught them how to become academic leaders and how to communicate with faculty members by using expert and reference power rather than position power, which has no place in colleges and universities.

Some presidents, whose careers included working as vice-presidents, believed such a position provided the opportunity to work on tasks that were part of the presidents' responsibilities. They practiced in advance some presidential duties. Those interviewees who moved from one vice-presidency to another during their careers gained longer practical training time. These future presidents were able to market themselves and establish their reputation in the internal community through recognizable work achievement. They dealt with people from different colleges and

compromised, balanced, and handled conflicts of interests. They used their best knowledge and abilities to work on specific areas of expertise, and did not have to worry about their own leadership performance, since they were members of a team. They worked closely with the president, who usually ended mentoring them and teaching them how to be a university president.

The Thai presidents in this study identified three groups of people who influenced their success. 1) Those in higher positions or of higher seniority, such as former bosses or teachers; 2) immediate relatives, such as father, mother, or spouses; 3) friends, colleagues, and subordinates. The teaching and learning strategies found among the presidents and their parents, mentors, and spouses usually developed into three patterns: direct teaching, indirect teaching, and supportive role.

The most crucial factors the Thai college presidents believed helped them to be chosen as presidents included: 1) displaying the special characteristics of a good leader; 2) maintaining respectable career histories and good family life; 3) participating in the history of a pioneer team who help build their institutions. They knew the institutions well and had a good sense of direction for the institutions; 4) have a number of years of administrative experience at different levels, especially as deans and a vice presidents; 5) earn a long list of achievements and national recognition for administrative and scholarly work; 6) achieve an academic rank, especially at the professorship level; 7) have the personality, qualifications, and expertise that match the needs of the institution, especially at a time when the institution is facing a crisis;

8) present institutional plans that satisfies the board of regent at the time of the interview; 9) gain experience in education and a good understanding of both Thai higher education and university life; 10) Be an internal candidate who has served the institution all of his/her professional life; 11) cultivate strong connections and networks with outside constituencies, including important powerful figures at the governmental level; 12) develop a talent in fund-raising; and 13) perfect the ability to communicate with larger audiences.

Research question 2:

II. How did Thai public university presidents talk about the meaning(s) of presidential leadership and their work as chief executives and leaders of their institutions?

The presidents' definitions of "leadership" varied. While most presidents described leadership in terms of a leader's abilities or personalities, others discussed it in terms of what leaders do. Some included both definitions. A few referred to leadership as the art of understanding the environment they were in. Because authoritative power was considered incompatible with college and university cultures, academic leaders turned to other leadership approaches. The presidents who participated in this study shared a common approach when they identified the best way to get things done around their campuses was through consultation and seeking support from their members.

Because Thailand's Ministry of University Affairs still exercises direct control over several aspects of most of Thai public universities, presidents participating in this study also noted that the challenge of the public university president's job depended on one's ability to be efficient and creative when working within the confines of governmental regulations. The most frequently mentioned drawback of being part of the government was the regulated salary for university employees. Because the government maintains a low pay scale, many good candidates for faculty positions turned to other organizations or private sectors that offered higher salaries.

More than half of the presidents in this study said personnel management was the most frustrating duty they faced in their careers, especially when dealing with academic professionals who were protected by their professionalism. These presidents also said trying to please everyone on campus was a nearly impossible task because the university is made up of different types of people who come from diverse disciplines and interests. The next most cited challenge for Thai public university presidents was that the universities were part of the civil service system. The lack of institutional autonomy made it difficult for the administration to resolve any challenging decisions that emerged.

The Thai presidents believed that there were certain preliminary tasks that aspiring future university presidents must complete. They included become an expert in one's chosen field of study; accumulate national recognition and credibility for one's work; Make sure one's profession contributes to society; gain a variety of experiences; maintain a respectable personal life; develop skills and

experiences in fund-raising and finance; enhance skills and experiences in business administration; create a network of people in academics, at the university and governmental levels; be a life-long learner with a broad variety of knowledge; learn about the university as an organization and its culture; become acquainted with university life at least from a teaching perspective; achieve excellence in scholarship and research and secure a professorship rank; Do not let career expectation ruins one's concentration; search for and obtain opportunities; regularly volunteer for and become familiarize with all kinds of committees and community work; do not expect monetary return from a college presidential job; ask yourself if you like being a leader, if you like working 20 hours a day and if you like dealing with people; if one is a woman, one should prepare oneself to be the kind of woman who can handle personal rumors and criticism and dedicate herself to her career.

The presidents believed a leadership development program for university presidents should be a mix of different learning experiences. The three categories of training programs included: 1) provide learning opportunities by observing real presidents at work; 2) provide learning opportunities through on-the-job experience; and 3) provide a variety of leadership theories as a seminar or through continuing education classes.

The results of this study suggest several conclusions that assist in the understanding of Thai public university presidents.

Characteristics and Career Paths:

1. The career paths of Thai public university presidents were largely similar to those of their American counterparts as described by Cohen and March (1974) and Green (1986 and 1990). Just like the majority of their American counterparts, most Thai public university presidents were academics.

They become presidents after having lived almost exclusively in academic organizations. Most enter an institution of higher education at about age 18 and . . . spend the rest of their pre- presidential life there. . . Presidents commonly come to the job after 20 to 35 years of socialization into the values of academe, first from the viewpoint of a student, then from the viewpoint of a faculty member, then from the viewpoint of an academic administrator" (Cohen and March, 1974, pp. 24-25).

Because Thai public university presidents are socialized into academics, they tend to have "a deep commitment to academe and to development within a range of normatively accepted change" (Cohen and March, 1974, p. 27).

2. Most Thai public university presidents are well-known scholars in their fields. The majority hold doctoral degrees and most earned their degrees at an institution in the United States. The dominant fields of study of Thai public university presidents were disciplines in the Sciences.
3. The Thai university presidency is still a male dominated career.
4. The average age of a Thai public university president is higher than his/her American counterparts (58 compared to 53).
The average age when they achieved first presidency is also higher than their American counterparts (51 compared to mid 40s).

5. Thai public university presidents (with the exception of two institutions) are public servants. They are paid far less than their counterparts in the private sectors. What appears to keep these individuals motivated is that their job gives them prestige and satisfies their self-actualization.
6. Most Thai presidents interviewed felt a public university presidency comes by chance.

Leadership Learning:

1. College classrooms and extra- curricular activities served as the first formal training and practical arenas that allowed the Thai public university presidents to learn and exercise basic elements of leadership. The majority of the presidents in this study had one thing in common as college students: they played active roles in extra-curricular activities, most often as leaders of student clubs.
2. Parents, guardians, former bosses, colleagues, spouses and /or children played crucial roles in the success of these Thai public university presidents which is consistent with Borland's (1976) and Dotterer's (1989) findings. Like many American college presidents in Borland and Dotterer's studies, these Thai presidents also identified a specific person who contributed to their professional growth. Events that proved to motivate them into higher education administration included encouragement from a co-worker or supervisor and/or bad experiences with specific administrators. Different people and circumstances in their lives were also reported as influential to

the presidents. Among these were professors, teachers, coaches, other college presidents, spouses, family members, or other superiors in the job situation. Consistent with Kouzes and Posner's (1987), findings, these significant others played important roles in their leadership learning. They served as role models for appropriate behaviors and sometimes identified inappropriate behaviors for the presidents. They also provided inspiration, advice, feedback, instruction, counseling or sponsorship.

3. A variety of job experiences were crucial to leadership development of these leaders. Each job they took provided them with opportunities to explore variety of leadership knowledge and prepared them for a presidential position. This finding is consistent with Dotterer (1989), who found that American community college presidents who participated in his study believed that previously held professional experiences provided "lessons" that they used in their presidencies.
4. Leadership learning is a continuous process that requires individuals to be actively involved long-term with leadership activities.

The Meanings of Thai Presidential Leadership:

- I. Leadership is a universal concept. While local cultures may alter, mask, and disguise some aspects of leadership, the basic make-up of leadership is still universal. The process of leadership is not one person's act but the activity that occurs between the leader and the led. Leaders in different parts of

the world may employ similar or different methods and strategies to get things done. However, the bottom line is that all leaders, regardless of regions and cultures, work to "influence thought, feeling, and action to produce collective effort" (Bolman and Deal, 1990, p. 410) to achieve purposes and values shared by the leader and the led.

In the following, I use a Western framework as a point of departure in conceptualizing Thai university presidential leadership.

Table 9 Thai Public Universities and Presidential Leadership Described Based on Theories of Organization

Theories of Organization	Thai public universities and presidential leadership
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Bureaucratic	X
Collegial	X
Political	
Cultural	

As the table indicates, Thai public university presidents' discussion of their universities and their leadership seem to fall within either bureaucratic and/or collegial frameworks. Neither political nor cultural frame were referred to during the interviews.

When viewing their organization and presidential leadership through the bureaucratic frame, these leaders described their roles as making decisions, analyzing problems, determining alternate solutions, choosing the best solution, and executing it (Bensimon,

Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 33). When the presidents saw their organizations as a "collegium," and/or a "human and academic community," they tended to emphasize consensus building, shared power, common commitments and aspirations. They also tended to describe their leadership by emphasizing consultation and collective responsibilities (Birnbaum, 1988, Boleman and Deal, 1991).

**Table 10 Thai public university presidential Leadership Described
Based on Leadership Theories**

Theories of Leadership	Thai public university presidential Leadership
Trait Theories	X
Behavioral Theories	X
Contingency Theories	X
Power and influence Theories	X
Cognitive Theories	
Cultural and Symbolic Theories	

The table indicates that Thai public university presidents' descriptions of their leadership may be categorized into four types of Western theories. Trait Theories, which describe leadership in terms of leaders' personal qualities including leaders' specific characteristics, personalities, social background, and abilities, were often found in their talks. Behavioral theories, which identify leadership as associated with behavior and style of leaders, showed up throughout. Power and influence theories, which suggest that

leadership is associated with the use of power, appeared in several conversations. Contingency theories, which state that leadership is affected by the context and situation, were mentioned by some presidents.

None of the presidents, however, described their leadership in terms of political theories or cultural and symbolic Theories.

The following offers a further description of presidential leadership that fall within trait, behavioral, contingency, and power and influence theories

Trait Theory

Leadership is described in terms of leaders' personal qualities including leaders' specific characteristics, personalities, social background, and abilities

Specific Characteristics and Personalities as identified by the presidents themselves:

- Thai presidents are leaders who display special characteristics, such as hard working, industrious, caring, trustworthy, just, risk-taker, knowledgeable, talented, high self-esteem, dominance, emotional stability, initiative, persistence, good health, kind-hearted, and developing good human relationships and communications skills.
- Thai presidents should be intellectual, well groomed, and decent
- Thai presidents must maintain good family lives.

- Thai presidents, in most cases, are extroverts because the job requires them to appear in front of large audiences and regularly attend various public events and social activities.
- Thai presidents must be skilled at personal management.
- Thai presidents are individuals who understand people and know that people have diverse needs.

Social Background

- Thai presidents have advanced university degrees. More and more, a doctoral degree was required.
- Thai presidents are well-known scholars in their fields. They held academic ranks, especially at the professorship level.

Abilities

- Thai presidents have the ability to communicate with large audiences, especially to put theories into practical terms that are understandable to diverse audiences.
- Thai presidents have the ability to be efficient and creative while working within the rules drawn by the government.
- Presidents know how to adapt ideas from for-profit organizations that will help university employees with financial crisis due to the low paying salary system.

- They know how to manage budgets, bring in money from outside sources and disburse money balancingly among employees.
- They are strongly committed to their jobs and devote endless hours to their responsibilities.
- Thai presidents establish strong networks within and outside their organizations.
- Thai presidents must know how to manage their time.

Behavioral Theories: Leadership was identified as associated with behavior and style. The participating presidents described leadership by focusing on what they as leaders actually do.

- Authoritative power does not work in a university setting, Presidents use the art of making others believe in them and bind into their ideas.
- To get things done around campus, presidents use consultation and ask for support.
- Presidents use participative management and try to build mutual understanding among staff.
- Presidents lead their institutions by rules and regulations, traditions and customs, and principles and morality.
- Presidents create trust, persuade others to take positive actions and lead the group to meet set goals.
- Presidents direct and drive their followers' energies.
- Presidents take criticism as learning lessons.
- Presidents build and maintain strong teaching forces.

Contingency theories: state leadership is affected by the context and situation.

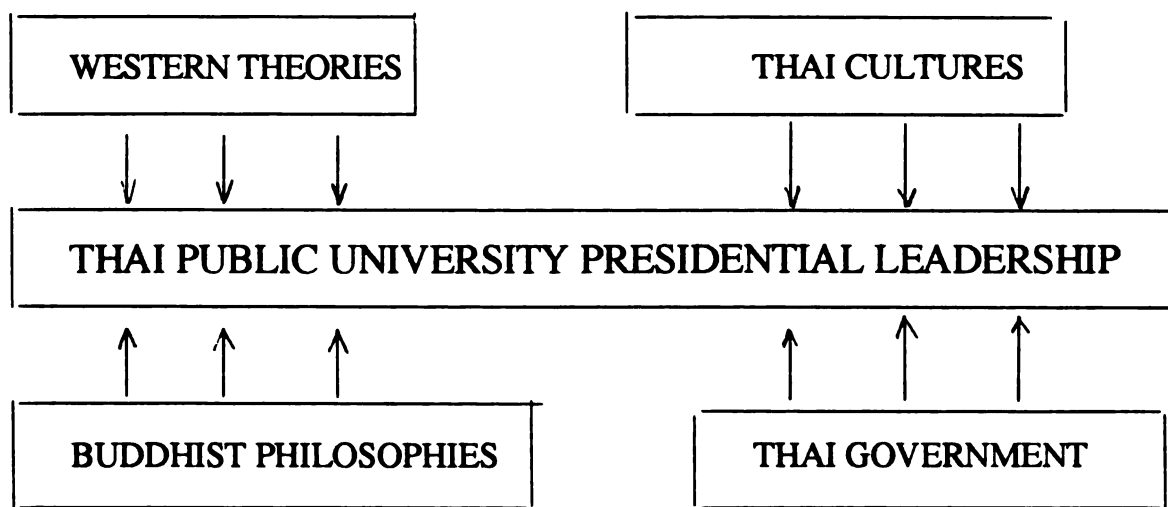
- Some Thai presidents believe that different situations and different tasks require different patterns of traits and behaviors.

Power and influence theories: suggest that leadership is associated with the use of power. Several presidents in the study indicated that

- Authoritative power has no place in Thai universities.
- Expert and reference power are the two most important powers used by many Thai presidents.

II. Presidential leadership as described in this study appeared to be somewhat similar to those of American college presidents. However, differences also existed. Thai college presidential leadership is influenced not only by Western theories but also by certain Thai features, such as Buddhist philosophies, Thai traditions and cultures, and governmental control.

Figure 2 Thai Public University Presidential Leadership



*Special "Thainess" of Thai presidential
leadership that differ from the West*

Though the leadership of Thai public university presidents may be similar to the West in many ways, it however, differs from the West in certain aspects. Thai presidential leadership is influenced by Buddhist's philosophies, Thai cultures, and governmental control.

Buddha's Teaching:

- Principles for laymen that apply also to leaders
One must maintain: Kindness
 Decent profession
 Monogamy
 Honesty
 Stability and unrecklessness

- Specific principles for leaders
Principles of an honest man:
 Honest actions
 Honest Words
 Honest Thoughts

Ten Principles for Governors:

- Leaders must know how to give for others' benefits.
- Leaders must maintain honesty for oneself as well as for others.
- Leaders are humble.
- Leaders must respect their elders while extending help to their younger followers.

- Through "Transcendental meditation," leaders rid themselves of greed and anger.
- Leaders extend kindness and good will to others.
- Leaders are proud of who they are and are not envious when they see others succeed.
- Leaders do not exploit or take advantage of other people.
- Leaders can endure hardship and other forces that may hurt their feelings.
- Leaders live firmly by right principles. They hold to their justice, based on truth and are impartial when it comes to dealing with people

Thai Cultures

- Seniority system:
 - Ex 1: Elders command the young. Elders hold higher ranks and command the young, who hold lower ranks.
 - Ex 2: It is inappropriate to question the authority of the elders.
 - Ex3: Age signifies wisdom; youth signifies innocence.
- Gender Bias

Ex1: Women are viewed as being the two back legs of the elephants while men are viewed as the two front legs which make the lead.

Ex 2: Women are stuck in middle-management positions.

Ex 3: Men will not choose women as their leaders.

Ex 4: Women themselves sometimes do not support women candidates.

- **Governmental Control**

Ex1: Universities have limited autonomy in their governance.

Ex2: The ministry provides strict guidelines for curriculum, finance, and personnel matters.

Ex 3: Low salary scales

EX 4: Ranks are given based on the Thai civil system. Those of higher rank command those of lower rank.

Ex 5: Part of governmental bureaucracy

Ex 6: Presidential leadership sometimes is constrained by governmental control

III. The Thai presidents interviewed shared many things in common, in particular that they represented a group of highly generative adults -- "the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation" (Erikson, 1950,1963, p. 267). This characteristic appears to be consistent with the characteristics of leaders outlined by Gardner (1995). They are

persons who, by word and/or personal example, markedly influence the behaviors, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings (here termed followers or audience members). The leaders' voices affected their worlds, and, ultimately, our world (p. 6).

- IV. Gardner (1995) believed some leaders are "direct" leaders, some are "indirect" leaders and some exhibit tendencies of both. The Thai university presidents, in their roles as chief executives of their institutions, demonstrated "direct leadership." Most also exercised "indirect leadership" through their writing and research that influenced others internally and externally outside their domains.

Preparation of Future Thai Public University Presidents:

- a. The presidents interviewed believed there were certain things that aspiring candidates could collect over time to qualify for university presidency.
- b. A serious lack of leadership development programs for the future university presidents in Thailand still exists. Leadership learning effort is left to individuals.
- c. Most leadership learning that occurred in the lives of the Thai presidents in this study were the result of individual efforts. This finding suggests that the Ministry of University Affairs and individual universities, in the past, failed to support leadership development of their employees. If the Thai government and universities wish to internationalize their institutions, changes must be made. Leadership

- development for academic leaders must depend on both individual and organization effort" (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 166). The Thai government in cooperation with its universities must provide ongoing, long-term leadership development programs for people, who come in the pipeline such as deans and vice-presidents, to better prepare them for university presidencies.
- d. Leadership development programs must provide future leaders with a variety of experiences: learning through observation, learning on the job, and learning through formal courses.

Implications for the Future

The research findings facilitate acquisition of several items as promised in Chapter One.

- a. The study helps expand the knowledge of those who serve as university presidents in Thai higher education, especially their characteristics, educational backgrounds and career paths.
- b. This study has raised several new questions regarding leadership learning. The leaders in this study learned through their working experiences. Because of the lack of leadership development and support programs from the universities and the Thai Ministry of Colleges and Universities Affairs, further questions must be raised. What type of leadership learning programs would be the most appropriate and useful for Thai leaders? How should long-term efforts be started to establish leadership programs for Thai academic

leaders? What roles should the ministry play and what roles should institutions should play?

- c. The Thai Ministry of University Affairs officers who are responsible for the curriculum, personnel and budget allocations at the time of the study could use the results of this study to help define policy planning, specifically regarding their roles in promoting leadership development programs and promoting more women to become college presidents.

As evident in the findings, leadership development programs for university presidents are still in great need. The Thai Ministry of College and University Affairs must seriously review its role in creating and supporting such programs on Thai campuses. The question of what and how the Ministry can achieve in supporting a leadership development program will be further reviewed in the latter part of this section.

Female presidents indicated that Thai women's administrative careers stop at middle management. Causes for this dilemma range from a culture of sexism and inequality in the workplace to Thai traditions and culture that designates specific places for women as followers or subordinate to men. The fact that a university presidency is still a male-dominated career implies that Thai Ministry of College and University Affairs must develop special policies to ease and encourage women administrators into the administrative pipeline. Affirmative action policies may be put in place to secure equal opportunity for female candidates.

- d. **Scholars in comparative studies may use this study to create comparisons between Thailand and other countries in the area of university presidential leadership. The study indicates clearly that Thai university presidential leadership, in general is, not much different from the West, including career paths, beliefs, daily work, and practice. However, when differences exist, they are influenced by Buddhism, Thai cultures and tradition, and a state-controlled system.**
- e. **Western consultants currently working with the Thai Ministry of College and University Affairs on issues related to Thai higher education will find this study a good resource to help them better understand the background of Thai public universities and their leaders. The study helps explain what Thai public universities are like, who their leaders are, and what challenges their leaders face in their governance.**
- f. **Future Thai leaders may use the results of this study to help them better understand what it takes to become a Thai public university president. More importantly, they can begin to determine what they, as future leaders, must learn and how best to learn. As they read into the professional lives of these presidents, they will come to understand what it means to be an executive leader in a Thai public institutions.**

Current and future female administrators who aspire to become college presidents will find the information in this study useful in helping them understand why female administrators are not reaching the top and why university president is still a male dominant career. As they read the

stories of female presidents, they may find the information useful in helping them set their career aspirations and develop ways to achieve them.

- g. Thai college faculty who are currently responsible for teaching and training future college administrators may use the results of this study to enrich their conversations about presidential leadership in higher education, especially the role of leadership learning during college years and career experiences. The study could be used as a reading in classes such as "Leadership in Higher Education."
- h. Those who are interested in the issue of the values of college education will find some part of this work useful, especially the part that deals with the leaders' reflections on their leadership learning during their college years. College experiences, especially the extracurricular activities that allow individuals to exercise the meaning of group work as a leader as well as a follower, all proved to be essential for individual growth as a future leader.
- i. The results of this study may prove useful for individuals in leadership development within academic organizations. The study helps identify what is currently lacking, what is needed, and how to go about developing programs deemed suitable for helping Thai future leaders learn.
- j. University presidents who participated in this study will find the interview process beneficial to their own learning because it stimulates self-reflection about their roles. The reflection

process allows presidents to reassess their development and to strategize new professional goals.

- k. The qualitative interview method used in the study offers a challenge for the researcher. The experiences from conducting this study add to the field of research methodology, answering questions such as what happens when an interview is conducted in one language, but the analysis is completed in another? How much of the language barrier is involved in attempting to translate across cultures? All these questions are answered in the reflection section in the final chapter.

The study offers implications in several areas. First, this study's findings have implications for Thai graduate programs that prepare future college administrators. Second, the findings suggest that the Ministry of University Affairs and individual universities must accept responsibility for the leadership development of academic leaders. Third, there are implications for the future hiring considerations of university presidents. The findings in this study also have implications for consultants and/or other officials interested in improving the quality of life within the academic organization. Finally, there are also implications for Thai research.

The results of this research on Thai public university presidents' career paths, leadership learning , and lives in their presidencies prompt a closer examination of their experiences in the development of theory for university programs of college administration as they seek to better understand presidential leadership within the Thai context. This study, which deals

specifically with Thai subjects in a Thai framework, will help Thai students experience presidential leadership not from a Western point of view, but rather from a Thai perspective. Thai graduate schools should encourage their students to develop theories of their own in comparison with those borrowed from the West and other parts of the world. The presidents' voices found in this study should be woven into administrative theory and practice for a Thai context.

The evidence points clearly that there are few, if any, leadership development programs for academic leaders in Thai public institutions. The presidents interviewed indicated their leadership learning was achieved on their own and proved unpredictable. This finding should encourage the Thai Ministry of University Affairs and individual campuses to seriously examine this issue. A strong commitment for ongoing leadership development programs will help universities improve the quality of their employees, the efficiency and the quality of Thai higher education, and prepare them to meet unforeseen future challenges.

While first-hand experience may be the best way to learn administration and leadership for Thai leaders in the long run, mistakes can be costly to individuals and institutions. Learning the science and art of leadership and administration is itself a continuous process that can "most effectively be accomplished by complementing on-the job experience with professional development activities creatively fashioned or selected to meet the specific needs of the individual (Fisher, 1978, p. 11). Activities for professional development come in various forms ranging from informal professional reading and institution-sponsored seminars or

internships to released time for study and travel, including visits to other campuses or participation in more formal, national programs. Whatever forms they may come in, professional development programs for academic leaders must be a continuous process based on the fact that there is a continuously expanding body of knowledge. As Zoffer (1976) suggests, an emerging "definable set of responsibilities requires a definable set of administrative skills" (cited in Fisher p. 7).

The basis checklist recommended for analyzing the professional development needs of academic leaders or administrators will help the ministry and other institutions decide on the types of programs to be offered. According to McDade (1987), professional development programs for academic leaders should include teaching skills in development of vision; development of goals, planning and strategy; development of innovation; development of consensus; development of decisions; development of resources; responsibility for operations; responsibility for relationships with the environment; responsibility for people; development of a working environment; development of communications; and development of other necessary leadership skills and knowledge (p. 17).

The most frequent development needs of academic leaders found in the Western literature may be used as a point of departure for the Thai ministry and Thai institutions of higher learning to examine the needs of their Thai leaders. The following checklist provided by McDade (1987) may serve as a basis for the Thai ministry and other institutions to analyze strengths and weaknesses and to select professional development opportunities. The most

common development needs of academic leaders include speaking publicly, delegating, working with a board, planning, acquiring resources, working with governments, budgeting time, managing and controlling finances, developing support, analyzing data, conducting meetings, cultivating constituency support, negotiating and resolving conflict, motivating personnel, framing programs and policies, measuring and evaluating programs, and establishing marketing strategies (p. 18). The ministry and other Thai institutions should use this list to help them develop a list that is applicable to Thai needs. Whether through survey measurement or interview data, the final product of the list will help identify and prioritize a leadership curriculum.

Professional and leadership development programs may range in length from a few days to a week's duration. Program may be short and thematic in nature, focusing on a current issue or major administrative and leadership problem. A short-term program may help individual learners "telescope relevant learning experiences; enhance conceptual skills and decision-making techniques; impart sound administrative principles, policies, and procedures; relate administrative theory to successful practice; and, in the final analysis, accelerate job effectiveness (Fisher, 1978, p. 13). Programs may be more constituency oriented, concentrating on the role of a university president as it relates both to basic concerns and administrative problem-solving (p. 12).

The leader-learner may be anyone from the department chairperson to the president. S/he may be a new administrator or an experienced leader (pp. 11-12). Different types of programs

should be made available for the professional development of Thai academic leaders. National institutes and internships, administrative conferences, conventions, and meetings, seminars, and workshops are some of the possibilities that the ministry, in cooperation with universities and other educational associations, must explore. Imperical evaluation of all programs must be put in place. Cooperation between the Ministry and institutions and between the institutions and institutions is necessary. Confusing duplication of effort should be avoided. Followings are several possibilities that will help those concerned with Thai higher education get started with professional development programs. The issue of funding will not be included because I want to leave this issue to the Thai government and university people who must sit down and thoroughly investigate the possibilities.

1. National inservice professional programs offered and supervised solely by the Ministry of College and University Affairs.

The Thai Ministry of College and University Affairs should have a specific department responsible for personnel development. This department can provide an intensive orientation program for all Thai university presidents and/or other administrators through a leadership institute. The ministry, in cooperation with other national and regional higher education associations, can establish or expand professional development programs for their own constituencies. To coordinate and improve their activities, representatives from

these associations must meet regularly to discuss common concerns, leadership development needs, and opportunities for cooperative programs and services (Fisher, 1979, p. 13).

Drawing upon national and international experts, this ministry-based leadership development program could use a variety of teaching/learning methods, including addresses, panels, seminars, case-study sessions, simulations and small-group discussions.

For those who are entering the administrative pipeline for presidential positions, programs like nationwide consortium, and institutionally-sponsored internships are appropriate. An internship experience, "while time-consuming and very possibly expensive, has the unique advantage of bringing the individual, under the guidance of a mentor, into direct contact with reality where he or she is free to study, observe, and learn unencumbered by the responsibilities and constraints of a (president) job commitment" (Dobins and Strauffer, 1972, and Fisher, 1973 as cited in Fisher, 1978, p. 14).

2. In-house leadership development programs:

Each college and university should develop some form of an inservice professional development program for their academic leaders that also involve faculty. These programs should be institutionally initiated and focused. Activities could range from workshops and seminars to retreats and internships. Some may be brief or extensive and periodic.

Topics may range from the role of academic leaders to current institutional concerns, time and resource management, and general issues in Thai higher education. Such a program at the institutional level is not necessarily expensive. It can use primarily local resources. Significant leadership learning and administrative growth activities, such as occasional informal staff seminars and inter-office "mini" internships, reality-based materials, bibliographies, and various teaching and learning approaches could be adopted from already existing programs. Peer-learning is also considered an essential ingredient. The program must also include evaluation and subsequent improvement (Fisher, 1979, p. 15).

3. University-based leadership development programs: Leading university schools of education may take the initiative to start offering professional development programs for all administrators nationwide. The university can provide service to all public and private institutions for a monetary return. The institute can also extend such a program to leaders in other sectors. This university-based programs would expose administrators and executives to "viewpoints different from their own and their companies (institutions) through interaction with faculty and classmates with diverse experiences" (McDade, 1987). The programs can be tailored to the training needs of a specific institution or company. The programs can be made more flexible in format, location, and facilities.

4. National academy for Leadership Development in Thai post-secondary education run through the cooperative efforts of the ministry, institutions, and other related educational associations:

Perhaps the ministry, in cooperation with all institutions and other related educational associations, should together develop a national academy for leadership development (Fisher, 1977) that offers a mutiservice professional development program. It also can serve as a main residential conference-learning center. The academy can offer programs for their constituents. Activities would include consultation, training, and relevant, future oriented research. Its curriculum should include a variety of short-term courses based on a variety of teaching methods. Its faculty would include a visiting staff that included national experts, educators, scholars, experienced administrators, and ex-university presidents.

This leadership academy, based on a Western model, would provide alternative learning opportunities for current and future academic leaders. Its offerings "would go beyond the capacity of one-short, short-term seminars, workshops, and institutes, but far short of the requirements of time, cost, and hurdles of graduate degree programs" (p.16). The majority of students would be new graduates moving into administrative jobs and experienced administrators in search of renewal or a refreshing of recent administrative and leadership knowledge. All academic leaders, including

presidents, should be provided with the opportunity to attend the academy on a regular basis.

5 International programs available in other countries:

One possibility is for the ministry to set aside funding for scholarships to regularly send new Thai public university presidents or other academic leaders to international professional development programs provided by leadership institutes overseas. Though possible in practice, I think this option is less desirable and will not help solve Thailand's problems in the long-run. Not only is it costly to send Thai academic leaders overseas, the content offered in other countries may not be applicable to the Thai context. Since it is costly, the number of available scholarships will be limited. In the long run, the program may fade out.

Whichever options those concerned with Thailand's higher education may choose, the most important thing for them to remember is that "the leadership development programs with the most impact are not one shot or random" (McDade, 1987,p.30).

Next, the findings on the characteristics, career paths, factors influencing presidential appointments, and beliefs about Thai university presidential leadership should encourage those responsible for the recruitment of future presidential candidates to discuss their current hiring practices. The findings may be used as reading materials to encourage conversation among these individuals

about what is lacking and what needs to be done in terms of future candidates' qualifications. If the Thai government turns autonomy over to all public universities as predicted in the future, the roles of university presidents will change. In order to find candidates with different social, personal, or experiential characteristics, the university councils must make major changes in their recruitment process. The question that deserves serious attention is how will they locate candidates with new skills from for-profit organizations with a thorough understanding of the university as a unique organization and a true belief in academics.

Of equal importance is the issue of quality of life within academics. The presidents in this study spoke about their many years of career and lives within academic organizations, and also reflected on the obstacles and difficulties that they faced throughout their careers. The most obvious complaint about working for Thai public universities (from the perspectives of the presidents themselves as well as from the perspectives of others as presented by the presidents) was the long-practiced, inadequate pay system regulated by the government. Because academic employees are paid very low salaries in Thai public universities, staff morale is low and the institutions are losing good teaching and administrative staffs who may refuse the job for financial reasons. Many people are waiting for the time when their institutions will be finally turned into "public institutions outside the civil system," as is planned in the next ten years. Many hope the new system will help promote a better quality of pay for academic people. I believe that instead of waiting for the whole system to change, which would take many

years, individual institutions should, at this time of financial crisis, develop creative solutions for dealing with the problem.

Finally, there are implications for Thai research. While biographical study is popular in the Western world, it is still in limited use in Thai scholarship. Because discussing oneself and one's lives in Thai culture is considered less comfortable when compared to most Western countries, the likelihood of someone writing about her/himself or talking about their lives or other people's lives is still small. This study suggests that a biographical study is a creative way to study the leadership phenomena and other important issues, such as adult lives. This study has proved that research done through biography, if completed with careful consideration, can yield beneficial results. During my interviews, I intentionally began with groups of questions that were less personal -- questions about their perspectives on leadership and their work as presidents of Thai institutions. The second hour of the interview (some occurred immediately; others occurred one or two weeks later) I then asked the presidents questions about their personal lives, how they grew up, where they attended college, and what they accomplished in their careers. I felt the time was right as most of the presidents, during the second part of the interview, felt more comfortable answering questions in my presence. I felt we had developed a relationship as a teacher and a learner rather than as a participant and a researcher. As the questions progressed, most of the presidents appeared relaxed enough to share with me some parts of their lives. I too, was grateful that they had allowed me to get into their worlds for an hour or so.

Recommendations for Further Research

A study of this nature brings up a host of other questions. Much more research must be done on Thai public university presidents and the roles they play as leaders of institutions of higher education. As a result of the major findings of this study, the researcher proposes the following areas for further research.

1. Buddhist philosophy makes up one of the most important aspect of the university presidential leadership in a Thai context. Future research should examine how it affects the roles in real-life practice in academic settings and other types of organizations as well.
2. When dealing with the issue of a presidential search, it is also appropriate to ask whether the results would be different if search committee members, university council, administrators, faculty, and students were interviewed.
3. A quantitative study that deals with the comprehensive profile of all Thai university presidents should be completed.
4. Because this research focuses mainly on the positive side of the lives of Thai public university presidents, another interesting study in the future should focus on the more difficult parts.
5. Before identifying the scope of my research, my advisor and I were worried about whether I should ask questions that concerned the participants' work as presidents because they might think I was trying to evaluate their work and reject my study. However, my experience showed me that these men

and women were willing to voluntarily share with me what they did as presidents. Many seemed overwhelmed and wanted someone to share their stories with. This indicates that researchers who may be interested in learning in deeper detail about the roles and work of these Thai public university presidents should be encouraged to do so. The best methodology for this type of research would have to be through observation combined with interview.

6. Though I tried to compare Thai public university presidents with American presidents whenever possible, it is still not enough. If one of the goals of Thai universities is to transform themselves into international institutions, a comprehensive comparative study between Thai and U.S. higher educational systems and their presidents is a must.
7. Because this study did not touch on learning on the job that occurred while these leaders were already presidents, an interesting follow-up to this study would examine how these individuals learn as they go about their daily work as presidents. The recommended method is through observation combined with interviews that ask presidents to reflect immediately after each learning experience.
8. A collection of case studies that include leaders' biographies in other areas is also possible.
9. A collection of stories of Thai female leaders from different fields is encouraged. It would also be interesting to compare female leaders in this study with female leaders in other fields and/or types of organizations..

10. The meaning of Thai presidential leadership presented in this study is partial. It is partial because it was described from the perspectives of only one group, the presidents themselves. Future research on presidential leadership should include the perspectives of diverse groups of people.
11. If during the next decade, Thai public universities gain autonomy from the government as predicted, it then would be interesting to see if the qualifications for future presidential candidates would change; and if they do, how different would they be from the current ones. Will the roles of public university presidents change and how? Interviews with future groups of presidents by using some interview questions from this study is encouraged.
12. Another crucial research project for the future is to examine the status and qualities of all leadership development programs currently available for academic leaders.

Reflections

As much as I learned about Thai public university presidents, I also learned about conducting research. Though this study has ended and many questions were answered, I continue to ask myself "What have I learned from this research experience? Will this experience prepare me for the job that I have yet to find? As I look back over this long process of experience, I can say that every minute of my life during this process, though intense, was filled with the joy of learning new things, including learning to discipline and control

myself to stay within the time frame I originally created. In fact, what was most important about this research project may not be only the content but the experiences that I gained.

When I first chose this topic, many of my Thai friends asked me "Are you sure?" Most of the people that I talked with seemed to share a common concern about access issue. Many of my friends believed gaining access to the Thai public university presidents for two hours sound nearly impossible unless a person had the right connections and networking. At the beginning, I thought I had the right connections because my brother-in-law had a cousin who was an important official in the Ministry of University Affairs. I started out feeling quite confident that this person would help me meet the presidents.

After spending two full weeks struggling with the ministry bureaucracy, I finally realized I should directly approach the presidents and introduce myself as a graduate student with a true belief in learning from research. One female faculty member, who was also a good friend of my family, then warned me not to waste my time trying to go through other people but to go directly to the presidents. She stated "All these people are teachers or once were teachers. I am sure that they will have a good spirit and willingness to share with you what they know." She was right. Two days after I faxed my letters directly to the university presidents' offices, half of my subjects had their secretaries respond by fax or telephone. The first interview was conducted two weeks after my invitation letters were sent out.

This is the lesson that I wish to pass on to other Thai students who plan to do similar type of research with high-ranking individuals. When you feel approaching the problem from a Thai perspective does not work, try using your American style that you learned while studying abroad. It works!!

During the interviews, all the presidents responded in a timely manner and treated me professionally. Many appeared excited about the questions. One president stated "Nobody has ever come to me and asked me these questions. This is very interesting." Another president said "If you can interview many people. This study will be very useful."

There may be many reasons that explain why these individuals chose to participate in my study. They may have liked the topic or felt that their participation would contribute to a growth in knowledge. I believe one reason for their cooperation is because most of the presidents experienced the dissertation process and knew what their participation meant to me.

The first three interviews were the most discomforting for me. Most of my mistakes were made during these sessions. The most embarrassing mistake occurred during my third interview when I misquoted one of the president's word "afraid" for "brave." (The two words when written in Thai are alike. I accidentally misread my written transcript). I then dealt with my mistake right away by apologizing for it and promised to my subject that I would do my best to transcribe the data word by word to avoid such mistakes in the study.

As time passed, I found myself modifying the original interview protocol to fit the situation and filled in what were missing. Creswell (1994) states "Expect the research questions to evolve and change during the study, a thought also consistent with the assumption of an emerging design. Often in qualitative studies the questions are under continual review and reformulation." (p. 71) The rest of the interviews went quite smoothly as I gained more confidence and experience. In later interviews, I found myself asking questions that resulted from my curiosity at that particular time rather than staying only with the interview protocols.

What I have also learned from this experience is that Thai people do not schedule anything beyond two weeks in the future. This proves to be an advantage because it meant I could see the presidents within two weeks.

The time of the appointment affected the mood of the interview. I found that early morning appointments resulted in the best interviews. This was because the presidents had just arrived at the office and tended to be energetic and were not overwhelmed with other problems.

Some interviews took two hours while others were completed within one and a half or one hour. This depended on the interviewees' answers. Some answers were more open-ended, allowing me to encourage my interviewees to elaborate on the issue. Some answers were just closed-ended indicating that the interviewee had no interest in elaborating on the issue. Whenever I felt that my interviewee had no interest in continuing the issue, I decided to let it go as a way to show courtesy to them.

Some researchers have the luxury of choosing what they want to study while others do not. I believe the most rewarding aspect of the dissertation project assignment was that we got to choose to study the topic of our own interest. I think this is the most important factor that kept my focus and energy alive during the past year.

The data analysis, compared to others, was the most challenging and most enjoyable part of this research experience. The challenge came when I interviewed the presidents in Thai but finished my analysis and writing in English. Not only was I forced to translate my data into understandable English but I also attempted to convey the meaning of Thai cultures in a way that was easy for my American readers to understand. Though I tried to translate word by word and maintain originality as much as possible, adaptation was still needed. Many times during the data analysis Thai words could not be directly translated into English. Even if a translation could be made, the English words would make no sense or mean something totally different from the original Thai words. To deal with this problem, I rearranged words or created words to substitute or add to the original sentences. By doing this I realize that I may lose some originality. However, I feel that the benefit from being able to get meanings across should outweigh the loss of originality.

The data analysis was also an exciting experience. This process was like trying to paint a picture showing the life stories of these great leaders. As the pieces of the stories of these great leaders unfolded, the challenge was to try to come up with the most logical

and creative way to place them together so that my final imaginary picture would be as creative and meaningful as possible. Finley & Knowles (1995) describes the qualitative researcher as an artist.

"Some artists are able to very quickly develop an interpretation and get it 'right,' the first time on paper or on canvas, and they sit back and say, 'Yes, that is what I meant. That is what I assumed.'" Other times (the artist) has to rework and rework, and you sense that the artist is rethinking, reworking the interpretation. It is not just simply a matter of technical skill--that may be a part of it --but it is also reworking the interpretation. So it seems to me that the connection (between interpretation and the canvas presentation) is a matter of articulation. How do you articulate your interpretation while in the act of painting and in the painting that unfolds? So the gap between your brain and the brush has to do with the articulation of the interpretation" (pp. 112-113).

Now, my work of art is finally completed. What I see in this imaginary picture actually represents who I am and what I know. My teacher once stated that research is about the researcher because how data is shaped and interpreted depends on what the researcher brings to the study and what s/he is capable of seeing. This study is, in fact, about me. It is about what I knew and what I was capable of seeing at that point in time.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF APPROVAL FORM

UCRIHS MATERIALS

**MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY**

December 12, 1996

TO: Steven Weiland
409 Erickson Hall

RE: IRB#: 96-787
TITLE: LEARNING FOR LEADERSHIP IN THAI HIGHER
EDUCATION: CAREER PATHS OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITY
PRESIDENTS
REVISION REQUESTED: N/A
CATEGORY: 1-C
APPROVAL DATE: 12/08/96

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects' (UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project and any revisions listed above.

RENEWAL: UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must use the green renewal form (enclosed with the original approval letter or when a project is renewed) to seek updated certification. There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

REVISIONS: UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. If this is done at the time of renewal, please use the green renewal form. To revise an approved protocol at any other time during the year, send your written request to the UCRIHS Chair, requesting revised approval and referencing the project's IRB # and title. Include in your request a description of the change and any revised instruments, consent forms or advertisements that are applicable.

**PROBLEMS/
CHANGES:**

Should either of the following arise during the course of the work, investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly: (1) problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects or (2) changes in the research environment or new information indicating greater risk to the human subjects than existed when the protocol was previously reviewed and approved.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517) 355-2180 or FAX (517) 432-1171.

Sincerely,

David E. Wright, Ph.D.
UCRIHS Chair

DEW:bed

cc: Porntip Chaichanapanich



OFFICE OF
**RESEARCH
AND
GRADUATE
STUDIES**

University Committee on
Research Involving
Human Subjects
(UCRIHS)

Michigan State University
232 Administration Building
East Lansing, Michigan
48824-1046

517/355-2180
FAX: 517/432-1171

APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL OF A PROJECT INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

UCRIHS - Michigan State University
David E. Wright, Ph.D., Chair
232 Administration Building
East Lansing, MI 48824-1046
(517) 355-2180 - telephone . . . (517)432-1171 - FAX
Office Hours: M-F (8:00 A.M.-Noon & 1:00-5:00 P.M.)

1. RESPONSIBLE PROJECT INVESTIGATOR ADDITIONAL INVESTIGATOR(S)

(Faculty or staff supervisor)

Dr. Steven Weiland

Faculty ID# _____

(Social Security #) _____

**I believe the research can be safely completed
without endangering human subjects. Further,
I have read the enclosed proposal and I am
willing to supervise any student investigators.**

Porntip Chaichanapanich

Fac./Stu. ID#: A20269880

Fac./Stu. ID#: _____

Fac./Stu. ID#: _____

Fac./Stu. ID# _____

(Signature)

2. ADDRESS

(for comments/approval letter)

409 Erickson Hall

Dept. of Educational Administration

Michigan State University

East Lansing, MI 48824-1034

Phone #: (517) 355-2395

FAX #: (517) 353-6393

ADDRESS

(for comments/approval letter)

3604 Cloverlawn Ave.

Ypsilanti, MI 48197

Phone #: (313) 572-1273

FAX #: (313) 572-1055

**3. TITLE OF PROPOSAL Learning for Leadership in Thai Higher Education:
 Career Paths of Public University Presidents**

4. PROPOSED FUNDING AGENCY (If any) _____

5. DOES THIS PROJECT UTILIZE AN INVESTIGATIONAL DRUG, DEVICE OR PROCEDURE?
Yes () No (X) If yes, is there an IND#? Yes () _____ No ()

**6. DOES THIS PROJECT INVOLVE THE USE OF MATERIALS OF HUMAN ORGAN (e.g., Human
BLOOD OR TISSUE)?** Yes () No (X)

7. DOES THIS PROPOSAL HAVE AN MSU ORD NUMBER? Yes () # _____ No (X)

8. WHEN WOULD YOU PREFER TO BEGIN DATA COLLECTION? February 1, 1997

9. CATEGORY (Circle A, B or C below. See instructions.)

a. This proposal **requires review by a full sub-committee.**

b. This proposal is **eligible for expedited review.** Specify category or categories

c. () This proposal is **exempted from full sub-committee review.** Specify category or
categories 1-C

OFFICE USE ONLY

Subcommittee _____

Agenda _____

10. PROJECT DESCRIPTION (ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study is to describe, through the qualitative analysis of interview data, the Thai public university presidents' interpretations of their leadership learning experiences from their college years to when they were appointed as university presidents. The intent of this study is to shed light upon the perceptions surrounding the leadership learning process, how Thailand's public university presidents prepared and learned to become leaders.

This study takes, as its point of departure, the following concern: What kind of formal learning did Thai public university presidents have during their college years? What is the role of college education in helping prepare these public university presidents for leadership roles as executive officers of their institutions? What kind of informal on-the-job training experiences did Thai public university presidents have during their careers prior to becoming a president? What is the role of on-the-job training experiences during an individual's careers in helping him/her prepare to become a public university president and the job tasks associated with such a role? Who was the most influential in these university presidents' learning of leadership and the work of university president? How did these mentor(s) help these leaders learn? and What learning experiences did university presidents identify as most crucial to their current success and why?

Research subjects will be drawn from the population of 15 Thai public university presidents. Letters of invitation will be sent, initially, to all 15 public university presidents in Thailand based on the projection that approximately 10 acceptance will be forthcoming. Subjects participate in two confidential personal interviews.

A more extensive project description is included as Attachment 1.

11. PROCEDURES

The central research activity consists of two part interviews which will take place at different times. Interview phase I (the meanings of leadership) will last one hour and interview phase II (the learning of leadership) will last one and a half hours. Phase I and II interview guides are included as Attachments 2 and 3.

In addition, each research subject will be asked to provide: (a) a professional vita that will allow the researcher to know the samples a little bit before conducting an interview. Interviews will be tape-recorded (with subjects' permission) and transcribed. Researcher will also compose observational notes during the interview and after it; these too will be transcribed. Assurances of confidentiality regarding interview and documentary data and consent procedures are described in items 13 and 15 of this form.

12. SUBJECT POPULATION

a. The study population may include (check each category where subjects may be included by design or incidentally:

Minors	()
Pregnant Women	(X)
Women of childbearing Age	(X)
Institutionalized Persons	()
Students	()
Low Income Persons	()
Minorities	()
Incompetent Persons (or those with diminished capacity)	()

b. Number of subjects (including controls) 10

- c. If you are associated with the subjects (e.g., they are your students, employees, patients), please explain the nature of the association.

I am not associated with the subjects.

- d. How will the subjects be recruited?

Subjects will be selected from a list provided by the Office of University Affairs, Ministry of Education, Thailand. The researcher will mail letters of invitation and will follow up with a telephone call to each invited subject. Letters of invitation will be initially sent to 15 public university presidents in Thailand based on the projection that approximately 10 acceptances will be forthcoming. The potential subjects will be selected to ensure that the samples are representative of the types and orientations of universities. Based on the directory provided by the Office of University Affairs, all current Thai public university presidents are males. As a result, samples drawn for this study will likely be males (if there is no change in the next six months).

- e. If someone will receive payment for recruiting the subjects, please explain the amount of payment, who pays it and who receives it.

No one will receive payment for recruiting the subjects.

- f. Will the research subjects be compensated? (X) No () Yes. If yes, details concerning payment, including the amount and schedule of payments, must be set forth in the informed consent.

- g. Will the subjects incur additional financial costs, as a result of their participation in this study?
(X) No () Yes, please include an explanation in the informed consent.

- h. Will you be advertising for research participants? (X) No () Yes. If yes, attach a copy of the advertisement you will use.

- i. Will this research be conducted with subjects who reside in another country or live in a cultural context different from mainstream US society? () No (X) Yes.

- (1) If your answer is yes, will there be any corresponding complications in your ability to minimize risks to subjects, maintain their confidentiality and/or assure their right to voluntary informed consent as individuals?
(X) No () Yes.

- (2) If your answer to i-1 is yes, what are these complications and how will you resolve them?

13. ANONYMITY/CONFIDENTIALITY

Data confidentiality will be assured as follows:

Researcher will keep subjects' identities confidential. Reports of research findings will not permit associating subjects with specific responses or findings. The researcher will alter all identifying statements and designators using different methods such as by assigning pseudonym, using common, generic designators rather than specific titles, names, or labels or altogether removed in final reports.

The identities of participants will be known only to the researcher and her transcriber who will be hired to transcribe interview data. The transcriber will be clearly informed of the study's policies and procedures assuring research confidentiality. The transcriber will be asked to sign a letter of consent to keep the interview data confidential as part of taking and securing the job.

The researcher will store data and project files in the hard drive of her personal computer as well as on back-up diskettes and in hard copy. The back-up diskettes and hard-copy will be maintained in a file cabinet kept locked at all time in the researcher's office. Only the researcher will have access to the harddrive and related materials.

14. RISK/BENEFIT RATION

Description/ assessment of risk and measures for minimizing it: Risk to subjects is minimal. The only risk to the subject will be if the individual subject or institution can be identified by data and presentation. If confidentiality is broken, it is possible that the subjects will experience some discomfort with other faculty or administrators in their institutions, especially with regard to their discussion on work-related experiences. However, I can prevent this from occurring by 1) assuring that all identifying information in the study's final reports will be masked and 2) informing subjects at the beginning of the interview, that they need not respond to questions they prefer not to answer.

Benefits to individual subjects: It is believed that the hours of conversations that reflect on the subjects' experiences will help each subject to increase self-understanding, especially with regard to their life history and leadership learning. The subjects' readings of the final report will not only help increase self-realization and understanding of their leadership learning but also understanding of other public university presidents with similar experiences and career aspirations. Subjects will come to realize that their experiences are partially shared and partially unique.

General benefits: This study will help fill the missing piece of research in Thai higher education. It promises to identify some patterns of response to leadership learning experiences in the careers that will describe key elements in the journey to becoming a public university president. Audiences such as policy makers from the Office of University Affairs of Thailand, higher education scholars, future aspiring Thai public university presidents, and individuals in career development who work with other populations of leaders will find this research valuable.

15. CONSENT PROCEDURES

The researcher will send a letter of invitation (see attachment 4) to fifteen Thai public university presidents. The letter will describe the project, estimates of time commitment on the participants' parts, assurance of confidentiality, and a future contact address. The researcher will then follow up with a telephone call (see attachment 5) to respond to any concern and to ask about their decisions. If the subjects agree to participate in the study, the researcher will schedule the two interviews at that time.

The researcher will bring two consent forms (see attachment 6) to the first interview site. The subjects will need to sign both forms before the interview can be conducted. The subjects and the researcher will each keep one copy of the consent form. The researcher will keep this signed consent form with other materials in a locked cabinet.

The researcher will request permission to tape-record and take notes by hand during the interview. The researcher will also request permission to take notes by hand during her observation. The subjects will be informed that they can ask the researcher to turn off the tape-recorder at any time.

APPENDIX B

LETTER OF INVITATION FROM RESEARCHER

**MODEL LETTER OF INVITATION AND INFORMATION
TO BE SENT TO POTENTIAL SUBJECTS**

February 1, 1997

President
University
XXXXX
XXXXX

Dear President:

My name is Porntip Chaichanapanich. I am currently working on my doctoral degree at Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan. I am in the process of conducting my dissertation, which depend on your kindness to be a part of this study.

I would like to invite you to participate in a study examining the nature of Thai public university presidents' learning of leadership prior to their appointment as institutional chief executives. The study, entitled "Learning for Leadership in Thai Higher Education: Career Paths of Public University Presidents," seeks to shed light upon the perceptions surrounding the leadership learning process, and how Thailand's public university presidents prepared and learned to become leaders. In other words, I am interested in leadership knowledge and skills you, as a Thai public university president, must have and how you learned to develop this knowledge and skills through both formal and informal learning during your college years as well as different careers that eventually led to your presidency.

My interest in this topic was spurred by the lack of published research in Thai sources that deals specifically with this topic. Due to the lack of such research, stories of leadership learning of great leaders as yourselves are left untold. As a result, knowledge in this area remains undiscovered. Students in higher education, who are now training to be future administrators of Thai colleges and universities, at the present, need resources that can only be accomplished via information that is passed on by Thai university presidents. Your participation in this project will help bring together the stories of leadership and leadership learning in the full Thai

context rather than that of Western literature which has only limited applications to Thai higher education.

This study focuses on the kinds of personal and professional learning you as a university president experienced as you moved along your career path to become the leader of your institution. This study will help many audiences understand the educational backgrounds and career paths of Thai university presidents, expanding upon knowledge of individuals such as yourself who serve as university presidents in Thailand's institutions of higher education. New questions regarding Thai leadership learning will be defined as a result of completing this study. The Thai Office of University Affairs officers responsible for curriculum, personnel and budget allocations can use the results of this study to help define their policy planning. Scholars in comparative studies may use this study to make comparisons between Thailand and other countries in the area of higher education leadership, adult learning, mentoring, and organizational studies. Western consultants currently working with Thai Ministry of Education on issues related to Thai higher education may find the results of this study a valuable source to help them better understand the background of Thai organization, its leadership, and its contexts. Future Thai leaders could use the study results as a means to set career goals to become better prepared as potential chief academic officers. Thai college faculty currently responsible for teaching and training future college administrators can use the results of this study to enrich their conversations on presidential leadership in higher education especially the role of leadership learning during the college years and career experiences. The results of this study would be useful for individuals in career development, especially management development, since they work with other populations of leaders. Finally, university presidents who participate in this study will find the interview process beneficial to their own learning because it stimulates self-reflection on their part. I am inviting a total of ten Thai public university presidents across the country to participate in this study.

Your participation in this study will entail your responding to two sessions of interview (each will occur at different times), which I will conduct with you from February 10, 1996 to May 15, 1997. The first interview which deals with your personal meaning(s) of leadership will last one hour. The second interview focusing on your leadership learning experiences prior to your appointment as a president, will last approximately one and a half hour. I will be happy to schedule

both interviews at your convenience. During the interview I will ask you to speak about how you see yourself as an academic leader and as a university president, to reflect on your career paths and your past leadership learning experiences, and to speculate about your suggestions to future university presidents. The interview will be conducted in Thai. No preparation whatsoever on your part will be required.

To provide me with background information and to help me understand you and your career paths, I will ask you to provide me with your professional vita (if available). In return for your participation in this project, I will send you copies of all final study reports. I will be most eager to receive your reactions to and comments about them.

I want to assure you that I will treat this research with the utmost confidentiality. Your identity, and the identities of other study participants, will be known only to me and my transcriber, who works with me on this project. Identifying information, including names, university affiliations, and other descriptors will be altered, masked, or altogether removed in final report.

I will call you within the next few days to discuss this project further, including your interest in participating in it. If, however, you would like to speak with me before that time, please feel free to contact me at the address, telephone and fax number at the bottom of this page. I will be happy to respond to any questions you might have. I look forward to talking with you soon.

Sincerely,

Porntip Chaichanapanich
Doctoral Student in Department of Educational Administration
(Higher, Adult, and Lifelong Education)
Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan

Address, telephone and fax to contact
Porntip Chaichanapanich
12 / 7 Mue 6
Tumbon Tonpo, Umper Muang
Singburi 16000
Tel: (036)520-264, 511-283 Fax: (036)512-582

APPENDIX C

LETTER OF INVITATION FROM ADVISOR

MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY

January 10, 1997

Dear Colleague:

Please accept this letter as an introduction to Porntip Chaichanapanich. She is a doctoral student at Michigan State University in the Program in Higher, Adult, and Lifelong Education (in the Department of Educational Administration).

Ms. Chaichanapanich has completed all other requirements for her PhD degree and now is embarked on an ambitious and timely dissertation: "Learning for Leadership in Thai Higher Education: Career Paths of Public University Presidents." I chair the committee guiding the project.

Porntip Chaichanapanich is one of our most accomplished students. She can be counted on to conduct her study according to the highest standards of scholarly inquiry. I hope you will be able to provide the opportunities she seeks to complete her work.

Thank you in advance for your consideration and courtesies.

Sincerely,



Steven Weiland
Professor of Higher Education



COLLEGE OF
EDUCATION
Department of
Educational Administration

Michigan State University
418 Erickson Hall
East Lansing, Michigan
48824-1034

1-517/355-4538
FAX: 1-517/353-6393

HALE Program
423 Erickson Hall
1-517/353-5187

K-12 Program
402 Erickson Hall
1-517/353-8480

Administrative Certification
405 Erickson Hall
1-517/353-5342

**Michigan Center for
Career & Technical Education**
230 Erickson Hall
1-517/353-4397
FAX: 1-517/353-6393

APPENDIX D

LETTER OF CONSENT

CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in the research project entitled "Learning for Leadership in Thai Higher Education: Careers Paths of Public University Presidents."

I have received and read Porntip Chaichanapanich's letter of invitation dated..... , which describes the goals, procedures and duration of my participation in the project. By agreeing to participate in this study, I understand the following:

1. My participation in this study will include approximately two and a half hours of personal interviews, which will be divided into two sessions. The first interview which deals with the meaning(s) of leadership will last one hour and the second interview which deals with leadership learning before becoming a public university president will last one and a half hours. The two interviews will be scheduled at different time.
2. I will be asked to provide the researcher with my professional vita (if available).
3. All data collected for this study will be confidential. My identity and my institution identity will not be revealed in the final report.
4. My participation in this research is voluntary and completely free. I may refuse to answer any questions during the interview or decline to provide a researcher with any materials requested. I may refuse to participate at all or may discontinue my participation at any time.

Signature

Date

Contact person: Porntip Chaichanapanich
12/7 Mue 6
Tumbon Tonpo, Muang District
Singburi, Thailand 16000
Tel: (036)520-264, 511-283 Fax: (036)512-582

APPENDIX E

ABSTRACT OF THE STUDY ATTACHED TO INTERVIEWEE'S COPY OF THE CONSENT FORM

PROJECT ABSTRACT
(TO BE ATTACHED TO INTERVIEWEE'S COPY OF THE CONSENT FORM)

**Learning for Leadership in Thai Higher Education: Career Paths of
Public University President**

The purpose of this study is to describe, through the qualitative analysis of interview data, the Thai public university presidents' interpretations of their leadership learning experiences from their college years to when they were appointed as university presidents. The intent of this study is to shed light upon the perceptions surrounding the leadership learning process, how Thailand's public university presidents prepared and learned to become leaders. This study takes, as its point of departure, the following concern: What kind of formal learning did Thai public university presidents have during their college years? What is the role of college education in helping prepare these public university presidents for leadership roles as executive officers of their institutions? What kind of informal on-the-job training experiences did Thai public university presidents have during their careers prior to becoming a president? What is the role of on-the-job training experiences during an individual's careers in helping him/her prepare to become a public university president and the job tasks associated with such a role? Who was the most influential in these university presidents' learning of leadership and the work of university president? How did these mentor(s) help these leaders learn? and What learning experiences did university presidents identify as most crucial to their current success and why?

APPENDIX F

**INTERVIEW PROTOCOL
(ENGLISH)**

Project Overview and Consent Form

My name is Porntip Chaichanapanich. I am conducting a study of Thailand's public university presidents' leadership learning. As I have mentioned in the invitation letter, our first interview today will last about one hour. During this time, I will ask you a number of questions concerning yourselves and your definition and beliefs about leadership, particularly leadership in Thai higher education as you have experienced it.

I would like to mention again that I will treat all interview and documentary data confidentially. Your identity will not be disclosed in the final reports of the study. If at any time you prefer not to respond to any questions or wish to discontinue the interview, you are free to do so. This consent form (hand consent form) explains this more specifically. May I ask you to read it at this time? Please let me know if you have any concerns or questions about it.

(Request signature on consent form)

I would like very much to be able to tape-record this interview. This will allow me to capture a comprehensive record of this valuable conversation. Is this acceptable to you?

_____Yes _____No Other:_____

If at any time you feel uncomfortable with the tape-recorder on, you can ask me to turn it off. I will be happy to take notes by hand only.

Do you have any questions before we start?

Comments

**UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT INTERVIEW GUIDE SESSION I
(THE MEANING(S) OF LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION)
TIME: ONE HOUR**

Subject's Name _____

Name of Institution _____

Date of interview _____

Time of interview _____

Location of interview _____

Interviewer _____

Did subject agree to be tape-recorded? _____yes _____no

Notes on Setting:

Public University President Background information

- 1 Briefly, give your college educational history, begin with undergraduate years include the following: school names, years attended, major and minor, and diploma or degree awarded

University attended	years attended	major	minor	degree awarded
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. Briefly give your job history since college graduation including: job title, types of institutions (college or university) you work for, numbers of years on the job, and reason for leaving

Job title	institution (indicate if it is the same institution)	number of years on the job	reason for leaving
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

3. When were you appointed as a president?

4. How long have you been on this position?

5. What do you think are the most important reasons (give at least three) why you were selected as a president of your institution?
6. How were you selected for this position? Please explain the committee membership and process.

The Meaning(s) of Leadership in Thai Higher Education

(Several questions of this interview guide are borrowed from Birnbaum, 1992, How Academic Leadership Work).

1. The term "leadership" is used all the time, but people don't always agree on what it means. What does the word leadership mean to you?
2. How would you describe yourself as a leader?
3. What does it mean to you to be a leader of this public university?
4. How would you describe your relationship with people who work with you such as your vice-presidents, departmental deans and chairpersons?
5. How would you describe your relationship with the faculty of this institution?
6. How would you describe your relationship with the students of this institution?

7. When you are asked to briefly describe your college, what do you say? What do you think really important around here?
8. If people around here were asked to describe you as a leader, what do you think they would say?
9. Over what areas of campus life do you have the most influence? The least influence?
10. What do you think are the major effects you have had on this campus as president? Which of these has given you the greatest sense of accomplishment?
11. How do you tell if you are being effective as a leader?
12. Presidents are always subject to criticism of one kind or another. What criticisms of your leadership are you aware of?
13. Is there anything else you would like to say about leadership on this campus, or in higher education in general?

Closing

Subject's Name _____

Date of interview _____

Confirm mailing address: _____

Confirm telephone _____

Fax _____

May I call you if I need to clarify any portion of this interview?

Thank you very much for being a part of this study. Our next
interview is scheduled for
.....at..... The main
interview will be about your leadership learning. Thank you.

**Learning for Leadership in Thai Higher Education:
Career Paths of Public University Presidents**

**OUTLINE OF THE INTERVIEW SESSION I: MEANING(S) OF LEADERSHIP
(TO BE PRESENTED TO THE SUBJECT AT THE BEGINNING OF THE INTERVIEW TO
ORIENT THE SUBJECTS TO THE INTERVIEW)**

- I. Background information about your college education and your careers**
- II. The meaning(s) of leadership**

UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT INTERVIEW GUIDE SESSION II
(LEADERSHIP LEARNING)
TIME: ONE AND A HALF HOUR

Subject's Name _____

Name of Institution _____

Date of interview _____

Time of interview _____

Location of interview _____

Interviewer _____

Did subject agree to be tape-recorded? _____yes _____no

Notes on Setting:

Project Overview

Thank you again for participating in the study of Thailand public university presidents' leadership learning. As I have mentioned in the invitation letter, our second interview today will last about one hour. During this time, I will ask you numbers of questions concerning your learning of leadership during your college years and in different careers before you were appointed to the presidency. (Hand the interview guideline).

If at any time you feel uncomfortable with the tape-recorder on, you can ask me to turn it off. I will be happy to take notes by hand only.

Do you have any questions before we start?

Interview is divided into four sections:

Most of the following interview questions were developed by the researcher. Several of them were borrowed from McCall et al.'s (1988) book, The Lessons of Experience and from Bennis and Nanus's (1985) Leaders.

The interview questions are divided into four sections as follows:

- I. Learning about leadership in college years
- II. Learning about leadership from different jobs leading to college presidency
- III. Learning about leadership from other people (the roles of mentor(s) in their learning
- IV. Reflection on their learning and lessons for the professional development of prospective leaders in Thai public universities.

I. Learning about leadership in college years:

I would like to discuss your learning about leadership in your college years. First we will begin with your learning in formal setting (learning that takes place in educational institutions, usually leading to credit or to a degree) and then we will talk about your learning in the form of non-formal (learning derived from participation in organized activities like those provided by museums, libraries, historical societies, churches, and voluntary associations) and in the form of informal (learning that refers to the unstructured and often unplanned experiences of everyday living from which we learn, particularly in the workplace, and in the family and community life, including entertainment, sports, and other leisure pursuits).

1. What do you think was most important about your undergraduate and graduate college experiences?
2. What aspects of your undergraduate college experiences have had the most lasting value in preparing you to be a leader, and particularly an academic leader, a college president?
3. What aspects of your graduate college experiences have had the most lasting value in preparing you for a leadership role as a college president?
4. What class or subjects did you enjoy most during your undergraduate college years and in what aspects do these classes help/ or not help to prepare you for the tasks of college president in the future?
5. What class or subjects did you enjoy most during your graduate college years and in what aspects do these classes help/or not help to prepare you for the tasks of college president in the future?

Learning in non-formal and informal settings:

6. Please describe any learning activities, other than school work, that you pursued during school years, that have the most lasting influence on your understanding of leadership-- something that makes you become a leader as you are today and/or something that helps develop your leadership skills? What lessons did you learn from those activities?
7. During your college years, were you a member of any professional associations and/or trade unions? If so, please give an example of how you participate in them?
8. Did you have any part-time jobs during your college years and what are the most lasting values that you can still use now in your work as a college president?

II. Learning about academic leadership and presidency from different jobs leading to college presidency

1. Looking back to your early career, which part of your early career that you enjoy the most and why?

2. In general, how and in what ways do you think your prior jobs make you understand about academic leadership and how do you think these work experiences help or not help you to be a good college president?
3. What was the biggest challenge you ever face in your early career? What did you learn from this experience?
4. What event (or events) in your early career made you realize you were going to be successful as a leader in your field and in your organization?

III. Learning about leadership from other people (the roles of mentor(s) in their learning

1. When you reflect back over the people who have had an effect on you--which person influenced you the most, i.e who taught you the most? How did that person (or people) teach you? Would you call these people mentors?
2. To be more specific who in your life plays the most vital role to help you achieve this college presidency? What kinds of things did this person do to help you win the election?
3. How would you describe yourself as a leader?
4. Being the type of leader as you just described, who do you think plays the most crucial role in shaping your leadership philosophy/style? What kind of things did this person do to promote your learning of leadership?

IV. Reflection on their learning and lessons for the professional development of prospective university presidents in Thai public institutions

1. Thinking back to when you first took a president office, what was it like to be a college president in the first six months? What are new things, new assignments that you have to learn? and who helped you to learn and how did you learn it?

Is there anything that your prior jobs did not prepare you for and you had to learn for the first time? Please describe.

2. What does it mean to you personally to achieve college presidency? What leads you to this career?

3. What do you think are the most important factors in helping you to be selected as a college president? (Please name at least three factors)
4. Do you think Thai public college presidents need to have certain career path? If so, why? What are the "right" career paths?
5. Adults learn also from life events, what parts have events in your personal life played in your growth as a leader?
6. If your mentees or your students came to you and said I would like to become a college president for Thai public university, to become someone like you, in the future. How should I prepare myself in terms of my formal education, skills needed to learned, and networking that I need to be closely aware of, what would you say?
7. If you were to teach a college class called "learning for leadership in Thai university" What would be your first lesson? what would be your second lesson? and final lesson?
8. What do you think are the best way to train future prospective university president?
9. What is the most significant thing you have learned as an adult--the one thing you would pass on to another person if you could?
10. Is there anything else about your leadership learning that I have left out and you would like to add?

Closing

Subject's Name _____

Date of interview _____

Confirm mailing address: _____

Confirm telephone _____ Fax _____

May I call you if I need to clarify any portion of this interview?
Thank you so much for participating in this project.

Learning for Leadership in Thai Higher Education: Career Paths of Public University Presidents

**OUTLINE OF THE INTERVIEW SESSION II : LEADERSHIP LEARNING
(TO BE PRESENTED TO THE SUBJECTS AT THE BEGINNING OF THE INTERVIEW
TO ORIENT THE SUBJECTS TO THE INTERVIEW)**

The interview questions are divided into four sections as follows:

- I. Learning about leadership in college years**
- II. Learning about leadership from different jobs leading to college presidency**
- III. Learning about leadership from other people (the roles of mentor(s) in their learning**
- IV. Reflection on their learning and lessons for the professional development of prospective leaders in Thai public universities.**

APPENDIX G

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

(THAI)

Interview Session 1 : The meanings of Leadership in thai Higher Education

-Project overview and consent From

ศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ดิฉันพรทิพย์ ชัยชนะพานิช กำลังวิจัยเกี่ยวกับการเรียนเพื่อเป็นผู้นำของอธิการบดี มหาวิทยาลัยของรัฐดังที่กล่าวให้ทราบทางจดหมายเชิญที่ส่งมา การสัมภาษณ์วันนี้จะใช้เวลาประมาณ 1 ชั่วโมง คำถามที่ใช้ในการสัมภาษณ์เป็นคำถามที่เกี่ยวข้องกับตัวท่านอธิการบดีและเกี่ยวข้องกับความหมายของคำว่า “การเป็นผู้นำ” โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งการเป็นผู้นำ ของ มหาวิทยาลัยในเมืองไทย ดังที่ท่านได้ประสบมา

ดิฉันอยากเรียนให้ท่านอธิการบดีทราบอีกครั้งว่าข้อมูลการสัมภาษณ์ และเอกสารสำคัญ ๆ ต่าง ๆ ที่เกี่ยวกับตัวท่าน จะได้รับการดูแลเป็นอย่างดี นามของท่านจะถูกปกปิด ในผลรายงานวิจัย ในระหว่างการสัมภาษณ์ ถ้าท่านเกิดมีความรู้สึกไม่สะดวกไม่อยากจะตอบคำถามใด หรือต้องการที่จะยกเลิกการสัมภาษณ์ ขอให้อาจารย์บอกให้ดิฉันทราบ แล้วเราจะยกเลิกการสัมภาษณ์ทันที จดหมายยินยอมร่วมงานวิจัยฉบับนี้ (hand the letter) อธิบายรายละเอียดเพิ่มเติม อนุญาตเชิญให้ท่านอธิการบดีอ่านตอนไหนเลขนะค่ะ ถ้ามีคำถามใด ๆ กรุณาบอกให้ดิฉันทราบ ถ้าไม่มีคำถามใดช่วยกรุณา เซ็นในใบยินยอมทั้งสองฉบับนี้ เพื่อเป็นการบันทึกข้อมูลให้ได้รายละเอียดและมีประสิทธิภาพ ดิฉันขอ อนุญาตอัดเทปการสัมภาษณ์นี้ได้ไหมค่ะ ?

เมื่อใดที่ท่านรู้สึกไม่สะดวกกับเครื่องอัดเทปนี้ แล้วอยากให้ดิฉันหยุดเทปชั่วคราว หรือยกเลิกการอัดเทปเลข กรุณาบอกทันที ก่อนที่จะเริ่มสัมภาษณ์ท่านมีคำถามใดไหม?

Comments

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ข้อมูลทั่วไปที่เกี่ยวข้องกับท่านอธิการบดี

1. ช่วยกรณากล่าวถึงประวัติการเรียนชั้นอุดมศึกษาของท่านโดยเริ่มจากปริญญาตรี,โทและอื่นๆ
ชื่อสถาบัน ,ปีที่ศึกษาอยู่, major และ minor และปริญญาที่ท่านได้รับ

มหาวิทยาลัยที่เรียน	ปีที่เรียน	Major	Minor	ปริญญาที่ได้รับ
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2. กรณากล่าวถึงประวัติการทำงานของท่าน กล่าวถึงตำแหน่ง องค์กรหรือสถาบัน ระยะ
เวลาปีที่อยู่ในแต่ละงาน และ เหตุผลของการเปลี่ยนงานนั้นๆ (เริ่มจากงานแรกที่ทำหลังจากจบจาก
สถาบันอุดมศึกษา)

ตำแหน่งงาน	องค์กรหรือสถาบันที่ท่านทำงาน	จำนวนปี ในงานนี้	เหตุผลของการย้ายไปงานต่อไป
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3. ท่านได้รับตำแหน่งอธิการบดีเมื่อปีไหน?

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4. ท่านอยู่ในตำแหน่งนี้นานเท่าไรแล้ว?

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5. ท่านอธิการบดีคิดว่า เหตุผลสำคัญที่สุด ที่ทำให้ท่านได้รับเลือกเป็นอธิการบดี ของ
สถาบันนี้ คืออะไร กรุณากล่าวถึง factors ที่สำคัญ อย่างน้อย 3 อย่าง

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6. กรุณาเล่าถึงขบวนการในการเลือกอธิการบดีในของสถาบันของท่าน ?

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คำถามต่อไปจะเป็นคำถามที่เกี่ยวกับความหมายของการเป็นผู้นำ ดังที่ตัวท่านประสบมา

1. เรามักจะกล่าวถึง คำว่า “ leadership ” หรือในภาษาไทย “ภาวะผู้นำ” หรือการเป็นผู้นำ และ
ใช้มันตลอดเวลา แต่คนส่วนใหญ่มักให้คำจำกัด ความหมายกับคำว่า leadership ภาวะการเป็นผู้นำนี้
ต่าง ๆ กันไป สำหรับตัวท่านแล้ว คำว่า leadership คืออะไร มีความหมายเช่นไร

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2. ท่านเป็นผู้นำที่มีลักษณะเช่นไร?.....

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3.การเป็นผู้นำของสถาบันอุดมศึกษาของรัฐ หมายถึงอะไร? มีลักษณะที่ต่างจากการเป็นผู้นำ
ในองค์กรอื่น ๆ เช่นทางธุรกิจอย่างไร?

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3B.กรุณากล่าวถึง relationship ทั้งในคํานการงานและส่วนตัวที่ท่านมีต่อผู้ร่วมงานอื่น ๆ โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่ง
ซึ่งผู้อยู่ได้บ่งกับบัญชาของท่าน

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6..แล้วสำหรับจากประสบการณ์ที่ทำงานกับกลุ่มอาจารย์เล่าค่ะ บุคคลเหล่านี้สอนอะไร
เกี่ยวกับการเป็นผู้ช่วยให้กับท่านบ้าง?

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7. เมื่อพูดถึง “มหาวิทยาลัย.....” ท่านนึกถึงอะไรบ้าง?

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และอะไรคือสิ่งสำคัญที่สุดของสถาบันนี้?

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8. ถ้าคิดเดินทางไปรอบ ๆ สถาบันนี้ แล้วไปถามคนต่าง ๆ กันให้เล่าถึงลักษณะการเป็นผู้นำของท่าน ท่านคิดว่าพวกเขาจะพูดถึงท่านในฐานะผู้นำของเขาว่าอย่างไร?

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9. ผู้นำแต่ละคนจะนำ talent ความสามารถพิเศษ หรือความชำนาญพิเศษ มาสู่สถาบันต่าง ๆ กัน สำหรับตัวท่านเองแล้วคิดว่าตนเองนำความสามารถพิเศษด้านไหนมาสู่สถาบันบ้าง?

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probe??และด้านไหนบ้านที่ท่านยังต้อง แก่ไข หรือปรับปรุงด้านการเป็นผู้นำของท่าน?

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10. ในขณะที่ท่านดำรงตำแหน่งอธิการบดีของที่นี่ ท่านคิดว่า ท่านได้สร้างผลงานอะไร
บ้างที่เด่นชัดที่สุดให้กับสถาบันแห่งนี้

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จากผลงานที่ท่านได้กล่าวมาข้างต้น ผลงานใดที่ท่านรู้สึกภาคภูมิใจมากที่สุด? เพราะอะไร?

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11. อะไรคือมาตรฐานที่ท่านใช้ตัดสินว่าการทำงานของท่านนั้นจะมีประสิทธิภาพหรือไม่?

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13. มีอะไรอื่นๆเกี่ยวกับการเป็นผู้นำของสถาบันนี้ หรือเป็นผู้นำสถาบันอุดมศึกษาที่ท่านอยากจะ
กล่าวเพิ่ม เติม ณ ที่นี้ไหม ?

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อุดมศึกษา.....

ชื่อผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์.....

วันเดือนปีที่ให้สัมภาษณ์.....

ที่อยู่สำหรับติดต่อ.....

เบอร์โทรศัพท์.....

Fax.....

ดิฉันจะโทรมาหาอาจารย์ได้ไหมคะถ้าดิฉันต้องการให้อาจารย์ช่วยอธิบายเพิ่มเติมส่วนใดส่วนหนึ่ง
ของการสัมภาษณ์นี้

ขอขอบพระคุณที่ให้การร่วมมือเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการวิจัยนี้ การสัมภาษณ์ครั้งที่ 2 ดิฉันจะมาพบ
อาจารย์วันที่...../...../..... หัวข้อการสัมภาษณ์ครั้งนี้เกี่ยวกับเรื่อง การเรียนรู้เพื่อการ
เป็นผู้นำของท่าน

ขอบคุณค่ะ

บทสัมภาษณ์ครั้งที่ 2

หัวข้อ : การเรียนรู้เพื่อเป็นผู้นำ จากการศึกษา, ประสบการณ์ทำงาน และจากบุคคลรอบข้าง

คำนำ : ดิฉันขอขอบพระคุณท่านอธิการบดี ที่ให้เกียรติร่วมเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการวิจัยนี้ ดังที่กล่าวให้ท่านทราบล่วงหน้าแล้ว การสัมภาษณ์วันนี้จะใช้เวลาประมาณ 1 ชั่วโมงครึ่ง คำถามทั้งหมดเกี่ยวข้องกับ การเรียนรู้ เพื่อการเป็นผู้นำของท่าน ในช่วงระยะเวลาที่ท่านยังเป็นนักศึกษา และช่วงระหว่างที่ทำงานด้านอื่น ๆ ก่อนที่จะมารับตำแหน่ง อธิการบดี นี่คือ outline ของบทสัมภาษณ์ (hand the outline)

ถ้าเมื่อไหร่ที่ท่านรู้สึกไม่สะดวกเพราะเครื่องอัดเทปนี้ กรุณาบอกให้ดิฉันปิดเทปทันที ดิฉันยินดีที่จะบันทึกข้อความด้วยการจดบนกระดาษอย่างเดียว

ท่านมีคำถามอะไรที่จะถามดิฉัน ก่อนที่เราจะเริ่มการสัมภาษณ์ไหมคะ ?

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บทสัมภาษณ์วันนี้จะแบ่งออกเป็น 4 ส่วนด้วยกัน

ส่วนที่ 1 คือ การเรียนรู้เพื่อเป็นผู้นำในระหว่างที่ท่านเรียนในระดับอุดมศึกษา

ส่วนที่ 2 คือ การเรียนรู้เพื่อเป็นผู้นำ จากตำแหน่งและหน้าที่อื่น ๆ อันนำมาสู่ตำแหน่งอธิการบดี

ส่วนที่ 3 คือ การเรียนรู้เพื่อเป็นผู้นำจากคนอื่นรอบตัวของท่าน (บทบาทของ mentors)

ส่วนที่ 4 คือ การเชิญให้ท่านนิกย้อนทบทวนประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้การเป็นผู้นำของท่าน และเชิญให้

ท่านฝากบทเรียนและคำแนะนำที่ท่านจะมีให้ต่อผู้นำ หรืออธิการบดี รุ่นหลัง

การเรียนรู้การเป็นผู้นำในครั้งที่ท่านกำลังเป็นนักเรียนมหาวิทยาลัย

ดิฉันจะถามคำถามต่าง ๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการเรียนของท่านครั้งที่ท่านยังเป็นนักศึกษามหาวิทยาลัย อยู่ เริ่มแรกเราจะเริ่มจากการเรียนในหลักสูตร ซึ่งหมายถึงการเรียนเพื่อให้ได้ปริญญา ต่อไปเราจะพูดถึงการเรียนที่เกิดขึ้นนอกหลักสูตร คือ บทเรียนที่เป็นผลมาจากการร่วมกิจกรรมต่าง ๆ ที่จัดขึ้นโดย พิพิธภัณฑ์ ห้องสมุด ชมรมวิทยาศาสตร์ วัด และหน่วยงานอื่นๆ และท้ายสุดเป็นคำถามที่เกี่ยวข้องกับ บทเรียนที่ได้มาจากการใช้ชีวิตประจำวัน การเรียนรู้ที่ท่านได้จากครอบครัวจากกลุ่มชุมชน รวมทั้งถึง บ้านที่ต่าง ๆ กีฬา และงานอดิเรกอื่น ๆ ที่ท่านทำอยู่

1. ประสบการณ์ใดที่เป็น ประสบการณ์ที่สำคัญที่สุดที่ท่านได้รับการเป็นนิสิต หรือนักศึกษา ในมหาวิทยาลัยต่าง ๆ ทั้ง undergrad และ graduate

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2. เมื่อนักย้อนไปถึงสมัยที่เรียนปริญญาตรี อาจารย์คิดว่า ประสิทธิภาพไหนของชีวิต ในช่วงนั้น ที่มีคุณค่าสืบทอดสอนให้ท่านรู้จักการเป็นผู้นำ และเตรียมให้ท่านรู้จักการเป็นผู้นำมากที่สุด โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งการเป็นผู้นำการศึกษา

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3. เมื่อนักย้อนไปถึงสมัยที่เรียนปริญญาโท หรือปริญญาเอก ท่านคิดว่า ประสิทธิภาพไหนของชีวิต ในช่วง นั้น ที่มีคุณค่าสืบทอด ช่วยสอนและเตรียมให้ท่านรู้จักการเป็นผู้นำมากที่สุด โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งการรู้จัก การเป็นผู้นำด้านการศึกษา เช่น อธิการบดีมหาวิทยาลัย

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4. ระหว่างที่เรียนปริญญาตรี ท่านชอบเรียนวิชาใดมากที่สุด และท่านคิดว่าวิชาเรียนดังกล่าว
ได้ส่งผลช่วยในการเตรียมให้ท่านเป็นนักบริหารสถาบันอุดมศึกษาอย่างไร?

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5. ในระหว่างที่ท่านเป็นนักศึกษาปริญญาโท หรือเอก ท่านชอบวิชาใดมากที่สุด และท่านคิดว่า
วิชาเรียนพวกนี้ได้มีส่วนช่วยในการเตรียมให้ท่านมาเป็นอธิการบดีมหาวิทยาลัยอย่างไร?

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การเรียนรู้นอกหลักสูตรและการเรียนจากชีวิตประจำวัน

6. กรุณาลำดับการเรียนอื่น ๆ ที่นอกเหนือจากการเรียนในหลักสูตรที่ท่านเรียนรู้ ในช่วงที่เป็นนักเรียนมหาวิทยาลัย การเรียนอะไรก็ได้ที่ท่านคิดว่ามีคุณค่าสืบต่อมาถึงปัจจุบัน การเรียนที่มีส่วนทำให้ท่านเป็นผู้นำแบบที่เป็นอยู่ปัจจุบัน

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และการเรียนอะไรก็ได้ ที่ช่วยเสริมสร้างคุณสมบัติการเป็นผู้นำในตัวของท่าน

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บทเรียนที่ที่ได้รับจากการเรียนคืออะไร?

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**7. สมัยที่เป็นนักเรียนของมหาวิทยาลัย ท่านได้ร่วมเป็นสมาชิกของสมาคมอะไรหรือไม่
ถ้าเป็นกรุณาเล่าถึงกิจกรรมที่ท่านมีส่วนทำให้กับสมาคม**

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เมื่อนึกย้อนกลับไป อะไรคือคุณค่าที่ท่านได้รับจากการทำกิจกรรมดังกล่าว โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่ง
คุณค่าที่ช่วยส่งเสริมการเป็นผู้นำอุดมศึกษา

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8. ช่วงสมัยเรียนในมหาวิทยาลัย ท่านทำงาน parttime หรือไม่ และอะไรคือคุณค่าที่ท่านได้รับ
และยังเป็นสิ่งที่ท่านนำมาใช้ได้อยู่ในปัจจุบันขณะที่เป็นอธิการบดีอยู่ที่นี่

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การเรียนรู้การเป็นผู้นำจากตำแหน่งหน้าที่การงานต่าง ๆ ก่อนการมารับตำแหน่งอธิการบดีของมหาวิทยาลัยนี้

1. เมื่อหันกลับไปมองหน้าที่การงานของท่านในอดีต ท่านคิดว่าตนเองรักงานช่วงไหนมากที่สุด และเพราะอะไร กรุณาอธิบาย

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2. โดยทั่ว ๆ ไปแล้ว ท่านคิดว่าประสบการณ์ที่ได้มาจากหน้าที่การงานในอดีต(ก่อนที่จะมารับตำแหน่งอธิการบดี) มีส่วนช่วยให้ท่านเข้าใจถึงการเป็นผู้นำด้านการศึกษา โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการเป็นอธิการบดีอย่างไร? ในแง่ไหนบ้าง? กรุณาอธิบาย

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**-ประสบการณ์การเป็นอาจารย์ในอดีตของท่านได้มีส่วนช่วยให้ท่านเข้าใจถึงการเป็นอธิการบดี
ของมหาวิทยาลัยในแง่ไหนบ้าง? กรุณาอธิบาย**

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**-ประสบการณ์การเป็นคณบดีในอดีตของท่านมีส่วนช่วยให้ท่านเข้าใจ ถึงการเป็นอธิการบดีใน
แง่ไหนบ้าง?**

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- แล้วประสบการณ์การเป็นรองอธิการบดีในอดีตเล่าจะ ช่วยให้ท่านเข้าใจถึงงานอธิการบดีอย่างไรบ้าง

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3. อะไรคือ (challenge) สิ่งท้าทายที่สำคัญที่สุดที่ท่านเคยเผชิญในการทำงาน เมื่อครั้งอดีตก่อนที่จะรับตำแหน่งอธิการบดี (กรุณาเล่าโดยละเอียด)

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อะไรคือบทเรียนที่ท่านได้รับจาก challenge ดังกล่าว?

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4. มีเหตุการณ์ใดในการทำงานในอดีตบ้าง ที่ทำให้ท่านเกิดความมั่นใจว่าตนเองจะต้องเป็นผู้นำที่ประสบความสำเร็จคนหนึ่ง

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การเรียนรู้การเป็นผู้นำจากคนรอบข้าง (บทบาทของ mentors)

1. เมื่อนึกถึงคนหลาย ๆ คน ที่มีบทบาทในชีวิตของท่าน ท่านคิดว่าใครมีอิทธิพลต่อความสำเร็จของท่านมากที่สุด?

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บุคคลเหล่านี้ มีวิธีการสอนท่านอย่างไร? อธิบาย

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2. เพื่อให้เฉพาะเจาะจงมากขึ้น ใครในชีวิตของท่านที่ช่วยให้ท่านก้าวเข้ามารับตำแหน่งอธิการบดีของสถาบันนี้?

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ท่านจะเรียกคน ๆ นี้ หรือบุคคลเหล่านี้ว่า mentor หรือไม่?

คน ๆ นี้มีบทบาทอย่างไรที่ช่วยให้ท่านชนะการแต่งตั้งหรือเลือกตั้ง(แล้วแต่กรณี)ของมหาวิทยาลัยนั้น ๆ

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3. ในบทสนทนาครั้งแรก ท่านกล่าวว่า ท่านเป็นผู้นำที่มีลักษณะคือ ***

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[illegible]

ท่านคิดว่าใครหรืออะไรในชีวิตของท่านที่มีอิทธิพลสำคัญที่สุด ทำให้ท่านเป็นผู้นำดังกล่าวนมา
ใครที่มีส่วนในการ shape ปรชญาการเป็นผู้นำคั้งที่ท่านปฏิบัติอยู่ในปัจจุบัน

[illegible]

ช่วยยกตัวอย่างสิ่งที่คุณกลั่นั้น ทำเพื่อช่วยสอนการเป็นผู้นำให้กับท่าน

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

IV. Reflection

บทเรียนที่อยากฝากไว้ให้อธิการบดีรุ่นหลัง

1. เมื่อนักช้อนไปถึง 6 เดือนแรกที่ท่านมารับตำแหน่งอธิการบดีของที่นี่ ท่านมีความรู้สึกอย่างไร?

มีสิ่งใดที่เป็นสิ่งใหม่ที่ท่านไม่เคยรู้มาก่อน และต้องมาเริ่มเรียนรู้ใหม่?

และใครเป็นคนช่วยท่านในการเรียนรู้สิ่งใหม่นี้?

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2. เมื่อย้อนนึกถึงประสบการณ์ที่ได้จากงานในอดีต มีอะไรบ้างที่ท่านคิดว่างานเก่าของท่านไม่ได้สอนท่านมา ไม่ได้เตรียมเรามา ก่อนมาเป็นอธิการบดี และเป็นสิ่งที่ท่านต้องมาเรียนรู้ หรือฝึกหัดเป็นครั้งแรกเมื่อเข้ามารับตำแหน่งอธิการบดี

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3. ท่านคิดว่า อริการบติของมหาวิทยาลัยของรัฐทั้งหมดของเมืองไทยเรา มีลักษณะที่เหมือนกันในด้านไหนบ้าง?

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4. ท่านคิดว่าอริการบติของมหาวิทยาลัยของรัฐ จำเป็นต้องมี Career Paths (บันไดอาชีพ) ที่เฉพาะเจาะจงหรือไม่

อะไรคือ Carrer Paths ที่จำเป็นเพื่อการก้าวเข้ามาสู่การเป็นอริการบติ?

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ถ้ามีนักเรียนหรือรุ่นน้องที่ใกล้ชิดของท่าน มาหาท่านแล้วกล่าวว่า “อาจารย์ครับ กระผม / อาจารย์
คะ / คิฉิน มีความตั้งใจอยากเป็นอธิการบดี ของมหาวิทยาลัยรัฐในอนาคตข้างหน้า เป็นบุคคลตัวอย่าง
ให้เหมือนอย่างที่ท่านอาจารย์เป็น กระผม / คิฉิน ต้องเตรียมตัวอย่างไร? ต้องเรียนทางด้านอะไร สถาบัน
ไหน ต้องคบหากับใคร และต้องระวังตนเองในแง่ไหนบ้าง...”

ท่านจะตอบรุ่นน้องใกล้ชิดคนนี้อย่างไร?

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6. ถ้ามีคนเชิญให้ท่านมาสอนวิชาการบริหารการศึกษาให้กับนักเรียนปริญญาตรี , โท ในวิชาที่ชื่อ
ว่า “ การเป็นผู้นำในสถาบันอุดมศึกษาแห่งรัฐของประเทศไทย ” โดยแบ่งบทเรียนออกเป็น 3 บท

อะไรจะเป็นบทเรียนบทแรกสุด บทที่สอง และบทสุดท้าย ของท่าน

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7. ท่านคิดว่าวิธีการที่ดีที่สุด ที่ควรใช้ในการฝึกอบรมคิรูนหลังคืออะไร ?

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8. อะไรคือสิ่งที่สำคัญที่สุด ที่ท่านได้เรียนรู้ในชีวิตที่ผ่านมา สิ่งที่ท่านอยากจะฝากหรือส่งทอดให้กับ
คนรุ่นหลังมากที่สุด (ถ้าทำได้) ?

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ชื่อผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์.....

ที่อยู่ี่แน่นอน.....

Fax:

ขอขอบพระคุณท่านที่สละเวลาอันมีค่าร่วมเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของงานวิจัยนี้

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