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**ROLES AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP
BEHAVIOUR OF UK AND THAI UNIVERSITY
LECTURERS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY**

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment
of the requirements of the
University of Northumbria at Newcastle
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Research undertaken in Newcastle Business School

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Declaration

No portion of the work referred to in this thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning. Except insofar as stated in the acknowledgements to this thesis the text itself, the work contained herein is that of the author.

June 2005

Prasert Sithijirapat

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Abstract

This study investigates how individuals from different cultures differ in their roles and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). The study is located in the area of higher education. Lecturers from one UK university and four Thai universities were chosen to be the sample.

The primary purpose of the research was to address the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviour in the context of OCB and as recommended by Morrison (1994) to focus on in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour as seen from both the supervisor's and employee's perspectives. The second purpose of this research was to investigate how individuals from different cultures may differ in their roles and OCB.

Results from this study are consistent with Morrison's critique that there are different views of behaviours between supervisors and employees. That is, supervisors included more job behaviours as part of their employees' work than employees did. However, the results also show that subordinates perform extra-role behaviours as part of their work more often than supervisors see. Results from the comparisons between the UK and Thai samples show that there are some similarities and differences in 5 key areas of work which are teaching, research, management and administration, pastoral care and extracurricular activities. Although both countries have very different cultural

characteristics, the results show that lecturers from both countries engage in some similar extra-role behaviours.

The findings also showed that a number of respondents confronted role ambiguity. Moreover, this research reveals that the respondents' perception of boundaries between in-role and extra-role behaviour is 'fuzzy'. Illustrations of the behaviours and activities that lie in the fuzzy area are provided and new category of behaviour, semi-extra role, is introduced. Implications for the concept of OCB are discussed.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

On my first day at work as a university lecturer, I felt anxious about how to start the job because I had no experience of this kind of job. When looking around the room, I saw my fellow lecturers absorbed in their job. Some were writing, some were reading voraciously, some were talking to their students. After all the students left the room, one of the lecturers walked up to me and introduced himself, we got acquainted in a short while. During the conversation, a number of students entered the room periodically. I let my new colleague know that I have no idea how to start the job. He said he knew my feeling and gave advice on what should to be done first. His act of kindness really impressed me. Shortly afterwards I noticed that he was always willing to help out others including lecturers, staffs, and students. This was what first inspired me to give attention to studying behaviours beyond the call of duty.

At the present time, organisations face strong pressures to control cost and at the same time improve the quality of products and services. Every organisation is comprised of people; an organisation's success increasingly depends on the knowledge, skills, and abilities of employees, particularly as they help establish a set of core competencies that distinguish an organisation from its competitors. Human resource management (HRM)

refers to the policies, practices and systems such as processes of selection, performance appraisal, and training for managing employees in order to increase the productivity and reduce costs (Latham & Fry, 1988). However, HRM activities typically place emphasis on employees' behaviour, attitude and performance in accordance with management tools of formal organisations such as employment agreements, job descriptions and organisation charts. Other informal and spontaneous and voluntary individual behaviours benefiting an organisation have not been included in the formal structure (Katz, 1964; Stewart, 1985). Since such informal behaviour can help an organisation meet its goals, many organisations need employees to constantly exert discretionary behaviour that exceeds their formal role requirements and that improve the overall functioning of the organisation. Further, employees are required to expend much time and energy on tasks, to be innovative in completing tasks and to accept responsibilities in addition to those specified in their employment contracts. Such behaviours were defined as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) by Organ (1988).

Organisation and management researchers view Organisational Citizenship Behaviours as contributing to an organisation's overall performance. For instance, they have suggested that organisational citizenship behaviours (1) provide a means of managing the interdependencies among members of a work unit, which increases the collective outcomes achieved; (2) reduce the need for an organisation to devote scarce resources to simple maintenance functions, which frees up resources for productivity; and (3) improve the ability of others (i.e., co-workers and managers) to perform their jobs by freeing up time for more efficient planning, scheduling, problem solving, and so on (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is a relatively new concept in the study of organisational behaviour. The first appearance of OCB in the literature occurred in the early 1980s (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Since that time, OCB has generated considerable interest (e.g., Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). OCBs are employee behaviours which reach beyond the traditional measure of job performance. These behaviours are not part of a formal job description nor do they fall within the conventional reward system. However, organisational citizenship behaviours hold promise for long-term company success (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Many other terms have been used to describe OCB, including prosocial organisational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne, Cumming, & Parks, 1995), and organisational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992). Examples of these behaviours include assisting fellow employees in need, volunteering to work late or weekends, helping to socialise and assist new employees, avoiding the waste of company supplies, engaging in professional behaviours that enhance the firm image, and holding work breaks to a reasonable length.

Due to many studies concerning OCB, it was felt that OCB should unquestionably benefit organisational operation as the organisation acquires natural, unforced, without external prompting acts of joint effort, great sensitivity, and devotion to duty. It is entirely possible that these behaviours enhance communication among employees, interpersonal relations, and job satisfaction.

1.2 Rationale for the study

Even though organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has received considerable attention in the human resource management and organisational behaviour literature, one important issue that has remained unreconciled is whether there is a clear enough conceptual boundary between OCB, or extra-role behaviour, and in-role behaviour, so that they could be viewed as distinct constructs. Graen (1976) noted that roles in organisations were rarely fixed and role perceptions evolve as employees and supervisors negotiate the scope of work activities. This issue forms one central part of this research study.

Graham (1991: 251) defined OCB as “a global measure of individual behaviour at work that includes traditional measures of job performance, the extra-role/organisationally functional behaviour envisioned by the original OCB researchers, and also forms of political behaviour that are accounted for nowhere else.” This definition can be critiqued as reducing OCB to a contentless construct to the extent that it defines everything and anything and hence cannot advance the understanding of employee behaviour.

OCB research has tended to sidestep the potential ambiguity and subjectivity of the OCB construct by adopting a single perspective with respect to the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviour: that of supervisors (e.g., Moorman, 1991; Smith et al., 1983). Van Dyne et al. (1995) argued for construct clarification of OCB through modifications of existing definitions. They defined extra-role behaviour (ERB) as “behaviour which benefits the organisation and/or is intended to benefit the organisation.

which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations” (Van Dyne, et. al, 1995: 218), while in-role behaviour (IRB) as “behaviour which is required or expected as part of performing the duties and responsibilities of the assigned role” (1995: 222).

These definitions raise the issue of intention on the part of the employee. This implies that research into OCB might require approaches that include the employee’s definition of the situation or role. Definitions of extra-role behaviour that rely solely on either the supervisors’ or employees’ view are problematic. Where a supervisor for example may see early attendance as extra-role behaviour, the employee may see it as within role. In another example, an employee may view helping colleagues as in-role behaviour where in contrast the theorist might define such behaviour as extra-role behaviour. With regard to the different perceptions or expressions of OCB, some research has remarked that it does not take the actor’s perceptions of the role into account (Morrison, 1994).

1.3 Problem statement and objectives

As mentioned above, Graen (1976) noted that roles in organisations were rarely fixed and role perceptions evolved as employees and supervisors negotiate the scope of work activities. Moreover, the concept of role was vague, nebulous and non-definitive (Neiman & Hughes, 1951). Morrison (1994) pointed out that an approach such as OCB requires understanding how employees define their job responsibilities, since an important factor driving employees’ behaviour is whether they define a given activity as in-role or extra-role. Morrison indicated that job definitions might be subject to social construction. Employees may develop a sense of their job responsibilities based in part

on cues from others. Moreover, Morrison (1994: 1545) assumed that “if perceived job requirements are in part cognitive constructs, subject to a variety of social cues, a given behaviour may be classified as in-role by an employee.” As a result, there have been gaps in empirical studies of in-role and extra-role behaviour and also, little research has been done to address these problems. The research project reported here is interested in narrowing this gap.

The intention is to investigate one group of employees, namely university lecturers, by looking at the lecturers’ perception of their roles with regard to the expectations of others (peers, supervisors, subordinates, etc.). The three primary reasons for this study focusing on OCB in educational institutions are as follows:

Firstly, there have only been a few studies of education from the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour point of view (e.g. Skarlicki & Latham; 1995, Rego, 2003). The current study is designed to add to this list. Universities are potentially different from many other organisations. The role of lecturer, as with some other ‘expert’ roles, may be difficult to define – the ‘expertise’ or ‘expertness’ of the role occupant is to some extent individualistic and therefore more of a problem to routinise. So the expectations of, for example, the supervisor and the lecturer may be different. Because the training of university lecturers in teaching methods is a recent phenomenon, there may be less of a common perception of what lecturers do or should do than is the case for, say, administrators.

Secondly, OCB is a part of role and organisation theory. To understand the performance and behaviour of individuals in an organisation, their expectations need to

be examined. Looking at organisational change involves investigating people's changing expectations or changes in their behaviours. Therefore, a study of changing roles and expectations is the study of the nature of change in an organisation. This study aims to investigate roles and changes in the roles of lecturers in private universities.

So, the first aim of the research was:

To investigate incumbents' and role senders' perceptions of the role of university academic staff.

Thirdly, the research aims to examine individual differences, including perceptions, understandings, and expectations, resulting from different cultures. Moreover, it intends to compare the roles of lecturers across countries and cultures. The results might differ because of the impact of culture. However, some of those differences may be reduced perhaps because of the commonality of factors in the role of lecturers in higher education across differing cultures. So the second aim of research was:

To make a comparison on roles and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) of UK and Thai university lecturers.

Moreover, Farh, Early and Lin (1997: 421) noted that "despite the voluminous and fruitful literature stemming from Organ's (1988) seminal work in this area, there is little about citizenship behaviour in a global context." The differences in perceptions arising from people's cultural values may have a profound impact on how citizenship behaviour is viewed and operates in relation to other constructs. Initial searches of the literature

published in the West have indicated that to date no studies of OCB have taken place in a Thai setting. This has led to the third aim of the study being:

*To investigate to the nature of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
in a Thai setting.*

1.4 Research strategy and summary of statement of the problems

Culture generally refers to the total patterns which make a society distinct (Komin, 1990). Culture also serves as a framework for shaping and guiding the thoughts, actions and practices as well as the creativity of its members. It is transmitted, learned and shared. Therefore, people are culturally conditioned. They learn and internalise through socialisation the beliefs, attitudes and values of the society. These become a system of values which guide people's behaviour. In addition, Adler (1989) suggests that people from different cultures will not necessarily conform to similar sets of beliefs and values, and therefore will have different views of situations and preferences for outcomes. So, this research is interested in the impact of cultural differences on the roles of university lecturers.

This research is also concerned with the concept of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). This has become a very popular topic since Organ's work was published in 1988. OCB is now more popular in Organisational Behaviour and Human Resource Management. This interest is partly as a result of the findings that Organisational Citizenship Behaviour or extra-role behaviour enhances organisational efficiency and effectiveness. Authors have included this concept into Organisational

Behaviour text books, for instance ‘Fundamental of Organisational Behaviour’, edited by Cary L. Cooper (2002).

The development of the concept of OCB is continuing and in many perspectives for instance OCB definition, factors that effect OCB, applied OCB in organisation, and OCB testing in many countries by using and referring from Organ’s articles (1988) which is principles. Past studies have dealt only with the supervisors’ views on his/her subordinates’ performance of OCBs. For example, Moorman (1991) claimed that supervisors were able to provide relatively accurate and complete pictures of an employee’s OCB. However some researchers, e.g. Morrison (1994), have raised the important issue of whether there is a clear enough conceptual boundary between OCB, or extra-role behaviour, and in-role behaviour to claim that OCB is the same for all employees.

From the literature review, there is a gap in the literature. As Morrison (1994) has remarked much of the previous research does not take account of the actor’s perception of the role. So, this main research focuses on both the actor’s (employee’s) and the supervisor’s perceptions of role. To clarify role behaviour, this research uses Merton’s role-set theory (1957) as the theoretical framework.

The other gap in OCB research is that is identified no study has been carried out in a Thai context; most of the study on OCBs are Western-centred. Since the culture and atmosphere at work in the Western countries are quite different from those of Thailand, organisational citizenship is socially based (Brief & Motowidlo. 1986) and its behaviour have a cultural component, individuals in different cultures may interpret OCB

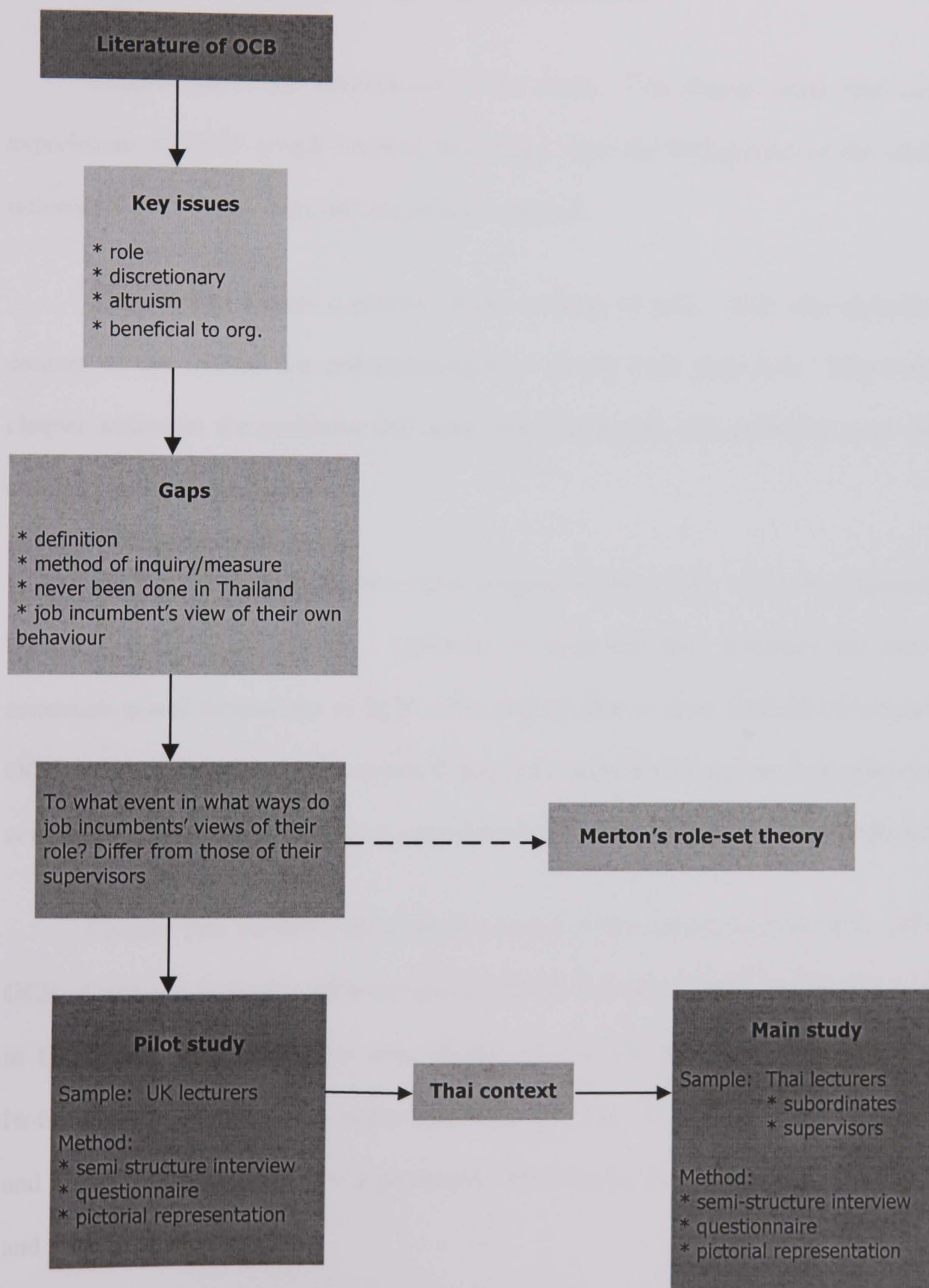
differently. As a result, adopting the measurement of OCB based on Western context is not appropriate and valid. The research is in need of developing some specific measures or other approaches to investigate Thai's OCB.

This research has been conducted in 2 phases, a pilot study and main study. Before starting the main study, this research has run the pilot study to ensure that the all procedures are workable. The pilot study has been conducted from a number of academic members in UK. The methods include both a qualitative approach, in the form of semi-structured interviews, and a quantitative approach, using questionnaire and pictorial representation.

The pictorial representation, based on Merton's role-set theory (1957), was developed in the pilot study to be an instrument for collecting data. It has appeared the instrument has been a productive research method, therefore, it is used in the main research.

In the pilot study, the focus is on in-role behaviour to determining the extent to which the job duties and responsibilities are performed in UK University. The research also uses these same processes and instruments within Thailand in order to examine the nature of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) in a Thai setting.

Figure 1 Organisation of Research



1.5 Outline of the thesis

This thesis is divided into eight chapters as follows:

Chapter one is the introduction to the study. This chapter starts from author's experiences of OCB which inspired this study; then the background to the study, its rationale for the study, aims and scope are presented.

Chapter two covers a review of the concept of role. This also describes the concept of the role-set for understanding how people learn their role. Moreover, this chapter addresses the problems that arise from inadequate role definition, such as role conflict and role ambiguity.

Chapter three presents the central concept of this study, which is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Literature is reviewed that discusses the historical, construction and dimensions of OCB. This chapter also reviews research concerned with OCB and the relationship between OCB and other related concepts such as psychological contract, leader-member exchange, organisational justice and organisational commitment.

Chapter four explains the cultural context of this research, which may influence OCB. Culture may lead to different views of OCB from that which is said to be common in Organ's work (1988). This also focuses on the cultural dimensions suggested by Hofstede, particularly as they relate to British and Thai cultures. A brief history of UK and Thailand higher education is presented. The chapter also illustrates the general work and roles of academic staff.

Chapter five discusses the procedural and managerial aspects of collecting data. The differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches are discussed. This chapter also provides the rationale for the methods used in this study.

Chapter six deals with the pilot study undertaken in the UK university. The focus is on the results from three instruments, which are semi-structured interviews, a questionnaire (checklist), and pictorial representations. This chapter provides data analyses at the individual (micro) level as a preparation for a comparison with Thai respondents in chapter eight.

Chapter seven presents the results of the main study, which is the perceptions of in-role and extra-role behaviour of academic staff in Thailand. Again, data analyses at the micro level are provided.

Chapter eight presents a comparison of the results between UK and Thai academic staff. This chapter provides a mixture of levels of analysis. Results of the interviews from both UK and Thai respondents are compared (micro level), the differences of institutional systems are also illustrated (meso level), and, finally, some cultural differences (macro level) which would affect the individual behaviours have been identified and discussed.

Chapter nine proposes the conclusions of this research. Discussion and possible implications of the present findings are offered. The limitations of this research and suggestions for further research are also proposed.

Chapter Two

The Concept of Role

2.1 Introduction

In looking at how the extra-role behaviour has come to be defined, it is important to clarify what in-role behaviour is including several concepts of role. This chapter deals with many major issues regarding roles.

The concept of role is very important to the understanding of employees' behaviours in an organisation. Role refers to the expected behaviour patterns attributed to a particular position in an organisation (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 2000). A role may include attitudes and values as well as specific kinds of behaviour. It is what an individual must do in order to validate his or her occupancy of a particular position.

Certain activities are expected of every position in the formal organisation. These activities constitute the role for that position from the standpoint of the organisation. The organisation often develops job descriptions that define the activities of a particular position and how it relates to other positions in the organisation (Rodham, 2000). However, roles may not be set forth explicitly and yet be clearly understood by group members. This is true both for formal and informal groups. Thus, whether they are

formally or informally established, status hierarchies and accompanying roles are integral parts of every organisation.

2.2 Role

A role is the pattern of actions expected of a person in activities involving others. Role reflects a person's position in the social system, with its accompanying rights and obligations, power and responsibility (Adams, Harris, & Carley, 1998). In order to be able to interact with one another, people need some way of anticipating others' behaviour. Role performs this function in the social system. A person has roles both on the job and away from it. One person performs the occupational role of worker, the family role of parent, the social role of club president, and many others (Rodham, 2000). In those various roles, a person is both buyer and seller, supervisor and subordinate, and giver and seeker of advice. Each role calls for different types of behaviour. Within the work environment alone, a worker may have more than one role, such as a worker in group A, a subordinate to supervisor B, a machinist, a member of a union and a representative on the safety committee (Broderick, 1999).

As discussed above, every employee of an organisation has a differentiated set of activities to perform. A person's expected role is the formal role that is defined in a job description and the signals that other employees of a department send as they teach newcomers how to perform their jobs. According to Bassett and Carr (1996), an individual's expected role, however, may differ from his or her perceived role. A perceived role is the set of activities that an individual believes he or she is expected to perform. The perceived role may or may not greatly overlap with the expected role that

originates with other members of the organisation. Finally, an enacted role is a person's actual conduct in his or her position. It is more likely to reflect the individual's perceived role than the expected role.

In organisation, both old and new employees need to know what others expect of them and what they can expect from others. It is common to use the term "role" to describe the set of expectations associated with a job or position in an organisation. The people who hold these expectations are considered members of the role set; the person who is supposed to fulfil them is the role incumbent (Adam, Harris, & Carley, 1998).

Katz and Kahn's work is most closely associated with the role set theory of organisation. In their view the organisation is made up of overlapping and interlocking role sets. These role sets would normally transcend the boundaries of the classical conception of organisations (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

As interdependent people associate with one another and gain experience with interpersonal relations, they come to expect other individuals to behave in specific ways (Bassett & Carr, 1996). Lecturers expect students to complete reading assignments before coming to class; students, in turn, expect lecturers to administer tests that are based on these same reading assignments. When either of these expectations is violated, the relationship may become strained.

2.3 Role expectations

According to role theory's Katz and Kahn (1978), role expectations are defined as how role set's members believe role incumbent should act in a given situation. How he

or she behaves is determined, to a large part, by role defined in the context in which he or she is acting. The relationships between the role incumbent and the members of role-set create expectations for behaviours of each role incumbent. These expectations result in certain roles that must be performed. Rousseau (2001) suggested that, in the organisation, it could be helpful to look at the topic of role expectations through the perspective of the psychological contract. There is an unwritten agreement that exists between employees and their employer. This psychological contract sets out mutual expectations, that is, what supervisor, as a member in role-set of a role incumbent, expects from his or her a subordinate and vice versa. In effect, this contract defines the behavioural expectations that go with every role. Management is expected to treat employees justly, provide acceptable working conditions, clearly communicate what is a fair day's work, and give feedback on how well the employee is doing. Employees are expected to respond by demonstrating a good attitude, following directions, and showing loyalty to the organisation. As a result, Kickul (2001) implied that the psychological contract should be recognised as a powerful determiner of behaviour in organisations. It points out the importance of communicating accurately role expectations.

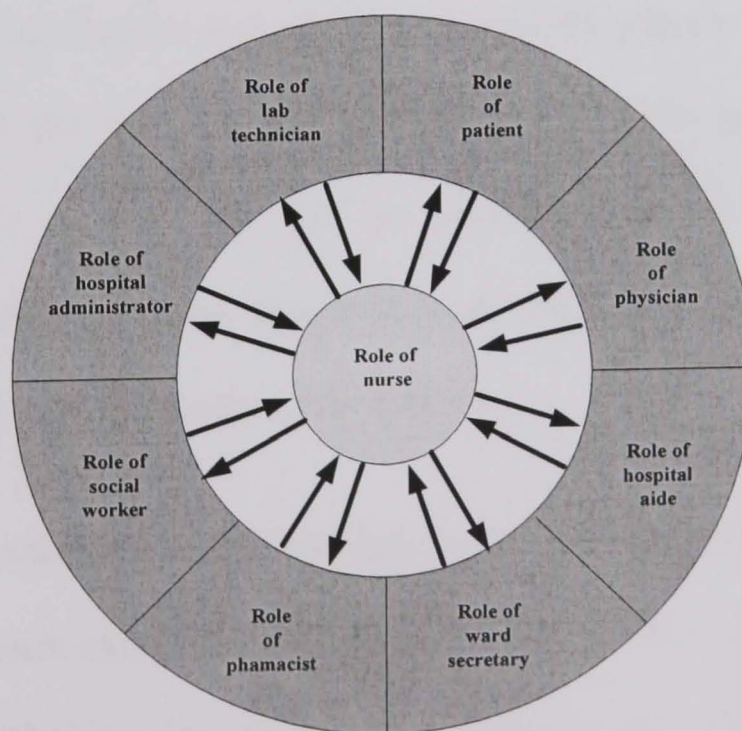
2.4 Role Set

Merton (1957) described the complement of role-relationships in which persons are involved by virtue of occupying a particular social status as the role set. The role set was described as consisting of the different people which whom the focal person has contact and who have a stake in, and hold expectations about, the focal person's performance. Because all members of a focal person's role set depend upon his or her

performance in some fashion, they therefore develop beliefs and attitudes about what he or she should or should not do as part of the role. These beliefs and attitudes held by members of a role set are described as role expectations. These expectations are described as being sent to the focal person in the form of a sent role. The focal person's perception of the messages sent by the role set is the received role, and finally, role behaviour or the enacted role is what the focal person does in response to (a) the messages he or she has received; and (b) his or her perception of the role.

The notion of role set highlights an important aspect of social behaviour: most of the interaction occurs in networks of relationships (Federico, 1978). Figure 2 gives an example of an employee's role set.

Figure 2 An example of a nurse's role-set



Source from Zanden, & Wilfrid (1979), p.114.

2.5 Multiple roles and Role sets

Most people play many roles simultaneously. This is because they occupy many different positions in a variety of organisations such as home, work, church, civic, and so forth. Within each of these organisations, they occupy and perform certain roles. Most individuals perform multiple roles (Merton, 1957). They may for example simultaneously be playing the role of parent, mate, supervisor, and subordinate. For each position, there may be different role relationships. For example, the position of college professor involves not only the role of teacher in relation to students but also numerous other roles relating to the position to administrators, peers, the community and alumni. Each group may expect different things. For example, students may expect good classroom performance; administrators may expect classroom performance, research, and publication; the college community may expect community service; and alumni may expect help in recruiting students and athletes. A role set refers to those individuals who have expectations for the behaviour of the individual in the particular role (Merton, 1957). In the above example the role set would consist of those students, peers, community, and alumni who have expectations of the role of colleague lecturer. The more expectations, the more complex is the role set.

According to Merton (1957), 'multiple roles' refer to different roles, while 'role set' refers to the different expectations associated with one role. Therefore, an individual involved in many different roles, each with a complex role set, faces the ultimate in complexity of individual behaviour. The concepts of multiple roles and role sets are important because there may be complications that make it extremely difficult to define

specific roles, especially in organisational settings.

2.6 Role perception

Different individuals have different perceptions of the behaviour associated with a given role. Katz and Kahn (1978) suggested that in an organisational setting, accuracy in role perception could have a definite impact on performance. This matter is further complicated in an organisation because there may be at least three different perceptions of the same role: that of representatives of the formal organisation, that of the group, and that of the individual (Katz & Kahn, 1978). For example, a college dean has perceptions of the role of lecturers, as do students and the lecturers themselves. As the discussion of role sets above indicates student perceptions of the role of a lecturer may be very different from those of the college administrators. This increases even further the possibility of role conflict.

The role perceptions also guide activities of managers and workers alike, that is to say, how they think they are supposed to act in their own roles and how others should act in their roles. Since managers perform many different roles, they must be highly adaptive (exhibiting role flexibility) in order to change role rapidly as they work with subordinates and superiors and with technical and nontechnical activities.

2.7 Role conflict

Because of the multiplicity of roles and role sets, it is possible for an individual to face a situation where there is simultaneous occurrence of two or more role requirements

and the performance of one precludes the performance of the others. When this occurs, the individual faces a situation known as role conflict. Role Conflict occurs when the role incumbent is unable to meet the expectations of one or more members of the role set (Katz & Kahn, 1978). For example, a middle manager experiences role conflict when her supervisor expects her to increase levels of production and her subordinates complain that they are overworked and expect her to ease up on her demands. The individual understands what needs to be done, but for some reason cannot comply with them. The resulting tension can reduce job satisfaction and affect both work performance and relationships with others (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Tubre & Collins, 2000).

2.8 Role ambiguity

Katz and Kahn (1978) suggested that role ambiguity occurs when the role incumbent is uncertain about his or her role. That is, the expectations of one or more members of the role set are unclear and therefore difficult to satisfy. To do their jobs well, people need to know what is expected of them. Most workers, however, experience some degree of role ambiguity at one time or another because organisations frequently change job responsibilities so that the organisation can adapt to changing conditions (George & Jones, 1999). Role ambiguity can be stressful for the individual, resulting in lowered self-confidence and decreased job satisfaction. It may also cause difficulties in relationships with members of the role set.

Perhaps the best way to understand the nature of roles is to examine a role episode. A role episode attempts to explain how a particular role is learned and acted upon. According to Katz and Kahn (1978), a role episode begins with group members

having expectations about what one person should be doing in a particular position (stage 1). These expectations are then communicated to the individual (stage 2), causing the individual to perceive the expectations about the expected role (stage 3). Finally, the individual decides to act upon the role in terms of actual role-related behaviour (Stage 4). In other words, Stages 1 and 2 deal with the expected role, while Stage 3 focuses on the perceived role, and Stage 4 focuses on the enacted role.

Several aspects of this model of a role episode should be noted. First, Stages 1 and 2 are initiated by the group and are aimed at the individual. Stages 3 and 4, on the other hand, represent thoughts and actions of the individual receiving the stimuli. In addition, Stage 1 and 3 represent cognitive and perceptual evaluations, while Stages 2 and 4 represent actual behaviours.

Although the role episode presented here seems straightforward, in reality it is far more complicated (Katz & Kahn, 1978). For instance, individuals typically receive multiple messages from various groups all attempting to assign them a particular role. This can easily lead to role conflict. Messages sent to individual may sometimes be unclear, leading to role ambiguity. Finally, individuals may simply receive too many role-related messages, contributing to role overload.

According to Katz and Kahn (1978), role episode begins with the standards that are held by evaluators, such as managers, supervisors, peers, and subordinates. These standards or expectations are then communicated to the individual. Because communication is often imprecise, the expected role may not be identical to the perceived (or received) role. Furthermore, due to constraints on actual behaviour, the enacted role

is observed by the evaluators, who then compare it to the standards they have set. This feedback then completes a single role episode. If an employee's behaviour does not come sufficiently close to the standards, another role episode may be initiated. It should be noted that many things could go wrong in a role episode. Sometimes the evaluators do not send consistent signals (Adams, Harris, & Carley, 1998). For example, a supervisor may assign his or her subordinate a task, while the supervisor, in turn, may later tell the subordinate that he or she should not perform that duty, perhaps because it is not the subordinate's responsibility or not included in his or her job description. Different departments sometimes send different signals, as when a supervisor's subordinates indicate that they would like less pressure for production, while his or her supervisors simultaneously insist on higher levels of output. Differing signals from evaluating individuals result in role conflict. On occasion, the messages that evaluators send are not clear, or they give incomplete information, which leads to role ambiguity.

2.9 Summary

The concept of role is important for an understanding of behaviour. Role is the pattern of actions expected of a person in activities involving others. Role expectations are defined as how role set's members believe role incumbent should act in a given situation. The expectations of the member of the role set are linked to the behaviour. Role expectations may be formally or informally established.

In organisation, people may play many roles simultaneously. Therefore, an individual involved in many different roles, each with a complex role set, faces the ultimate in complexity of individual behaviour. Consequently, there may be

complications that make it extremely difficult to define specific roles. It is possible for an individual to face a situation where there is simultaneous occurrence of two or more role requirements. This situation is known as role conflict. Role conflict occurs when expected behaviours or tasks are at odds with each other. Even if individuals avoid the stress associated with role conflict, however, they may still encounter and even more common source of job-related stress, which is role ambiguity. This occurs when people are uncertain about several matters relating to their responsibilities, what's expected of them, how to divide their time between various duties. Both role conflict and ambiguity can interfere with task performance.

Chapter Three

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

3.1 Introduction

The lifeblood of any organisations is their employee, especially, those who engage in work behaviour that is in some way beyond the reach of traditional measures of job performance but hold promise for long-term organisational success. This chapter focused on the work behaviour above called Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. The first section in this chapter deals with evolution of organisational citizenship behaviour concept. Then the construct of the behaviour is examined. This is followed by some discussions that show evidences of the behaviour improving employee performance, research relating to the behaviour, and role boundary concept. Finally, the focus is on the behaviour and relevant variables.

3.2 The Evolution of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Concept

One of the most important goals that organisations and their members try to achieve is to provide some kind of goods or services that customer desire. Changes in organisation management practices occur as managers, theorists and researchers seek new ways to increase organisational efficiency and effectiveness. The driving force behind the evolution of organisation management theory is the search for better ways to utilise

organisational resources. Advances in organisation management theory typically occur as managers and researchers find better ways to perform the principal management tasks: planning, organising, leading and controlling human and other organisational resources. Much of the discussion of motivation, as a task of leading, focuses on getting employees to do the jobs they are assigned in an effective and efficient way. However, they are the things that employees do that are beyond the call of duty, without consideration of rewards or bonuses. These out-of-role activities are called organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), and are intriguing because there are often the behaviours cited by customers when praising exemplary service. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour can be traced to the sixth decade of the twentieth century. Katz's theory (1964) identified three basic types of employee behaviour that are critical for the overall effectiveness of any organisational system. These three behaviour patterns included the following: (1) people must be induced to enter and remain within the system, (2) people must carry out their role assignments in a dependable fashion, and (3) there must be innovative and spontaneous activity in achieving organisational objectives that goes beyond the role specifications.

While the identification of the first two types of behaviour was important, it is the third pattern of behaviour that this study will focus upon. Katz (1964) maintained that these behaviours are 'vital to organisational survival and effectiveness.' A view echoed by Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) that organisational citizenship behaviours hold promise for long-term company success. Indeed, an organisation that depends solely upon the first two types of behaviour would appear to be a very fragile social system. Katz (1964) provided several examples of important extra-role behaviours, including: (1)

actions that protect the organisation and its property; (2) constructive suggestions for improving the organisation; (3) self-training for additional responsibility; (4) creating a favourable climate for the organisation in its surrounding environments; and (5) cooperative activities. In the early 1980s the term 'organisational citizenship behaviours' (OCBs) was created to depict those extra-role behaviours previously defined and described by Katz (Smith et al., 1983; Bateman & Organ, 1983). More recently, a formal definition has been offered by Organ (1988): OCB represents individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. In terms of being discretionary behaviour. Organ implies that the behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organisation; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.

Organ (1988) emphasis that this definition does not necessarily imply that OCB is limited only to those behaviours that are totally lacking in any tangible return to the person who performs such gestures. He maintains that a continual demonstration of OCBs over time may influence the impression that co-workers or a supervisor develop concerning a particular employee. This impression may play an important role in future reward considerations, such as a salary increase or a promotion. Such a view is confirmed by the research of Park and Sims (1989). However, the important point is "that such returns not be contractually guaranteed by any specific policies and procedures, that they be at best probabilistic in nature, uncertain of attainment, and at most an inference on the part of the individual who contemplates such returns" (Organ,

1988: 5). A good citizen is someone who helps neighbours, votes, participates in community activities, etc. In other words, a person who takes actions that is not required but which contribute to the welfare of the community. Similarly, good organisational citizens are employees whose actions contribute to the effective functioning of the organisation and are not explicitly required (discretionary) nor formally rewarded (with incentives). In other words, OCB is altruistic; it is expressed in actions that show an unselfish concern for the welfare of others. Such behaviours are entirely up to the individual (discretionary) in the sense that people are neither rewarded for doing them nor punished for not doing them (Organ, 1988).

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is a relatively new concept in the study of organisational behaviour. The first appearance of OCB in the literature occurred in the early 1980s (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Since that time, OCB has generated considerable interest (Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). OCBs are employee behaviours, which reach beyond the traditional measures of job performance. These behaviours are not part of a formal job description nor do they fall within the conventional reward system. However, organisational citizenship behaviours hold promise for long-term company success (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Many other terms have been used to describe OCB, including prosocial organisational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Park, 1995), and organisational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992). Examples of these behaviours include assisting fellow employees in need, volunteering to

work late or weekends, helping to socialise and assist new employees, avoiding the waste of company supplies, engaging in professional behaviours that enhance the firm image, and holding work breaks to a reasonable length.

As a number of studies show OCB should benefit organisational functioning. That is, an organisation gains a measure of systemic resiliency from these small, spontaneous acts of selfless sensitivity, cooperation, and uncompensated contribution (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Such behaviours have the potential to improve interpersonal relations, employee communications, job satisfaction and foster an atmosphere of cooperation. They have been prevailed in two particular aspects of OCB: altruism and teamwork.

Altruistic behaviours include volunteering for extra work, helping new employees, and assisting employees who have been absent or who have heavy workloads. Teamwork includes such related concepts as cohesion (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and social integration (Smith et al., 1983). Cohesion reflects satisfaction and auto-action held by team members for other members within the same group. Teams that are more cohesive are more likely to engage in prosocial behaviours (OCBs) in order to maintain strong relationships within the team. Prosocial behaviours include making constructive suggestions, providing cooperation, and generating ideas. Similarly, social integration is a mutual understanding, camaraderie, and esprit de corps that connects team members (Smith et al., 1983). Social integration enables team members to communicate more effectively and ultimately work together better.

Since the introduction of the concept of OCB topic has received a great deal of research attention. A review of the literature on citizenship behaviour indicates that researchers generally maintain that OCBs stem from two motivational bases: (1) job attitudes and/or (2) disposition/personality (Organ, 1990; Organ & Ryan, 1995). The relationship between OCB and job attitudes is rooted in social exchange theory, that is, employees engage in OCBs in order to reciprocate the actions of their organisations. The second rationale holds that OCBs reflect an individual's predisposition to be helpful, cooperative or conscientious. OCBs could of course relate to both.

According to Organ (1988), OCBs are behaviours that employees (1) are not explicitly rewarded for exhibiting nor punished for not exhibiting, (2) are not part of an employee's job description, and (3) are behaviours for which employees do not receive training to perform. Organ (1988) proffers five dimensions of organisational citizenship, which are: (1) Altruism that represents behaviours directed at helping a specific person at work (e.g., a co-worker or a supervisor). (2) Generalised compliance is the label used to describe general employee conscientiousness that surpasses enforceable work standards. (3) Sportsmanship describes tolerance of nuisances on the job (i.e., when employees endure impositions or inconveniences without complaint). (4) Courtesy refers to the act of 'touching base' with others before taking actions or making decisions that would affect their work. (5) Civic virtue behaviours describe the active participation and involvement of employees in company affairs, such as attending meetings, responding to mail, and keeping up with organisational issues.

Most of the empirical work on citizenship is based on Organ's (1988) model, and empirical support has been found for his conceptualisation (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). By definition, OCBs are not necessarily selfless acts. Still, by and large, researchers have focused on motives that emphasise either prosocial or social exchange intent. For example, while Organ (1988) acknowledges that engaging in citizenship behaviours on a frequent basis might affect the impression that an individual makes on a supervisor or co-worker, he maintains that such behaviour is a consequence of other-serving rather than self-serving motivation. In fact, he suggests that to increase the prevalence of OCBs in the workplace, organisations should try to identify and recruit individuals prone to engage in OCBs and should avoid individuals who are egocentric. Similarly, while Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui (1993) state that it may be interesting to understand how political motives affect employees' reasons for engaging in OCBs, they conclude that the intentions of employees are unimportant for understanding the impact that OCBs have on organisational functioning. Thus, although citizenship researchers have acknowledged that impression-management motives may explain citizenship behaviours, none has conducted theoretical or empirical research addressing this point.

Before Organ's dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviours were proposed, Smith et al. (1983) suggested that OCB is composed of two distinct categories: altruism and helpful behaviour aimed at specific individuals in the organisation. They describe "OCB compliance behaviours as an impersonal sort of conscientiousness, more of a good soldier or good citizen syndrome of doing things that are right and proper but for the sake of the system rather than for specific persons" (p.662). In addition to Organ's five dimensions of organisational citizenship and Smith et al.'s two categories discussed

above, Graham (1991) proposed three forms of organisational citizenship behaviour including obedience, loyalty and participation. Obedience refers to employees' willingness to accept and abide by the organisation's rules, regulations and procedures. Loyalty refers to the willingness of employees to subordinate their personal interests for the benefit of the organisation and to promote and defend the organisation. Finally, participation refers to the willingness of employees to be actively involved in all aspects of organisational life.

In 1994 Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch's research was completed with its results suggesting that participation actually consists of three aspects. Social participation refers to employees' active involvement in company affairs, such as keeping up with organisational issues or attending non-mandatory meetings, and participation in social activities within the organisation. Advocacy participation refers to the willingness of employees to be controversial in order to improve the organisation by making suggestions, innovating and encouraging other employees to express their opinion freely and clearly. Functional participation refers to employee contributions that exceed required work standards, such as volunteering to be responsible for extra assignments, working late to finish important projects, or pursuing additional training and self-development.

All forms of OCB discussed above involve an exchange. The nature of this exchange, however, varies. OCB directed at benefiting other co-workers is rooted in the positive expressive relationship that characterises cohesion. Exchange patterns in general are influenced by the quality of affective relationship. OCB has the characteristics of

social exchange where the content of exchange is relevant in that both parties assess fairness of exchange (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). The contents of exchange, however, are unspecified and the assessment is only intermittent in that short-term setbacks do not disturb the exchange relationship. These two aspects keep the exchange distinct from the quid pro quo form of economic exchange (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

The OCBs directed at an organisation lead to fulfilment of macro-motives of loyalty and commitment (Van Dyne et al., 1994). These motives stem from the commonality of purpose beyond individual needs and self-interest, and are detached from the consideration of exchange. These motives, thus, form the basis of a covenantal contract between an employee and the organisation (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Seen from other perspective, interpersonal helping or OCB directed at co-workers is predominantly rooted in the concern for unilateral giving, OCB directed at supervisors stems from the social contact based exchange (Organ & Konovsky, 1989) and OCB directed at an organisation derives from the covenantal contract based exchange (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

The organisational processes, leading to an employee's performing OCB aimed at benefiting the organisation, are likely to be different. Socialisation and maintenance of the conditions of the psychological contract with an employee (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), enhancement of the status of an individual's organisational membership (Salancik, 1977), and indoctrination (Katz & Kahn, 1978) are some of the key processes

instrumental in forging a psychological bond between an employee and organisation that is the basis of organisationally directed OCB.

The need-based OCB directed at a co-worker is mainly driven by affective overtones. Research indicates that such helping is associated with empathy arousal, empathic distress or positive affect. Therefore, the dominant intra-individual processes are affective; a view reflected in some of the OCB research specifically focusing on OCB directed at benefiting co-workers (e.g., George, 1991).

The social exchange between an employee and his/her supervisor is based on reciprocity, which involves cognitive processing. In particular, the reciprocity-based exchange requires assessment of benefactor's intent, extent of volition, and the costs incurred by the benefactor and the value of the benefits received (Gouldner, 1960). These cognitive processes involved have formed the basis of the distributive, procedural and interactional justice based explanation of OCB and could partly account for the moderately consistent relationship between fairness cognition and OCB (Moorman, 1991, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). The intra-individual process is, thus, likely to be predominantly cognitive in nature.

OCB directed at benefiting an organisation serves value expressive functions. The intraindividual process, therefore, is that of assessing implications of performing OCB for the reinforcement of one's internalised values. Some support for this view has been highlighted by Popper and Lipshitz (1992). Popper and Lipshitz (1992) note that employees assess the extent of match between the forms of organisationally directed OCB which they choose to perform, and the bases of congruence of their and organisational

values. With this emphasis on value orientation in OCB directed at an organisation as a system, the salient aspect of the associated intraindividual process is likely to be normative.

OCB directed at co-workers takes the form of sharing work, listening to problems of other employees, orienting new employees, expressing concern for them, and providing them information (George, 1991; Smith et al., 1983). These behaviours correspond with forms of social support. In particular, they seem to provide informational, emotional, esteem enhancing and instrumental support. Therefore, employee perceptions of high social support at workplace should be the most proximal outcome of this category of OCB. OCB directed at supervisors is sustained by a broad-based social exchange between the leader and member in a dyad. The open-ended nature of exchange commitments places extra resources at the disposal of the leader. This induces employees to take additional responsibilities (Dansereau et al., 1975) and is reflected in enhanced flexibility and effectiveness of the concerned sub-unit leader.

OCB directed at an organisation involves expression of commitment to the organisation's objectives and organisation as an entity beyond parochial considerations of individuals and groups. The main consequence of this is likely to be reduced sub-unit goal differentiation (March & Simon, 1958), and loss segregation and differentiation of informal groups (Etzioni, 1961) where neither sub-unit nor informal group goals are pursued in conflict with organisational goals.

In addition, the conceptual framework that has inspired work on OCB has much in common with the work of Borman and Motowidlo (1993) on 'contextual performance.' a

construct that is quite close to OCB. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) note that individuals contribute to organisational effectiveness by doing things that are not main task functions but are important because they shape the organisational and social 'context' that supports task activities. Thus, contextual performance (like OCB) includes such contributions as volunteering for extra-job activities, helping others, and upholding workplace rules and procedures regardless of personal inconvenience. Borman and Motowidlo suggest that such contributions have a generalised value and significance that cuts across different jobs and work organisations, whereas task performance varies from job to job. Moreover, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) contend that organisation leaders perceive such contributions as important and valuable, a position supported by evidence from Orr, Sackett, and Mercer (1989), MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1991), and Borman, White, and Dorsey (1995).

For Borman and Motowidlo (1993), the distinction between contextual and task (i.e., in-role) performance is both theoretically and practically important because they are probably determined by different antecedents. Task related knowledge, skills, and abilities are expected to determine task performance, whereas dispositional factors would better predict contextual performance. Pulakos, Borman, and Hough (1988) demonstrated that measures of cognitive ability predict technical skill and job effort, whereas certain personality measures better predict other criteria, such as personal discipline. The tone of contemporary social psychology with respect to both attitudes and personality is that neither is likely to predict specific, situation bound behaviours very well, but do predict aggregations of thematically related behaviours across varied situations and reasonable time intervals (Epstein, 1980). Also, OCB is less likely than in-

role performance to be constrained by limitations of ability or by work process. Like Borman and Motowidlo (1993), It would be expected by task performance to be determined largely by ability, particularly as that interacts with precise incentive structures for quantity or quality of task performance. It does not mean to suggest that these differences in causal determination of OCB and in-role performance are absolute. Ability might be a prerequisite to some specific instances of OCB; explicit incentives might well serve to increase some types of OCB; and in-role performance that inherently involves serving others could be related to some measurable personality factors (e.g., Hogan, & Hogan, 1989).

Different forms of employee behaviours negate each of these classes of OCB. The negation of co-worker directed OCB that results in provision of social support are found in social loafing behaviours. While OCB directed at co-workers is driven by the 'giving orientation' with a view to meet other's needs, social loafing behaviours stem from a 'desire withhold.' The behaviours negating OCB directed at a supervisor are non-compliant behaviours. While OCB directed at a supervisor involves providing inputs to the exchange beyond the reward-contribution ratio based contract, non-compliant behaviours involve a denial to meet even the basic terms of this formal contract (Puffer, 1987).

Similarly, while organisationally directed OCB seeks to further organisational goals by going beyond the parochial concerns and individual self-interests, its negation is reflected in those behaviours that seek to detract from collective interests in order to maximise personal gains. A prominent category of such behaviours is free-riding. Free-

riding applies typically to groups such as organisations where the trade-off is between individual and collective gains or what they refer to as ‘private goods’ and ‘public goods.’ These behaviours of individuals may lower the level of ‘common goods’ and thus organisation wellbeing in pursuit of their own goals.

3.3 The Construction of OCB

Smith et al. (1983) developed a 16-item behaviour rating scale of OCB. Factor analyses of ratings made with this scale suggest two factors, labelled altruism and generalised compliance. Five years later, Organ (1988) added other constructs to his OCB model. Civic virtue as proposed by Graham (1986) represents responsible involvement in the governance and political life of the organisation. Courtesy describes organisation members’ gestures toward preventing problems that might occur. Finally, sportsmanship refers to toleration without complaint of less than desirable organisational conditions.

In the same year as Graham’s work, Brief and Motowidlo’s work (1986) suggest prosocial organisational behaviours as behaviour that are “(1) performed by a member of an organisation; (2) directed toward an individual, group, or organisation with whom he/she interacts while carrying out own organisational role; and (3) performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organisation toward which it is directed” (p.711). Brief and Motowidlo (1986) further specified that these behaviours were either role prescribed or extra-role and could be either organisationally functional or dysfunctional.

Van Dyne, Cummings, and Park (1995) constructed a review of the literature associated with the construct definition and identified the domains of four specific extra role behaviours: OCB, prosocial organisational behaviour, whistle-blowing and principled organisational dissent.

Furthermore, Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) suggest a five-dimension taxonomy for the concept of OCB. The dimensions are (1) persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort as necessary to complete own task activities successfully; (2) volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job; (3) helping and cooperating with others; (4) following organisational rules and procedures; and (5) endorsing, supporting and defending organisational objectives.

Graham's (1991) review of classical philosophy and modern political theory highlighted several beliefs and behavioural tendencies that together comprise what Inkeles described as the "active citizenship syndrome" (1969: 1139). Three interrelated substantive categories of civic citizen responsibilities make up this syndrome. The first category, obedience, involves respect for orderly structures and processes. Responsible citizens recognise rational-legal authority and obey the law. The second category, loyalty, expands parochial welfare functions to include serving the interests of the community as a whole and the values it embodies. Loyal citizens promote and protect their communities and volunteer extra effort for the common good. The third category, participation, entails active and responsible involvement in community self-governance in whatever ways are possible under the law. Responsible citizens keep themselves well informed about issues affecting the community, exchange information and ideas with

other citizens, contribute to the process of community self-governance, and encourage others to do likewise. Political philosophers dating back to Aristotle have recognised that citizenship includes multiple related responsibilities and have emphasised that responsible civic citizenship requires balanced engagement in obedience, loyalty, and participation (Inkeles, 1969).

Graham (1991: 255) extended this political philosophy perspective on civic citizenship and applied the political categories of obedience, loyalty, and participation to citizenship in organisational settings. She positioned OCB as a global concept composed of several correlated substantive categories modelled after Inkeles's (1969: 1122-1123) definition of the active citizenship syndrome, defining the categories as follows: Organisational obedience reflects acceptance of the necessity and desirability of rational rules and regulations governing organisational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies. Obedience can be demonstrated by respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organisational resources. Organisational loyalty is identification with and allegiance to an organisation's leaders and the organisation as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments. Representative behaviours include defending the organisation against threats, contributing to its good reputation, and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole. Organisational participation is interest in organisational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by an individual's keeping informed, and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organisational governance. Representative activities include attending non-required

meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, and being willing to deliver bad news or support an unpopular view to combat 'groupthink' (Janis, 1982).

3.4 Evidence of OCB improving Employee Performance

The empirical evidence suggests that OCBs do, indeed, improve the effectiveness and efficiency of organisations. As mentioned above, it is probably not too surprising that research shows that managers implicitly include citizenship behaviours in their overall evaluations of employee performance (e.g., MacKenzie et al. 1991, 1993; Park & Sims 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie 1994). For example, MacKenzie et al. (1991) and Podsakoff et al. (1993) found that managers tend to weight OCBs at least as much as they do quantitative measures of productivity in their evaluations of employee performance. Similarly, Park and Sims (1989) found that both OCBs and objective sales performance had significant effects on sales managers' overall evaluations of a salesperson's performance. In addition, they found that OCBs also influenced managers' decisions about which salespeople should be promoted. More specifically, Park and Sims's findings indicate that OCBs have a positive effect on promotion decisions, and the strength of this effect increases as the level of sales productivity increases (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 1993).

Citizenship behaviours may also improve the efficiency of a manager's unit by (a) reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions (Organ, 1988) and (b) helping to coordinate the activities of teams and other workgroups (e.g., Smith et al. 1983). A natural-by-product of helping behaviour is that it enhances team spirit, morale and cohesiveness, thus reducing the need for group members (or managers)

to spend energy and time on group maintenance functions. Likewise, not creating problems for others (for example exhibiting courtesy) reduces inter-group conflict and diminishes the need to spend time on conflict-management activities. The coordination of activities among group members and between workgroups may also be enhanced when sales personnel voluntarily attend and actively participate in work unit meetings (civic virtue) and/or 'touch base' with other team members or members of other groups to avoid creating problems for them (courtesy).

OCBs may also be valued because they enhance a manager's ability to attract and retain the best people (e.g., George & Bettenhausen 1990; Organ 1988). Many of the best employees and job candidates enjoy working in a positive environment with a closely-knit group of coworkers. Helping behaviours may directly contribute to such an environment by enhancing morale and fostering group cohesiveness and a sense of belonging to a team, thus making the unit a more attractive place to work. Related to this, when employees exhibit sportsmanship by being willing to 'roll with the punches' and refrain from complaining about trivial matters, it sets an example of putting the interests of the work unit or group ahead of one's own interests, thus enhancing a sense of loyalty and commitment to the organisation.

Also, OCBs can help to enhance a manager's ability to adapt to changing environments in several ways. For example, when sales personnel who are in close contact with the marketplace volunteer information about changes in the environment and make suggestions about how to respond to them, it helps the manager to adapt. Similarly, when salespeople voluntarily attend and actively participate in meetings (civic virtue), it

may enhance the responsiveness of a manager's unit by aiding the dissemination of valuable information. When employees exhibit sportsmanship by demonstrating a willingness to take on new responsibilities or learn new skills, attend seminars, and so forth, it may enhance the ability of the organisation to adapt to changes in its environment.

There has been expectation of the relative impact of OCBs on performance evaluations to be greater at higher levels of the sales management hierarchy for several reasons. As noted by Organ (1988) and Borman and Motowidlo (1993), the expectations of managers become more diffuse and more contextually oriented as managers' advances up the corporate hierarchy. In general, employees are expected to contribute more to the organisation as they progress up the organisational hierarchy. For example, a new and relatively inexperienced employee would be less likely to be, or be capable of, mentoring others, speaking to employee groups, making decisions about company policy, or taking a leadership role in motivating others. However, more senior-level employees who hold managerial positions would be expected to mentor or be a role model for others, provide input on others' performance, present new ideas at employee meetings, motivate others, host external guests, volunteer for charity work, and so forth. Thus, managers are often expected to make broader contributions to the organisation than their subordinates, and regardless of whether these expectations are explicitly stated by the managers' superiors, they may cause 'extra-role' contributions to have an even greater impact on the evaluations of managers than they do on the evaluations of their employees.

A second reason why OCBs might become more important as one moves up the organisational ladder is that it becomes more difficult to obtain objective measures of a sales manager's performance than it is to obtain objective measures of a salesperson's sales performance. Such measures do exist (e.g., aggregate sales, expense management ratios), but they are not as closely linked to the manager's own behaviour as are the measures available for salespeople. This makes it more difficult for general managers (GMs) to base their appraisals of the lower level managers solely on objective measures of individual performance.

Another reason for the importance of OCBs at the managerial level has to do with the fact that managers are in highly visible positions, affecting more people as role models and leaders. People are more likely to look up to managers or at least scrutinise their behaviour and reactions to various organisational events. In such a position, complaints by managers could have a greater negative effect on more people, as could the more positive altruism and sportsmanship behaviours. This wider span of influence means that managerial OCBs reach a larger audience with potentially greater impact than the behaviour of non-managerial employees. To some extent, senior management depends on managers to represent and support the organisation for this reason. A manager who consistently demonstrates support for organisational goals could set a positive tone for the attitudes of those who work for him or her. Thus, OCBs may be more important at a managerial level, because the modelling of these behaviours has a 'multiplier' effect on subordinates.

Finally, as argued previously, it is possible that OCBs help managers to be more personally effective. To the extent that this is true, one might expect the impact of OCBs to be even greater as one moves up the sales management hierarchy because (a) the premium on the time of a higher level manager is even greater than that of a lower level manager, and (b) any enhancing effect that OCBs have on unit efficiency will be even greater at higher levels. Thus, for all of the above reasons, OCBs will have a greater relative impact on the overall evaluations of sales managers than they do on the evaluations of salespeople.

Across three separate samples of insurance agents and a single sample of petrochemical sales representatives, they found that the impact of OCBs and sales productivity on overall evaluations of performance was about the same. However, in their sample of pharmaceutical sales managers, they found that OCBs had a much bigger impact on performance evaluations than objective productivity. Taken together, these findings suggest that the relative impact of OCBs on performance evaluations increases as one moves up the sales management hierarchy from agent/sales representative to first-line sales manager.

However, the obvious problem with the comparisons of the sales representative samples with the sales manager sample reported in MacKenzie et al. (1993) is that there are other differences between the samples besides the difference in their level in the organisational hierarchy. More specifically, the samples differed in terms of the nature of the industries examined (insurance versus petrochemical versus pharmaceutical), the type of sales (consumer versus industrial), and a variety of organisational characteristics (e.g.,

the nature and availability of the quantitative performance indicators used by the performance evaluators, the nature and structure of the reward and compensation systems for each of the sales samples, and the extent to which the evaluators' pay is linked to the objective performance of the person being evaluated).

The fact that OCBs were found to influence promotion decisions is interesting, because several researchers have speculated that the impact of OCBs on performance evaluations increases as one moves up the organisational hierarchy. For example, Organ (1988) has suggested that OCBs increase in importance for upper-level managers, since "the higher the rank of an organisational member, the more diffuse are the expected, role-related obligations of that member" (p. 13). Similarly, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) suggest that, "Because management positions do not contribute directly to the technical core of an organisation, differences between their task and contextual components are not as straightforward as in other jobs that do contribute directly to the technical core" (p. 85). This implies that evaluations of higher-level managers are less concrete and rely more heavily on distinctive, organisation enhancing behaviours such as OCBs. Indeed, Borman and Motowidlo estimate that about 30 percent of the managerial performance domain may involve OCB-like behaviours such as volunteering, showing enthusiasm, putting in extra effort, helping others, cooperating, and endorsing or defending the organisation.

Further, organisational citizenship behaviours also should be of interest to sales managers. For example, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993) find that various combinations of OCBs are more important than sales productivity in determining sales

managers' ratings of salespeople. This finding is consistent across petrochemical, insurance, and pharmaceutical salespeople. Organisational citizenship behaviours also can have a positive effect on objective sales unit performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994) and can lead to other important sales-related behaviours such as improved customer service (George, 1991).

3.5 Research on OCB

The topic of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has generated a considerable amount of scholarly attention (e.g., Koys, 2001; Tepper, Lockhart, & Hoobler, 2001; Werner, 2000; Hui, Lan, & Law, 2000; Hodson, 2002; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Paine, 1999). OCB embodies the constructive and cooperative gestures that are neither mandated by formal job-role prescriptions nor directly nor contractually compensated for by the formal organisational reward system. Several research studies tested the relationship between employee attitudes of job satisfaction, organisational support and OCB (Bettencourt & Gwinner, 2001; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, & McMurrian, 1997; Kelley, Longfellow, & Malehorn, 1996; Organ, & Ryan, 1995). These studies found that job satisfaction and perceived organisational support were the best predictors of OCBs. Bettencourt and Gwinner (2001) suggested that job attitudes seem to be the primary driver of employee willingness to represent the organisation favourably to outsiders. Also, other employee attitudes such as fairness provided evidence that fairness perception explain unique variance in participation OCBs (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Kelley et al, 1996). Other research on OCB such as Penner, Midili, and Kegelmeyer (1997) suggested that OCB may also be a proactive behaviour, that is, people may

consciously choose to engage in OCB because such behaviours meet certain needs or satisfy one or more motives. Penner et al.'s (1997) interest in motives and OCB was explicitly based on a functional approach to human behaviour. The functional approach to behaviour focuses on the function or purpose served by behaviour. Identifying the purpose or purposes served by a particular behaviour enables one to better understand it and why the person has performed it (Rioux & Penner, 2001). This approach assumes that much of human behaviour is motivated by a person's goals and needs.

3.6 Research outside the US

Furthermore, there have been examinations of OCB outside of the context of US. For example, Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) examined Citizenship behaviour in Taiwan by developing and assessing a citizenship behaviour measure, and then investigating the relationship between citizenship behaviour and organisation justice. Results showed that employees who perceive their interactions within an organisation as recognised and legitimate are more likely to engage in citizenship behaviour. Moreover, the relationship between justice and citizenship behaviour was found to be stronger for men than for women. Alotaibi (2001) examined the effects of procedural and distributive justice, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment upon OCB in Kuwaiti context. This study contributes in two ways to OCB literature. First, it provides confirming evidence that both procedural and distributive justices are antecedents of OCB in Eastern cultures. Secondly it helps to bridge the gap in OCB literature in Eastern cultures. Another study on OCB (Paine & Organ, 2000) was designed to gain an understanding of whether the OCB phenomenon originally noted in the Western world was also presented in other

countries. The Western countries included European countries such as England, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Slovenia, Somalia, Spain and Switzerland. The Asian countries included Japan, Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan, and Thailand etc. Findings suggested that in collectivist cultures, what would be called OCB appears to be part of what one is generally expected to do—regardless of job description or prospects for any sort of reward other than honour within the group. However, this research's conclusions are highly questionable. Not only they are described as exploratory and descriptive, in many cases only one or two representatives from each of these countries were included. The overall samples size was extremely small—38 respondents representing 26 countries. Therefore, although Thailand was included in this study, the results of the examination of OCB in the context of Thailand cannot be seen as anything other than highly tentative.

3.7 Role boundary

An important issue of OCB is job role boundary. After Morrison's research (1994) suggesting two rationales for why different employees may perceive different boundaries of OCB, Lam, Hui, and Law (1999) examined OCB by comparing perspectives of supervisors and subordinates across four international samples. This study revealed that the rank difference in defining job roles was stronger than the nation difference in terms of both mean differences and effect size. Such differences may signal a breach of the psychological contract between the subordinate and the supervisor. The breach occurs when the subordinate perceives that the supervisor imposes extra-role behaviour as an expected part of the subordinate's job. Eventually, this study suggested a

very interesting issue of OCB, that is, if the boundary of OCB differs across supervisors and subordinates, asking supervisors to evaluate subordinates' OCB may lead to errors in estimating the relationship between the predictors and OCB. This suggests that from a methodological point of view, if researchers are interested in subordinates' work behaviour, they should probably base their studies on subordinate definitions and ratings; if they are interested in how supervisors appraise subordinates, they should probably use supervisor definition and ratings.

Another example of research examining job role boundary (Tepper, Lockhart, & Hoobler, 2001) suggested that subordinates' role definitions with respect to OCB moderated the relationships between their procedural justice perceptions and their performance of OCB. The relationships between procedural justice and two kinds of OCB, interpersonal helping and personal industry, were stronger when subordinates defined them as extra-role behaviour. Allen, Barnard, Rush, and Russell (2000) also compared multiple ratings of OCB of managers obtained from three different sources including self, superiors, and subordinates. This study indicated that there were mean level differences in ratings across sources. That is, ratings made by self and superiors were higher than were ratings made by subordinates.

One very recent study on OCB was conducted in Portugal (Rego, 2003). Its main focus of attention is the Citizenship Behaviour of university teachers. Four OCB dimensions are defined in the study: participatory behaviour, practical orientation, pedagogical conscientiousness and courtesy.

Findings suggest that teachers' citizenship behaviours and actions help increase students' academic performance. Therefore, the study (Rego, 2003) implies that there is relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational performance because according to system theory students are universities' output. That is, organisational citizenship behaviour influences quality students or university performance and output.

3.8 OCB and relevant variables

OCB is seen as desirable because it includes suggesting new ideas for handling work, training and taking a personal trust in other employees, punctuality, seeking and asking for help when needed, making positive statements about the department and supervisors and so forth. This behaviour may enhance organisational efficiency by facilitating resource transformation, innovation and adaptability (Turnipseed, 1996). Such behaviour is thought to increase available resources and decrease the need for more formal and costly mechanisms of control (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Accordingly, there has been a growing interest in the study of organisational citizenship behaviours in the management literature. The literature reveals many interesting factors associated with OCBs including Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, Psychological Contract, Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment. Previous studies have dealt mainly with the influence of managers' perceptions of employee performance of OCBs (e.g., MacKenzie et al., 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994) or with a few selected antecedents and consequences of OCBs (George, 1991; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, & McMurrian, 1997). However, evidence

suggests that several uninvestigated perceptual variables influence OCBs of salespeople (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1997). In his discussion of the motivational basis for OCBs, Organ (1988) has suggested that justice perceptions play a key role in promoting OCBs.

Prior research supports the organisationally advantageous nature of higher quality leader-member exchanges (LMX) (e.g., Liden & Graen, 1980; Yukl, 1994). For example, higher quality LMX have been positively associated with subordinate-supervisor mutual support, subordinate in-role performance (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Scandura, 1987) and extra-role activity such as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (e.g., Deluga, 1994; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne & Green, 1993). Organisational citizenship behaviours are considered vital for productivity because organisations cannot anticipate through formally stated in-role job descriptions the entire array of subordinate behaviours needed for achieving goals (George & Brief, 1992). Therefore, because higher quality LMX subordinates are inclined to perform in-role (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) and organisationally useful extra-role OCB (e.g., Settoon et al., 1996).

Organisational justice is the term used to describe the role of fairness in the workplace (Greenberg, 1986). Specifically, organisational justice focuses on the processes by which employees determine whether or not they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which these perceptions influence other outcomes (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987). The concept of justice is critical to understanding interpersonal relationships and organisational processes. The two sub-domains that justice research has

typically focused on are: (a) distributive justice, which relates to the fairness of outcomes an employee receives, and (b) procedural justice, which describes the fairness of the procedures used to determine those outcomes. The lack of distributive justice can cause workers to lower their job performance, cooperate less with their co-workers, engage in stealing, and experience stress (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Procedural justice is composed of both formal procedures and interactional justice that is relational in nature and reflects the degree of fairness in the treatment of one individual by another. Thus, procedural justice has both, a structural and formal component and a social component (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Moreover, researchers have reported a robust relationship between perceptions of procedural justice and OCB in a variety of studies (e.g., Fahr, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ & Moorman, 1993).

Another concept that is closely allied to OCB is that of the ‘psychological contract’ (Rousseau, 1995). Rousseau (1995) theorised that psychological contracts are a key influence on behaviour at work and that they are especially relevant to discretionary behaviour. When psychological contracts contain a large number of inducements from an organisation, individuals have positive relationships with the organisation and they reciprocate by contributing to it. These contributions include obedience, loyalty, and cooperative behaviour. In contrast, when psychological contracts are less positive, workers reciprocate by engaging in less organisational citizenship behaviour. Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau (1994) provided empirical support for this relationship by demonstrating a link between psychological contracts and self-reported organisational citizenship behaviour.

A job attitude, which is related to OCB, is organisational commitment. It is made up of three components, each reflecting a different type of attachment to the organisation. Each component is considered to develop as a function of different determinants and to have different implications for organisational behaviour. Meyer and Allen (1991) describe these components including affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation.

Drawing on social exchange theory, Organ (1990) theorised that affective commitment, conceptualised as a sense of psychosocial attachment, is an antecedent of organisational citizenship behaviour. Thus, engaging in voluntary behaviours such as organisational citizenship is a behavioural response to the inducements received from an organisation. This idea was supported by Shore and Wayne's (1993) research, which demonstrated a relationship between affective commitment and supervisor ratings of organisational citizenship. In summary, the literature provides theoretical and empirical justification for expecting psychological contracts and commitment to be related to organisational citizenship.

Eventually, a best-known work-related attitude is job satisfaction. Barnard (1938) suggested that satisfaction lead to individual willingness to cooperate and willingness to contribute to cooperative systems. A significant amount of empirical research has demonstrated that there is no consistent, positive relationship between job satisfaction and traditional measures of job performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Organ (1988), however, argued that a consistent and positive relationship exists between satisfaction and broader conceptualisations of performance that include organisational citizenship behaviours in addition to more traditional measures of performance. In fact, past research has consistently demonstrated a relationship between positive job attitudes and citizenship behaviour (Organ, 1988: 44) reviews the empirical studies of satisfaction and OCB. Organ used social exchange theory to suggest that when employees are satisfied by their jobs, they reciprocate. This reciprocation includes attachment to the organisation and behaviours such as organisational citizenship. Extending this reasoning, Pearce and Gregersen (1991) argued that the constraints placed on traditional measures of job performance by job descriptions and standard operating procedures make it more likely that employee reciprocity will occur as citizenship behaviour rather than as traditionally measured aspects of job performance.

Early research on organisational citizenship behaviour, however, typically did not specify the process that related satisfaction and citizenship. Extending the more recent research on mediating relationships (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, 1991; Podsakoff et al., 1990) and combining it with the theoretical heritage of civic citizenship, personal satisfaction regarding numerous aspects of a workplace, such as satisfaction with co-workers and supervisors, satisfaction with the work itself, and satisfaction with both

immediate and long-term rewards, will promote covenantal relationship. As noted earlier, covenantal relationship is characterised by reciprocity and mutual commitment and the absence of predetermined inducements and contributions. By definition, citizenship behaviours are not all required by a job. When they occur, they are not explicitly rewarded, and when they do not occur, there is no punitive action (Organ, 1990).

One approach stems from the extensive social psychology literature that documents the correlation between a person's good mood and that person's likelihood to engage in helpful behaviours or actions. Drawing on this literature, early empirical studies on OCB generally assumed that job satisfaction was an indicator of an employee's positive mood about work. Consequently, such studies (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) hypothesised and found a significant, robust, and positive association between job satisfaction and OCB. This association suggests that one reason satisfaction may be related to OCB is that it primarily reflects affect (mood) at work, and positive affect fosters OCBs.

A second, and more recent explanation, derives from the finding that job satisfaction measures contain substantial cognitive content (Brief & Roberson 1989). In particular, Organ (1988,1990) has maintained that job satisfaction measures tap, to a large degree, fairness cognitions. While empirical support for Organ's position can be found (e.g., Organ & Konovsky 1989), other studies (e.g., George 1991) indicate that a positive mood may account for more unique variance in OCB.

Strong evidence suggests that organisational culture is a major precondition fostering citizenship behaviour (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Employees are more likely to

exceed their job responsibilities if they: are satisfied with their jobs; perceive that supervisors are supportive and considerate; believe they are treated fairly. The relationship between organisational factors and OCB is usually conceptualised as an exchange: the employee expends effort in exchange for anticipated benefits, both financial and social. Employees attempt to maintain balance between effort expended and benefits received. If benefits are lower-than-anticipated, employees tend to reduce their effort. The extreme form of this is to leave the organisation.

Those who do not take this step have limited options. Inadequate job performance can lead to sanctions. Therefore, the employees will likely perform at an adequate level on the job, but reduce their voluntary initiatives. In other words, OCB is often the first casualty when employees are not satisfied with their jobs, do not believe supervisors are supportive and considerate, or do not believe they are being treated fairly.

Conversely, when perceived benefits exceed effort, employees sense the imbalance in the other direction. For example, if supervisors are supportive, and if the company treats employees fairly, then workers feel a sense of obligation, which they repay via contributions that exceed literal job descriptions. These contributions include both group participation and the degree to which employees spontaneously help co-workers.

Personality and mood affect both individual and group focused OCB. Research has shown that helpfulness is related to personality factors. Some people are simply more likely to help a co-worker, regardless of the organisational setting. One's willingness to help others is also influenced by mood (George & Brief, 1992). Personality is a relatively

fixed characteristic, but mood is changeable. A positive mood increases the chances that a person will help another. While mood is influenced (in part) by personality, it is also influenced by the situation. For example, in the work setting, mood is influenced by both the climates of the immediate workgroup and organisational factors (such as values and fair treatment). Thus, if the company values employees and treats them fairly, and if the immediate workgroup is positive and cohesive, employees are more likely to be in a good mood. Consequently, they will go out of their way to help one another. Employee selection is one approach to improving organisational citizenship (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Since helpfulness is related (in part) to personality variables, prospective employees can be screened to identify those who are predisposed to make extra-role contributions. This is a long-term approach. A more-effective strategy is to realise the company in order to create a culture that supports citizenship behaviour (Skarlicki & Latham, 1996).

3.9 Summary

In the organisational sciences, non-prescribed organisationally beneficial behaviours and gestures are distinguished from organisational behaviours that can be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations. Bateman and Organ (1983) denoted these former behaviours as 'organisational citizenship behaviours' (OCBs). OCB refers to individual behaviour that is performed voluntarily and not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system that, nevertheless, generally contributes to organisational effectiveness (Organ, 1988; Katz, 1964). OCB is essential because organisations cannot anticipate through formally stated in-role job descriptions the entire

array of behaviours needed for achieving goals (George & Brief, 1992). Initially, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) identified two OCB dimensions: altruism, representing those forms of OCB that provide help to a specific person (such as a co-worker), and generalised compliance (or conscientiousness), a more impersonal form of conscientious citizenship, which includes faithful adherence to rules about work procedures and conduct. Later, Organ (1988) introduced three additional OCB dimensions: courtesy, or gestures taken to help prevent problems of work associates; sportsmanship, or willingness to forbear minor and temporary personal inconveniences and impositions without fuss, appeal or protest; and civic virtue, or responsible and constructive involvement in the issues of governance of the organisation. OCBs can enhance an organisation's success by permitting it to more effectively allocate its financial and human resources (Organ, 1988). For example, a conscientious employee may require little supervision-employees exhibiting altruism and courtesy could save the organisation a great deal of time and costs in training and 'crisis' management, respectively; poor sportsmanship prevents managers spending enough time on more important job functions; and employees high on civic virtue may save costs by providing constructive suggestions regarding changes that might be made in their department or company.

Chapter Four

The Culture Context of the Research

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the concept of culture and its impact on behaviour. Then the main characteristics of Thai culture are examined, with attention given to understanding differences in beliefs, perceptions, and other cultural dimensions which may influence Western and Thai lecturers. This is followed by a discussion that shows how organisational citizenship behaviour is viewed across cultures. Finally, the focus is placed on the history of Thai and UK University development.

Each culture has its own norms, customs, and expectations for behaviour, and the success of a study of organisational behaviour and management depends on ability to understand several cultural issues. A culture is a set of shared knowledge, beliefs, and values, as well as the common modes of behaviour and ways of thinking, among members of a society. These become embodied in the laws and regulations of the society, and in the generally accepted norms of the country's social system. People in a society learn what to notice and what not to notice, how to behave with each other, and how to handle responsibility, success, and failure. Most people are unaware of just how

their culture has influenced their values, attitudes, beliefs, and norms. Culture is intangible, pervasive, and difficult to learn for outsiders (Lenartowicz & Roth, 2000; Hofstede, 1985).

According to Hofstede (1993), national culture, subcultures, organisational culture, and history all influence the behaviour patterns of employees and the structures and processes found in organisations. The complexity of these patterns, structures, and processes requires the careful analysis of many different variables. Despite such complexity, it is more important than ever in a study of OCB for the researcher to attempt to unravel the dimensions that differentiate cultures. For managers who aim to motivate, lead, reward, structure, evaluate, and change behaviour patterns, the study of cultural variation – particularly as it relates to performance, attendance, satisfaction, and ethical behaviour – is especially important.

4.2 Hofstede's Cross-cultural Study

An increasing body of research attempts to empirically investigate cultural variation and its impact on behaviour and styles of management. Research carried out by Hofstede (1985) on 116,000 IBM employees in 40 countries identified four dimensions of national value systems: power distance, individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity-femininity. Power distance refers to the degree to which members of a society accept differences in power and status among themselves. Thus high power distance means that people accept inequality in power among institutions.

organisations, and people. Low power distance means that people expect equality in power. In national cultures that tolerate only a small degree of power distance, norms and values suggest that power differences should be minimal. Hofstede's work implied that such cultures prefer participative management and worker involvement in decision-making. According to Hofstede (1980) individuals in such cultures believe that superiors should be readily accessible to subordinates. Also the use of power is neither inherently good nor inherently evil; whether power is good or evil depends on the purposes for and consequences of its use. On the other hand, in national cultures characterised by a large degree of power distance, norms and values based on hierarchical distribution predominate. People in these cultures use authority and power to coordinate individual work and behaviour. Individuals in large power distance cultures believe that power holders are entitled to special rights and privileges. Also, superiors and subordinates should consider each other to be different kinds of people. Komin (1999) suggested that autocratic management styles are more likely to exist in a high power distance culture than in a low power distance culture. Decentralisation, participation, and worker involvement are more likely to exist in a low power distance culture than in a high power distance culture.

The individualism-collectivism dimension refers to the tendency of a culture's norms and values to emphasise the pursuit of individual needs or group needs. That is, individualism reflects a value for a loosely knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of themselves. Collectivism means a preference for tightly knit

social frameworks in which individuals look after one another and organisations protect their members' interests. According to Hofstede (1999), most people's attitudes and behaviours lie somewhere between these poles of individualism and collectivism. Individualists are committed to their own development, quality of life, and rewards. In collectivist national cultures, the group and its accomplishments take precedence over anything else. There is a strong sense of group commitment.

The third dimension, uncertainty avoidance, concerns the degree to which people are comfortable with ambiguous situations and with the inability to predict future events with accuracy. So low uncertainty avoidance means that people have high tolerance for the unstructured, the unclear, and the unpredictable. In these cultures they believe that life is inherently uncertain and is most easily dealt with if taken one day at a time. And there should be as few rules as possible, and rules that cannot be kept should be changed or eliminated. High uncertainty avoidance means that people are uncomfortable when they are unsure what the future holds. In cultures characterised by high uncertainty avoidance, behaviour is motivated to some degree by fear of the unknown. People in such cultures are more likely to attempt to reduce or avoid uncertainty by establishing rules, policies, and procedures.

Within the final dimension of masculinity-femininity, Hofstede (1985) uses the term masculinity to designate the degree to which a culture emphasises assertiveness, dominance, and independence. According to Hofstede (1980), people in a culture that has a high masculinity orientation believe that sex roles in society should be clearly

differentiated, that is, men are intended to lead and women to follow. In addition, ambition and assertiveness provide the motivation behind behaviour. Femininity describes a culture's tendency to favour such values as interdependence, compassion, and emotional openness. According to Hofstede (1980), people in a culture oriented toward femininity hold the kinds of beliefs that sex roles in society should be fluid and flexible – that is, sexual equality is desirable. Also here, the quality of life is more important than personal performance and visible accomplishments.

4.3 Cultural Dimensions in Examining OCB

Since this thesis is at least partly a comparative study of role behaviour between members of UK and Thai Universities, the cultural contexts of the two countries merit review. Fortunately Great Britain was included in Hofstede's research (Hofstede, 1980; 1985). With reference to nation clusters according to his four dimensions, Great Britain is in the same cluster as the United States. That is, it is low on power distance and uncertainty avoidance (see Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1), thus, there is very little hierarchy and much interaction among the UK's people. British culture is also characterised by high levels of individualism and masculinity (see Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2) where people are committed to their own development, quality of life, and rewards. Also, success is a personal achievement; people function most productively when working alone.

Thailand also featured in Hofstede's original study and later studies (e.g. Hofstede, 1999) and it is possible to integrate other studies of Thai culture with

Hofstede's framework. To characterise Thai culture based on Hofstede's studies (1980, 1985) and Sorod's study (1991), the culture is high in power distance (see Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1). For example, Komin (1990,1995) described the Thai social system as hierarchical, where the public confrontation of authority is viewed as socially disruptive insubordination and is strongly discouraged. With reference to individualism-collectivism, Thai culture is characterised by low individualism (see Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2). According to Charoenngam and Jablin (1999), Thais view the parent-child relationship as basic to social life, and thus most Thais retain very close ties with their families. An other dimension of Hofstede's cultural characteristics of Thai culture is high uncertainty avoidance (see Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1). For example, when Thais meet one another for the first time, they automatically employ the correct pronouns and postures of respect, deference, and intimacy. Finally, Thais value low masculinity (Hofstede, 1980, 1985; Sorod, 1991), and so a successful, modest Thai person often expresses a more humble opinion than is probably merited by her or his own ability, knowledge, skills and success. Older Thai people are not happy when younger people argue with them or give more critical opinions than requested. Many Thai people would prefer not to say anything if their comments tend to lead to conflict or interpersonal resentment (Charoenngam & Jablin, 1999).

Furthermore, during the 1980s an eminent Thai sociologist, Komin (1990, 1995), conducted research into Thai values and behaviour so as to understand how Thais think, feel and act when they face certain situations. The results indicated nine Thai values,

basic beliefs, or feelings. These nine Thai value orientations are as follows:

- 1 Ego orientation, meaning the Thais' particular interests in saving face, and evasion of criticism.
- 2 Grateful relationship orientation, meaning a feeling of thankful appreciation, mutual support and friendship.
- 3 Smooth interpersonal relationship orientation, meaning peaceable or friendly relations.
- 4 Flexibility and adjustment orientation, meaning an inclination to be easily influenced or changed by situations or people.
- 5 Religio-psychical orientation, meaning a belief in spirit and soul, acceptance of differences and inequalities in power and status among people.
- 6 Education and competence orientation, meaning that education and competence leads to change in social status.
- 7 Interdependence orientation, meaning a cooperative spirit, friendly attitude and the compassionate demeanour of Thais and different ethnic groups in Thailand.
- 8 Fun-pleasure orientation, meaning interest in feelings, and moods of happiness, enjoyment and satisfaction.
- 9 Achievement-task orientation, explaining the phenomenon where the personal rewards and task-achievement are often sacrificed in order to maintain good relationships – the social element in achievement value.

Based on these Thai value orientations, Komin (1999) mentioned several

implications of a general nature relating to management. In Thai culture, straightforward negative performance feedback, strong criticism and face-to-face confrontation techniques should be avoided. ‘*Face-saving*’ is a key criterion in handling all person-related decisions, particularly negative ones. In addition, compromise is often used as an effective means of saving face, and to keep the ‘*surface harmony*’. Moreover, straightforward, ambitious and aggressive personalities like those of the West, although highly capable, are not tolerated and are hardly ever successful. But personalism with a ‘*soft*’ and polite approach often guarantees cooperation.

In summary, according to Hofstede (1980, 1985); Sorod (1991); Charoenngam & Jablin (1999), Thai culture is characterised by high power distance, low individualism, high uncertainty avoidance and low masculinity. These cultural characteristics have shaped the unique Thai culture. This culture consists of many values such as “*bun khun*”, referring to a strong sense of moral obligation that supports close interpersonal relationships (Podhisita, 1998). *Bun khun* is the feeling that each Thai has, for example, for his/her parents for giving his/her life. It is a gift so great that it cannot easily be repaid, but yet the recipient is ever ready to reciprocate in whatever way possible (Komin, 1995). *Bun khun* is a favour or help extended to others. It entails obligation on the part of the receiver to do something in return (Rabibhadana, 1995). Thus Podhisita said, “*bun khun* obligation is very important in Thai social life. Indeed, it is next to kinship in importance as a basis of social relationships in Thai society” (1985: 39).

Another Thai value is “*katanyu katawethi*”. This is also a Buddhist-based value

and differs only in degree. *Katanyu* means to feel gratitude for any merciful favour provided by others, and “*katawethi*” means to return the favour (Rabibhadana, 1995). The principles of *katannu kathavedi* reinforce the psychological bonds between parents and children as well as between teachers, who give great knowledge, and their students.

Consequently, there seems little doubt that the Thai values mentioned above encourage smooth interpersonal relationships based on trust, kindness, respect, and consideration. This is also true for working relationships and behaviour in organisations between supervisors and subordinates and among peers.

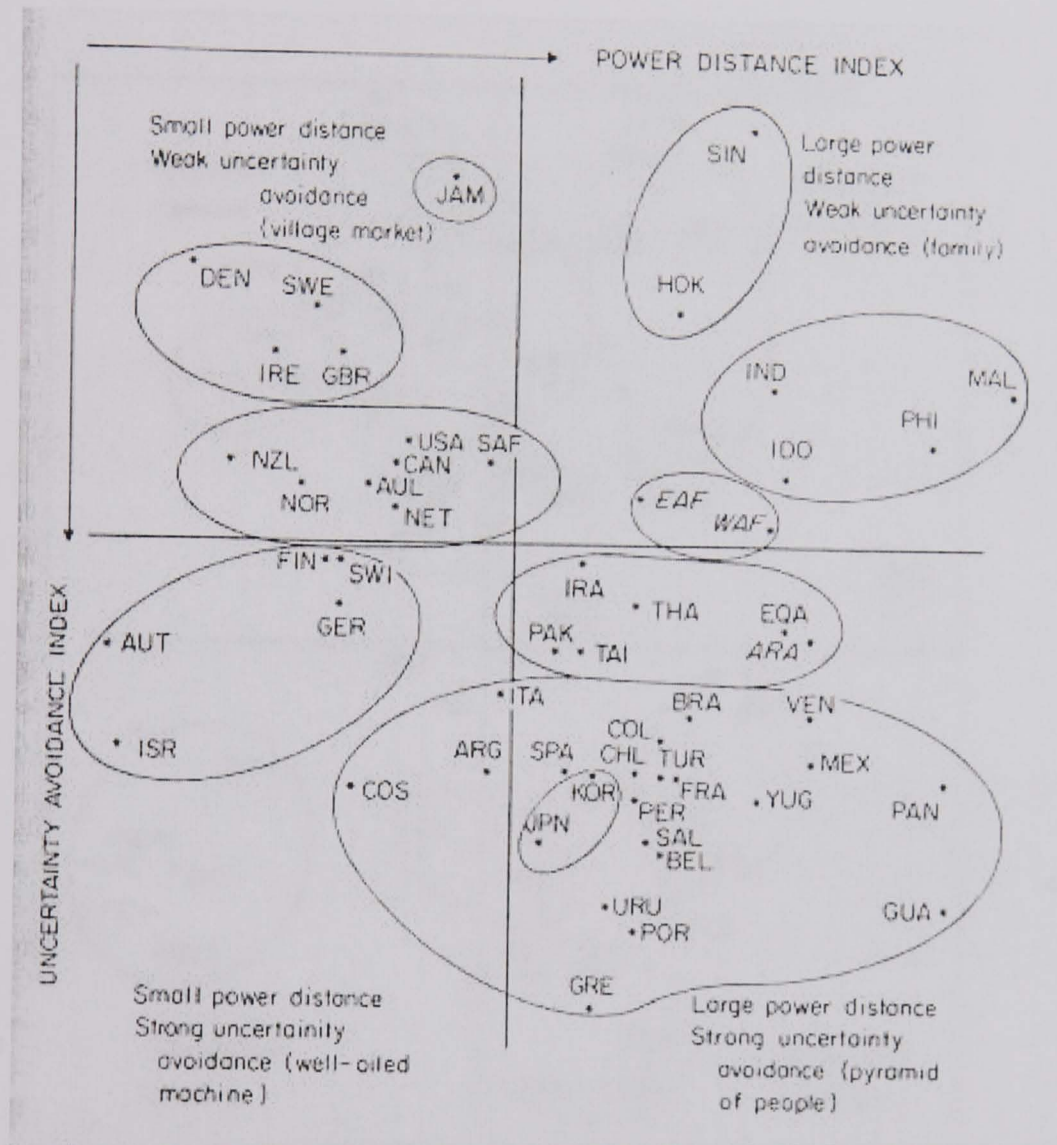
Table 4.1: Score of 3 countries on four dimensions of national culture

	Power Distance		Individualism		Masculinity		Uncertain Avoidance	
	Index	Rank	Index	Rank	Index	Rank	Index	Rank
Great Britain	35	42-44	89	3	66	9-10	35	47-48
USA	40	38	91	1	62	15	46	43
Thailand	64	21-23	20	39-41	34	44	64	30

Source from Hofstede (1999), p.386

Table 4.1 shows the scores on four scales of national culture for Great Britain, the USA and Thailand. The US data is included for the purposes of comparison.

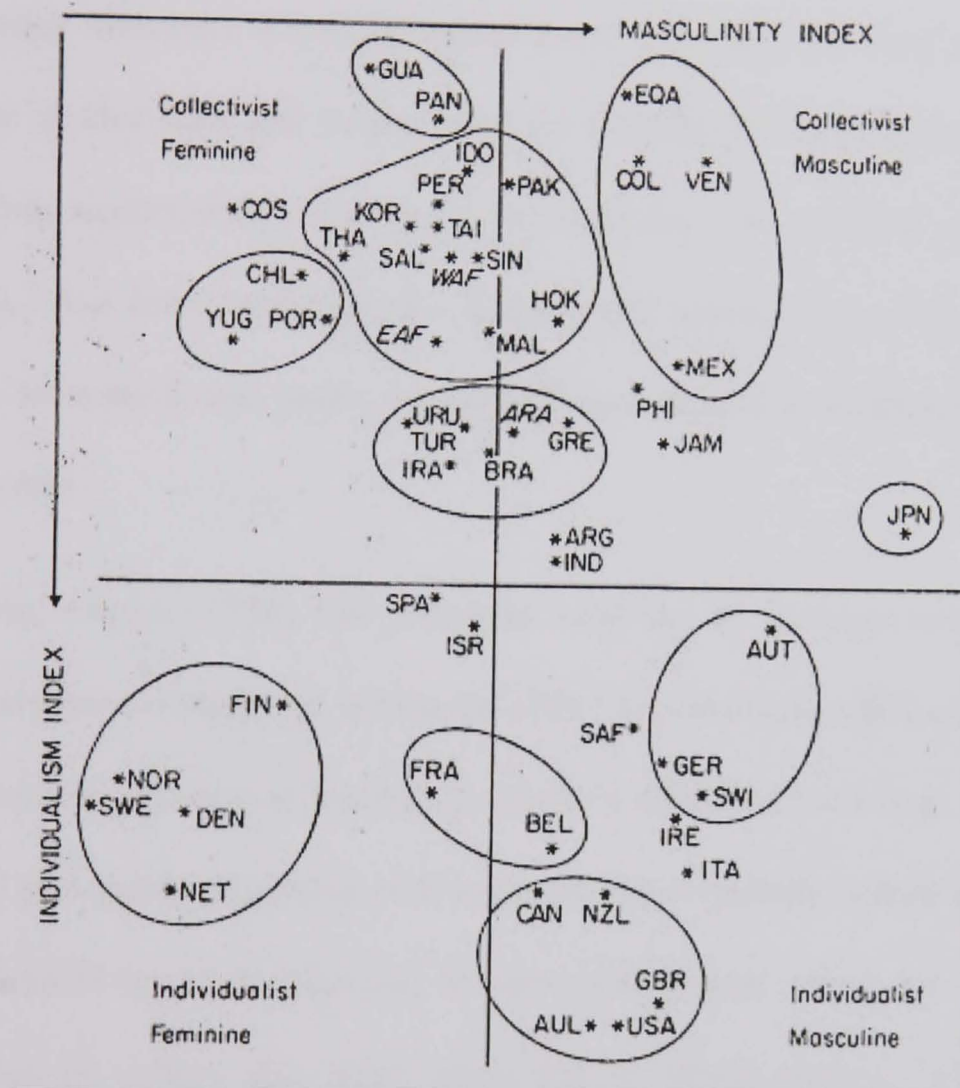
Figure 4.1 A power distance x uncertainty avoidance plot for 50 countries and 3 regions



Country abbreviations: GBR Great Britain, USA United States, THA Thailand

Source from Hofstede (1985), p.351.

Figure 4.2 An individualism-collectivism x masculinity-femininity plot for 50 countries and 3 regions



Country abbreviations: GBR Great Britain, USA United States, THA Thailand

Source from Hofstede (1985), p.355.

In the context of national culture and with respect to OCB in a Thai context, the preceding discussion implies that some dimensions of OCB designated by Organ, such as

altruism and courtesy, may not be seen as OCB by Thais. According to Organ (1988), altruism includes all discretionary behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organisationally relevant task or problem. Thai cultural norms encourage employees to help each other whenever necessary. In Thai traditional society, Thais always construct a psychological bond between someone who renders another person the needed help and favour, and the recipient's remembering of the "goodness" and his ever-readiness to reciprocate the kindness. In creating such networks in the workplace, "*bun khun*" and "*katanyu kathawethi*" assume key roles. Offering assistance or favour to supervisors, peers, or subordinates begins a reciprocal cycle of mutually beneficial acts.

Also, Organ (1988) has proposed courtesy as a dimension of OCB, which is discretionary behaviour by an employee aimed at preventing work-related problems with others occurring, mindful of the effects of one's behaviour on others, not abusing others' rights, and preventing problems with other people. Similarly, courtesy is not likely to be considered OCB by Thais because, as mentioned earlier, Thais try not to interfere with the interests of others and have sensitivity to other persons. Furthermore, another preferred or admired personality trait among Thais is "*maeta*", a feeling of sympathy and understanding for others who are facing difficulties, and a willingness to help out others encountering problems.

Thus in order to carry out research on OCB in the Thai framework it may be necessary to develop new approaches to the measurement of OCB, because concepts of

OCB may differ across cultures.

4.4 Evolution of Higher Education in the UK and Thailand

The preceding section has concentrated on the wider aspects of national culture. Attention is now turned to the more organisationally local aspects of the culture of universities within the British and Thai educational systems. According to the present area of research, this section outlines the historical development of higher education in both UK and Thai universities. This must also include the beliefs and values about education which have affected their development. Education is clearly vital, and more education both at higher levels and on a broader and socially relevant basis is increasingly necessary as society progresses. A good deal of education is, of course, an informal process. People learn about life, and about themselves, throughout their lives. Children learn from parents, from older children and from their own observation and experience. But formal education in literacy, in skills, in the appreciation of culture and in the use of leisure is obviously necessary if learning is to be rapid and integrated, and this has long been recognised. Formal education used to be a voluntary and private concern, but now, although both of these elements are still present, it is primarily a statutory service (Brow & Payne, 1990).

4.4.1 Higher Education in the United Kingdom

Universities are diverse, ranging in size, mission, subject mix, and history. In England, Royal Charters or statutes established the older universities. The Privy Council

(which advises the Queen on the approval of Orders in Council including the granting of royal charters and incorporation of universities) has the power to grant university status to an institution that has the necessary characteristics. Former polytechnics were given the status of universities under the Further and Higher Education Act 1992. These are sometimes called 'new' universities. The existing 'old' universities include many founded in the 1950s and 1960s, whereas the 'civic' universities which were founded by Royal Charter in major cities in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries) and the first colleges of the University of Wales established in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge date from the twelfth and thirteen centuries, and three Scottish universities, St Andrews (1410), Glasgow (1451) and Aberdeen (1494), have existed since the fifteenth century.

Twentieth-Century Development

The last century was certainly a period of university expansion. It saw the development of a federation of provincial colleges, which originated with Owens College, Manchester. This college was given a constitution by Act of Parliament in 1871 and prepared its students for the degrees of London University; Liverpool University College joined Owens College, Manchester, in 1884 to form the federal university of Victoria (Curtis, 1967).

At Birmingham a similar process of development took place; Mason College was found in 1880 and became Birmingham University in 1900, awarding its own degrees. In

1903 the Victoria federation ceased to exist, and the Universities of Manchester, Liverpool and Leeds were born. Sheffield University followed in 1905, and Bristol University in 1909. These universities are usually termed '*older civic universities*', founded to meet the needs of various localities; but, like all true universities, they have developed as national institutions of higher learning open to students from all over the United Kingdom—in fact, from all over the world.

The University of Wales had developed in a way similar to that of the older civic universities, particularly the federated University of Manchester. In 1872 a university college was founded as Aberystwyth; this was followed by a college at Cardiff in 1883, and one at Bangor in 1884. In 1920 the federation was further developed by the addition of the University College of Swansea and a School of Medicine.

In 1926 the University of London Act was passed. This provided a new constitution for the increasing number of teaching bodies which had developed since the end of the nineteenth century. In 1895 the London School of Economics was founded, and the Imperial College of Science joined the University in 1907.

The pattern followed by the '*younger civic universities*' has, until recently, been a preliminary period spent as a university college preparing students externally for London University degrees. After this 'trial period' the college was then granted a charter to award its own degrees. The following universities were developed in this way: Reading (1926), Nottingham (1948), Southampton (1952), Hull (1954), Exeter (1955), and

Leicester (1957). In 1949 the University College of North Staffordshire broke with this traditional form of development by being granted a charter to award its own degrees immediately. It had, however, a period of supervision and sponsorship by three other universities until, in 1962, it became the University of Keele. During the 1960s there was a vast development of the university sector of education; proposed new universities were to receive their charters at their foundation without going through the embryonic stage of being university colleges. The University Grants Committee considered the establishment of about a dozen new universities, which would initially be organised and administered by members of existing universities.

In 1963 the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne was formed from King's College, which had been offshoot of Durham University. During the same year the Royal College of Science and Technology at Glasgow became Strathclyde University; and the Universities of York, and East Anglia at Norwich, received their charters. Kent University at Canterbury, and Warwick University, at Coventry, followed in 1965 and Lancaster University in 1966; Bath University was chartered in 1967 and Brunel at Uxbridge in 1968.

The expansion of higher education in the UK

Higher education is an important contributor to the well-being, interests and prosperity of any country. Likewise, the UK has been acutely aware that higher education has been indispensable in developing the country. This has led to several

expansions of higher education. There were a number of official reports mentioning the necessity for expanding higher education in the UK. The first was the *Percy Report*, published in 1945, which commented on a shortage of trained technologists and of the weakness in their training. Its main recommendation was that colleges of technology which offered full-time courses for degrees should be set up (Morrish, 1970).

A year later *The Barlow Report* (1946) indicated that the well-being and prosperity of the British Commonwealth required an increase in scientific and technological manpower (Simon, 1991). In the next decade, *The White Paper on Technical Education* (1956) proposed a programme to expand technical education particularly within the universities and through the development of colleges of advanced technology. It strongly criticised the backward development of the scientific and technical manpower of the UK as compared with those of the USA, Russia, and Western Europe (Morrish, 1970).

A key educational document, *The Robbins Report*, was issued in 1963 to legitimise a pattern of expansion founded on the double grounds of student demand and the needs of the economy. Those very same grounds provided a rationale for government cutbacks in the 1980s (Miller, 1995). In 1964, 29 polytechnics were founded based on existing technical colleges, with which, over time, many colleges of education merged to form the second half of the *binary system*. It was expected that this sector of higher education would serve the needs of industry, science and commerce (Robinson, 1968).

During the early 1970s, the expansion in British higher education could not make the same changes in reaction to new developments in technology and science that most other industrialised nations did. Inevitably, the country had to confront the energy crisis and pressure from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in the mid-1970s. As a result, the government began a process of cuts in education and other social services. The 1981 cuts in university funding were part of a general process of cuts in public expenditure.

The Education Reform Act of 1988 was a confirmation and crystallisation of the policies that had been developing over the previous decade. The polytechnics and other higher educational institutions were removed from local authority control; further education colleges were given control of their budgets and responsibility for staffing matters; the University Grants Committee (UGC) was replaced by the University Funding Council (UFC); and arrangements were initiated by the appointment of university commissioners to abolish the tenure of academics. These reforms, together with a changed emphasis on the criteria for funding, were central to the changes in policy and structure of higher education.

In 1991 a White Paper was published, entitled '*Higher Education: A New Framework*', the main body of which proposed a series of structural reforms which the government believed would facilitate this expansion. The most important of these was the removal of the '*binary line*' separating universities from polytechnics and other colleges.

In the UK, until the 1992 Act abolished the binary divide, all universities had a Royal Charter and were technically independent private institutions, although in practice largely publicly funded, whereas polytechnics were clearly public bodies administered by local authorities (the London polytechnics were incorporated companies). The polytechnics were all given separate corporate status under *the 1988 Education Reform Act*, and were designated as universities after the *1992 Education Act*. All changed their names on becoming universities, but most have retained a geographical marker. For other polytechnics where there was an established university in the same city, the change of name has been a little more complex (Miller, 1995).

The UK university that is the source of data in this thesis is one of the 'new' universities.

In February 1966 the concept and the possibilities of an open university was discussed in a White Paper under title of '*A University of the Air*'. A year later a Planning Secretary, Sir Peter Venables, was appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science to work out a comprehensive plan for an *Open University*. The committee asserted that the citizens thoroughly deserve educational opportunity because it was a basic individual right of all.

The Open University was arranged for adults and those who need to refresh and update their knowledge, through broadcasting, residential short courses and correspondence courses. Employees in particular professions and occupations should

take courses to make sure that they knew all the most recent facts about their occupational issues.

The Robbins Report had supported the use of correspondence courses, with television as an ancillary; it had also suggested that British universities should experiment with such courses (Corbett, 1973). The Venables Committee saw the Open University as a way of integrating a number of teaching systems, including sound radio and television, correspondence courses, special programme textbooks, group discussions, and part-time face-to-face teaching. The Open University is, by its charter, an independent, autonomous institution in much the same way as all other universities and the Council for National Academic Awards.

4.4.2 Higher Education in Thailand

Traditionally, the Buddhist monasteries offered education in Thailand as the only education of a semi-public nature provided for only a small percentage of the male population (Thongsawang, 1994). Higher education in Thailand as a government function is relatively new.

After ascending the throne in 1868, King Chulalongkorn (Rama V) formulated and implemented the policy of educational modernisation and the consolidation of Thailand's independence. He established centres of higher education as a result of the modernisation and reform shortly afterwards (Ministry of University Affairs, 1995). Education in this period was focused on careers instead of for knowledge. It emphasised

morals and etiquette. Males and females received different education. The palace was a place of study for the noble class (Tanya, 1999).

The evolution of higher education in Thailand can be divided into three periods: the Early Modernisation Period (1889-1913), the Post-Revolution Period (1932-1949), and the Development Planning Period (1950-present).

The Early Modernisation Period (1889-1931)

The medical school, Siriraj Hospital, established in 1889, has been taken as the beginning of higher education in Thailand. The Law Foundation of the Ministry of Justice in 1897, the Royal Page School (later known as the Civil Service College) in 1902, and the Engineering School at Hor Wang in 1913 were established subsequent to the Medical school. These institutions progressed steadily and produced an increasing number of graduates for the government each year as the main institutions of higher learning.

The Civil Service College was declared to become Chulalongkorn University in 1917, and was Thailand's first university. It was founded with four faculties: Medicine, Engineering, Arts and Sciences, and Law and Political Science.

In this period, education was intended for government service (Tanya, 1999). There were significant differences in the education of males and females. Assessments were by memory testing to obtain a certificate. The place of study was different for the noble class and for people in general. Educational policy emphasised morality, etiquette

and careers. Foreign methods were also adopted.

The Post Revolution Period (1932-1949)

A second university, Thammasat University, was established in 1933 to enhance the knowledge and understanding of laws and politics. Its founding was to educate political leaders and civil servants in the principles of democracy, on account of the revolution of 1932 which transformed Thailand into a constitutional monarchy.

In 1943, there were the simultaneous establishments of 3 universities in specific professions, namely the University of Medicine, University of Agriculture and University of Fine Arts. The focus of these institutions was to produce competent personnel in specialised disciplines for government service and administration. There was no difference in the education of males and females. Education for occupation was not acceptable. Education was aimed at literacy rather than morality and etiquette (Tanya, 1999).

The Development Planning Period (1950 onwards)

Thailand started to focus on development planning in 1950, when the National Economic Development Board was established to formulate plans through a series of six and five year economic plans. The first of these, a six-year plan, was launched in 1961. This era saw tremendous expansion and change in Thailand's higher education system. Education was seen as necessity in this period (Tanya, 1999). There was no

discrimination between males and females and learning was focused on academic fields rather than vocational ones. Education was seen as fundamental and the famous institutes were most popular.

The expansion of higher education in Thailand

Within a decade of the first national economic plan, three regional universities, Chiang Mai in the north of the country, Khon Kaen in the northeast and Prince of Songkla in the south were established successively from 1964 to 1967 as part of the education decentralisation programme. Special attention focused on promoting engineering, agriculture, medicine and the natural sciences as the prioritised areas for study, in line with the accelerated economic and social development occurring throughout the country.

Apart from the establishment of regional universities, other important developments occurred in the late 1960s and early 1970s. The National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA) was established as a graduate and undergraduate institution specialising in administrative and national development. The Asian Institute of Technology opened in 1967 as an autonomous international study centre offering graduate courses in physical science and engineering to students from all over Asia.

Other institutes and universities were formed through the amalgamation of existing schools and colleges. In 1971, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology was created through the amalgamation of several technical schools (it has since developed

into three independent institutes), and Srinakharinwirot University was created in 1974-1975 again from the amalgamation of existing institutes. Maejo Institute of Agricultural Technology was upgraded from a college under the Ministry of Education to university status in 1975.

Around this time, private universities and institutions began to appear, thus allowing more of the Kingdom's young to gain tertiary qualifications. The sixth National Higher Education Development plan (1989-1991), which provided government financial support to private tertiary institutions, has encouraged these institutions to further improve standards of education and to increase their education programmes.

In 1990, four more regional universities were established: Burapha University, Naresuan University, Ubon Ratchathani University and Suranaree University of Technology. Then campuses of Srinakharinwirot University in Burapha in the east and Naresuan in the north were elevated to universities in their own right, as was Ubon Ratchathani University which formerly had been part of Khon Kaen University.

Innovations

A significant innovation during the Development Planning Period was the initiation of two open universities (Ministry of University Affairs, 2002). Rankhamhaeng and Sukhothai Thammathirat opened in 1971 and 1979 respectively. These universities provide an effective and economical way of responding to the growing public demand for access to higher education. Both make use of modern technology such as radio and

television to broadcast tutorials to a wider audience and the two universities presently share around sixty per cent of all tertiary enrolments.

The Suranaree University of Technology, founded in 1990, is the first public university in the country to operate independently from the government bureaucracy with its own autonomous administration system and with government financial support in the form of block grants. It is hoped that it will become a model for other public universities seeking to become autonomous in the future. Walailak University, the second of its kind, was set up in Nakhon Si Thammarat and opened its doors in 1997. Another university, Meafaluang University, was established in Chiang Rai in 1999.

Administrative changes over the last two decades have led to more efficiency and coordination between all tertiary institutions in the Kingdom. These culminated in 1972 with the establishment of the Ministry of University Affairs to oversee Thailand's entire tertiary education system.

University Administration in Thailand

- Public Universities

Each public university has its own Act empowering the University Council to function as the governing body. Under the Council is the University President who is responsible for institutional administration. Beneath the President are the various faculties, centres, institutes and interdisciplinary units. The President, as chief administrator, operates universities according to policy laid down by the University

Council, which comprises of the Chairman, President, Deans, Directors of Institutes of the university and other qualified persons not salaried by the university. The Dean's Council and the Faculty Senate are two advisory bodies which may also take part in governing the universities.

- Private Higher Education Institutions

Since 1979, the Ministry of University Affairs has been the coordinating unit mediating between the government and private tertiary institutions. The Office of the Permanent Secretary serves as secretariat to the Private University Committee, which formulates policy.

Each private institution has its own council which is the administrative body responsible for the general functioning of the institution as well as organising its internal administrative structure.

Though the first private College Act was promulgated in 1969, six private colleges were already in existence. They were Bangkok College (which later became Bangkok University), the College of Commerce (later the University of Thai Chamber of Commerce), the College of Business Administration (later Dhurakijpundit University), Krirk College (later Krirk University), Thai Suriya College (later Sripatum University), and Patana College (now defunct). The administrators of these six existing private colleges gathered as a group having the President of each institution take turns to lead the group which met at least once monthly to discuss and exchange views on administrative problems in each institution, remedies to such problems, and ways in dealing with other

organisation involved. In 1976, the group took the name of the Private College Administrators Club of Thailand. A year later it was unanimously agreed among the ten existing member institutions that the Club should become a legal entity bearing the name the Association of Private Colleges of Thailand. In 1979, the name was changed to the Association of Private Higher Education Institutions of Thailand, in order to conform to the Private Higher Education Institution Act of 1979 (Ministry of University Affairs, 1997). This organisation seeks to create greater cooperation between individual institutions as well as between its members and the government.

Tanya (1999) also argues that education in the present, compared with the past, enables people to make more choices in their way of life. Highly educated people are able to get better jobs. Education enables people to survive in society and gives them higher status. Education also plays a vital role in the future. It enables people to broaden their vision. Knowledge of technology and its implementation enhances occupational opportunities. In the traditional view, there were four requisites of life including food, clothing, shelter and medicine. However, education has now become an indispensable part of our lives. Therefore, it is a fifth requisite of life. It is a means to improve society, enhancing not only knowledge and skills but also morals. It enables people to survive in a society of rapid change.

The Thai private universities were chosen to provide the sample for the main study because they are more similar than Thai public universities to the UK new universities that the research examines. In addition, this research does not claim to be fully representative; and it is important to avoid too many differences between the pilot

study sample and that of the main study.

4.5 The Nature of Lecturer's Work

It is generally accepted that there are different roles and responsibilities that a lecturer has have. Each level of education – primary education, secondary education, higher education, and etc– requires diverse roles and responsibilities. That is, the roles of teachers working in primary and secondary schools are dissimilar to that of their counterparts in higher education. This points out the necessity of lecturers' performing various functions for different stages of education. According to Mohanty (2003), the functions of lecturers can be categorised as follows:

4.5.1. Teaching

The lecturers' various time and stage of education notwithstanding, teaching is most primary responsibilities of theirs. A traditional responsibility of the lecturer is to pass on to students the information, knowledge and understanding in a topic appropriate at the stage of their studies. Teaching is both an art and a science and an intricate and complicated process.

The world of knowledge is changing rapidly. There has been a new body of knowledge continually evolving. This is a weighty responsibility for lecturers of higher education to make their efforts to prepare lessons. An actual lecturer cannot just repeat the same content over a number of years. Raza and Fernandes (1987) have pointed out

that teaching at the higher education level is required not only to impart in-depth, up-to-date and relevant knowledge of the subject concerned to the student, but also to develop in him/her critical and analytical abilities as well as the capability to relate knowledge so received to real life situations.

4.5.2. Class Management and Planning of Lessons

With a view to making the teaching activity very effective, it is felt essential that lecturers should know and practice certain skills and techniques of class management, planning of lessons and preparing lecture notes. These are administrative, organisational and management programmes/activities which help teaching programmes to be effective and useful.

Class management contributes a lot to the success of teaching and forms an integral part of the teaching-learning process. The proper management of various resources, disciplines, control, rapport and relations immensely influence the learning outcomes or the teaching objectives.

4.5.3. Evaluation of Students' Performance

Conducting examinations and evaluations is an important function of the lecturer. But it is not meant in the stereotyped, mechanical and traditional manner but as creative, continuous and built-in mechanism in the total teaching-learning process. Students' knowledge can be assessed through recall, recognition, classification, comparison and

discrimination of data, detection of errors, identification of relationship, elaboration and interpretation of facts.

It has been observed by Raza and Fernandes (1987) that evaluation of students' performance is an integral part of education and calls for clear understanding of the education process, intellectual innovativeness of a high order and deep appreciation of students' response.

4.5.4. Research Activities

Research activities of lecturers are of crucial importance not merely for getting promotion or any other financial benefits, but for promoting their professional growth. Research not only helps in acquisition and generation of knowledge but also gives a scientific bent of mind and self-confidence in a particular field. It also helps in accelerating the pace of progress.

Having acquired an adequate degree of proficiency in research work and competence in the areas of his-her special interest and expertise, the lecturer can take up research studies big or small sponsored by various organisations, at the regional, national and international level. It is not always necessary that research studies should be large scale calling for huge funds and sophisticated instrumentation. Small-scale projects of problem-solving solution to the local, regional or even classroom problems may be rather more useful and meaningful. Research is not expected to remain just a theoretical exercise but as a practical tool of improving education. It requires constant and planned

efforts on the part of the faculty members.

4.5.5 Extracurricular Activities

Extracurricular activities are not considered equally useful for students' development, for example, individual placements, study tours, industrial visit and guest speakers. Previously these were considered extracurricular and lecturers excepting a few were not given any responsibility. Due to the effective organisation and management have been given, a large number of deficiencies and constraints as existing today are reducing the desired value of the programme. From own experience, Thai universities do not typically recognised these activities as officially important. However, most courses have such outlines and most course leaders are expected to provide and usage them. There is an expectation that proper attention will be given to the organisation and management of extracurricular activities. The numbers of activities are expected to be as varied as possible to suit the students' needs and capabilities. Lecturers are expected to hold responsible for organisation of these activities according to their interest and experience as far as possible.

4.5.6 Extension Activities

Teaching and research were so far considered only two important functions of the lecturer, particularly at the stage of higher education. Teaching used to be mostly theoretical not directly related with the life, needs and aspirations of the people. But gradually it is being realised that lecturers of higher education cannot do justice to their

role and responsibilities if they are not adequately involved in the day-to-day societal problems. Extension activities have therefore been taken as an important dimension to the lecturers' role and responsibilities. These activities enable the lecturers and students to be involved in the community problems and make teaching as well as research more meaningful and relevant.

As described above, a lecturer has a key role in students' learning. A good lecturer has a number of responsibilities to his/her students, public and society for integrated teaching, problem-based learning, community-based learning and more systematic curriculum planning. Harden and Crosby (2000) have categorised the roles of lecturer as follows:

- The Lecturer

The good lecturer can be defined as a lecturer who helps the student to learn. The traditional role of the lecturer is as one of provider of information in the lecture context. The lecture remains as one of the most widely used instructional methods.

- The Facilitator

The move to a more student-centre view of learning has required a fundamental shift in the role of the lecturer. Lecturer is no longer seen predominantly as a dispenser of information or walking tape recorder, but rather as a facilitator or manager of the students' learning. Consequently, the student-lecturer relationship has highlighted this

change in the role of the lecturer from one of information provider to one of facilitator.

- The Assessor

The assessment of the student's competence is one of the most important tasks facing the lecturer. Most lecturers have something to contribute to the assessment process. Examining does represent a distinct and potentially separate role for the lecturer.

The lecturer increasingly has a responsibility not only to assess the students' learning but also to assess the course and curriculum delivered. Monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of the teaching of courses and curricula is recognised as an integral part of the educational process. Evaluation can also be interpreted as an integral part of the professional role of lecturers, recognising lecturers' own responsibility for monitoring their own performance.

- The Planner

Curriculum planning is an important role for the lecturer. Most postgraduate bodies have education committees charged with the responsibility for planning and implementing the curriculum within their institution. Lecturers employed by the school and members of the postgraduate institution may be expected to make a contribution to curriculum planning. Curriculum planning presents a significant challenge for the lecturer and both time and expertise is required if the job is to be undertaken properly.

- The Role Model

The importance of the lecturer as a role model is well documented. The lecturer is expected to model or exemplify what should be learned. Students learn not from what their lecturers say but from what they do and the knowledge, skills and attitudes they exhibit.

While each of the above roles has been described separately, in reality they are often interconnected and closely related one to another. Indeed a lecturer may take on simultaneously several roles.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed the critical issues the influence of cultural on people in each society or country, including how they think, perceive, act, and feel. Hofstede's concepts have been used to understand various aspects of people's behaviour in each nation. A study of management and behaviour across culture should give attention to sociocultural issues. Likewise, investigations into the concepts of OCB should not ignore cultural issues. Since the sampled population for this research was UK and Thai university faculty members, overviews of the evolution of higher education in the UK and Thailand have been discussed in this chapter. Concepts of educational development, attitudes, and values help in the understanding of different people's behaviour in each society, in order to theorise about OCB. Different perspectives on what OCB might be are discussed in chapters 6 and 7.

Chapter Five

Research Methodology and Methods

“Studying the ordinary, everyday method used by members of society to discover, establish and communicate the facts of social life...”

Seymour and Rooke (1995), p.514

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on discussing the procedural and managerial aspect of collecting data, namely qualitative and quantitative research. Given the background, the chapter begins with the nature of the quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. The differences between the two approaches are further highlighted, as is the complementary nature of the two research methodologies.

5.2 The Areas of Inquiry

The two aims of this research (see chapter 1) are:

- To investigate the incumbents’ perception of their roles in terms of the expectations of others that they deal with personally.

- To make a contribution to producing a measure of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in a Thai setting, which can then be compared with the Western equivalent.

The theoretical framework of the research has been clarified and based around the following areas of inquiry:

- What is the scope of work activities that lecturers have to perform?
- How do they know what duties and responsibilities they have to perform?
- What do they perceive the expectations of others to be?
- What do they think are the things that they do where they are uncertain as to whether they are within or beyond their role?
- What do they think are the things that they do that are beyond their role?

5.3 Research Methodology

Research generally involves an investigation or study which leads to the discovery of facts or knowledge in a systematic way (Jankowicz, 1995). Research disciplines are established by developing a body of knowledge (Fellows & Liu, 1997: 4) and increasing that knowledge (Jankowicz, 1995; Phillips & Pugh, 1994).

5.3.1 Purpose of Research

Because of the variety of research activity, it will be helpful to categorise the different types of research. Research can be classified on the basis of function or purpose. This can provide a better understanding of how the nature of the problem influences the

choice of research method. The nature of the problem will determine whether the research is (1) exploratory research, (2) descriptive research, (3) analytical or explanatory research, or (4) predictive research (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

Exploratory Research

Exploratory research is conducted to clarify ambiguous problems. For example, when the general problems are known, research can be undertaken to gain a better understanding of the dimensions of the problems. The aim of this type of study is to look for patterns, ideas or hypotheses, rather than testing or confirming a hypothesis (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Usually, exploratory research is conducted with the expectation that subsequent research will be required to provide conclusive evidence. It helps to crystallise a problem and identify information needs for future research.

Descriptive Research

The major purpose of descriptive research, as the term implies, is to describe phenomena as they exist. Descriptive research seeks to determine and obtain information on the characteristics of a particular problem or issue (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Unlike exploratory research, descriptive studies are based on some previous understanding of the nature of the research problem.

Analytical or Explanatory Research

Analytical or explanatory research is likely to be conducted after descriptive research, in order to identify potential cause-and-effect relationships between variables (Collis & Hussey, 2003). This type of research seeks not only to identify but also to

control the variables studied in the research, since this allows the critical variables or causal links between the characteristics to be better explained.

Predictive Research

This type of research makes use of a particular set of facts or ideas in order to form an opinion or concept that is considered valid for a different situation on the basis of hypothesised, general relationships. Although it might have a theoretical basis, a predictive study may not describe or explain a process. It is applied at a more operational level as a decision-making aid for predicting future events (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

5.3.2 Philosophy of Research

The philosophy of research determines the range of methods used to develop knowledge (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2000). There are two main research paradigms or philosophies, which can be labelled positivist and phenomenological approaches.

Positivist Approach

Positivism defines the philosophy of both natural science and social science. The essence of the positivist approach is that a social scientist accepts the orthodox scientific view and proceeds to analyse the issue from that standpoint (Collis & Hussey, 2003). There will be an emphasis on a highly structured methodology to facilitate replication (Gill & Johnson, 1997) and quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis. The assumption is that “the researcher is independent of and neither affects nor is affected by the subject of the research” (Remenyi, et al., 1998: 33).

Phenomenological Approach

Since the physical sciences focus on objects but the social sciences concentrate on action and behaviour, there is some doubt about suitability of the positivist approach for the social sciences. Phenomenological approaches have been proposed to understand human behaviour according to the participant's own frame of reference (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Social reality is dependent on human thought, according to this approach. Van Maanen (1983) explained that the research methods used under this approach include an array of interpretative techniques that seek to describe, translate, and come to terms with meaning.

5.3.3 Logic of the Research

The logic of any research is concerned with methods of theory construction. Given the central importance of theory development in any research project, it is desirable to examine the basic methods of theory construction. The major methods of theory construction comprise *deductive* and *inductive approaches*. Collis and Hussey (2003: 15) defined deductive research as “a study in which conceptual and theoretical particular instances are deduced from general inferences.” Deduction is a process whose emphasis is distinctly on conceptual structure and its substantive validity. It is causally related to reality in its formulation but is stated precisely conceptually, then subsequently tested and modified. The approach focuses on conceptual development prior to empirical testing. In contrast to the deductive approach, the inductive approach is characterised by a strictly empirical approach to finding generalisations. Inductive reasoning relies on the repeated observation of reality, then the development of summary statements to explain and

classify what is observed. Saunders et al. (2000) noted that the deductive approach has its origins in research in the natural sciences. Thus, the deductive approach owes more to positivism and, in contrast, the inductive approach to phenomenology.

The two approaches are contrasted in table 5.1

Table 5.1 Major differences between deductive and inductive approach to research

Deductive Emphasis	Inductive Emphasis
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scientific principles • Moving from theory to data • The need to explain causal relationships between variables • The collection of quantitative data • The application of controls to ensure the validity of data • The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition • A highly structured approach • Independence of researcher from what is being researched • The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to event • A close understanding of the research context • The collection of qualitative data • A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses • A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process • Less concern with the need to generalise

Source from Saunders, et al. (2000), p. 91

5.3.4 Process of Research

Generally, the process of research can be represented in two approaches, namely, the quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative approach is also termed the traditional, the positivist, the experimental or the empiricist paradigm, while the qualitative might include the naturalistic, the interpretative approach or the postmodern perspective (Smith, 1983).

Quantitative Research

The quantitative approach was developed from the methods of the natural sciences such as physics and chemistry. Researchers in these fields adopt a rational and positivist approach to uncovering ‘the truth’ about the world, using experiments to test hypotheses about ‘reality’. It is assumed that there was a single objective reality which can be measured reliably and predictably. To study this ‘objective reality,’ it is considered imperative for an investigator to avoid influencing or biasing the results at all costs. These beliefs and assumptions about the way research should be conducted have been adopted by psychologists as well as by other social scientists, as the means by which human behaviour and experience can be investigated (Miller, 1962).

Quantitative methods are associated with the positivist methodology, and the assumption is made that the things scientists are interested in can and should be measured as accurately as possible (Priest, 1996). Indeed, the adequacy and accuracy of scientific measurement instruments is a central focus of concern. This is the sense in which quantitative methods are sometimes argued to be more objective than qualitative ones. The quantitative researchers who have been influenced by positivist philosophy argue that

qualitative research results have less value because they are too subjective (Lee, 1999). Most survey research, various kinds of personality testing and studies are examples of quantitative research that lead to answers to questions such as “how many” (Keynote, 1989).

Quantitative research involves the collection of numerical data in an attempt to answer questions about certain phenomenon (Yin, 1993). Statistical calculations are usually applied to the collected data sample in order to summarise the findings and to enable the researcher to generalise the findings to a wider population from which the sample is drawn (Yin, 1993).

Qualitative Research

Strauss and Corbin (1998: 11) defined qualitative research as “research about persons’ lives, lived experiences, behaviours, emotions and feelings as well as about organisational functioning, social movements, cultural phenomena, and interactions between nations.” Such a qualitative approach may be very appropriate, even necessary, in the beginning stage of developing knowledge about unfamiliar situations (Kirk & Miller, 1986; Spiggle, 1994). Qualitative methods can be used to explore substantive areas about which little is known, or about which much is known in order to gain novel understandings (Stern, 1980).

Qualitative research developed in direct opposition to positivist or quantitative assumptions. At the beginning of the 20th Century, the ‘Chicago School’ initiated anthropological research within a novel paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). These

researchers suggested that human beings could not be studied in the same ways as atoms, gravity and the planets. Instead, the subject matter of the social sciences – behaviour, feelings, emotions, thoughts, values, attitudes – were subjective and ultimately could not be measured or assessed in an objective way. Qualitative researchers also suggested that it was impossible to separate the interrelationships between the investigator and the phenomena being researched (Smith & Heshusius, 1986). While quantitative research attempted to minimise the effects of the researcher to the point where any possible influence on the results could be eliminated, qualitative research developed methodologies, which acknowledged the role of the researcher in the process of investigating social phenomena. To these ends, qualitative research employs methods such as unstructured interviews and participant observation, and is carried out ‘in the field’ rather than under controlled experimental or laboratory conditions (Hogg & Vaughan, 1995).

Qualitative research is used for situations where the phenomenon in question does not lend itself easily to be measured via a quantifiable ‘variable’ (e.g. size, length, amount, or any other quantities). Some scholars do not like the term ‘qualitative’; firstly because it seemingly opposes the quantitative research tradition; and secondly, since it misleads people to relate qualitative research with ‘high quality’ or ‘being excellent’ (Tesch, 1990). They would rather tend to use synonymous terms such as ‘descriptive’, ‘interpretative’, ‘naturalistic’, ‘ethnographic’, or ‘field/case study’ instead of ‘qualitative’. In contrast with ‘hard’ and ‘truly scientific’ quantitative research, qualitative research is often regarded as being ‘soft’, “being associated with social science, interested in ‘mushy’

processes, and dealing with inadequate evidence” (Yin, 1993: 57). The last two, of course, are somewhat unsubstantial as criticism.

Qualitative methods answer such questions as *what, why or how* (Keynote, 1989) and are centrally concerned with the interpretation and analysis of what people do and say, without making heavy use of measurement or numerical analysis as would quantitative methods. Qualitative methods are designed to explore and assess things that cannot easily be summarised numerically by using a set of *ad hoc* procedures to define and analyse its variables, and therefore the study of a small sample of subjects is appropriate. Interviews that use open-ended questions, and descriptive observations of another culture’s rituals are both examples of qualitative research.

Qualitative research proceeds with an open mind, takes all data available into account as systematically as possible, is guided by a carefully chosen research question rather than the impulses of the researcher, and makes a contribution to the development of theory. Consequently, it seems to provide in-depth materials, flexibility, and rigorous work (Miller & Dingwall, 1997).

It is suggested that qualitative research methods can provide rich descriptions of the social world, particularly the meanings attached to action in the language of its participants (Archer & Otley, 1991; Covalski & Dirsmith, 1990). Qualitative methodology ideally makes the researcher feel so close to the phenomena that he/she has little difficulty in formulating hypotheses and theories about the processes in practice (Archer & Otley, 1991).

Comparison between Quantitative and Qualitative Methodology

The quantitative and qualitative traditions are too often oversimplified into research with numbers versus research with no numbers (Miller & Dingwall, 1997). Creswell (1994) articulated five additional distinguishing characteristics of these two traditions.

- The designs of the two kinds of research presume different kinds of realities. Qualitative researchers typically assume that multiple subjectively derived realities can coexist, whereas quantitative researchers typically assume a single objective world.
- The two forms of research presume different roles for the researcher. Qualitative researchers generally assume that they must interact with their studied phenomena, whereas quantitative researchers commonly assume their independence from the variables under study.
- The values of the two camps are presumed to operate differently. Qualitative researchers explicitly act in a value-laden and biased fashion. In contrast, quantitative researchers claim to act in a value-free and unbiased manner.
- The two kinds of research adopt different language styles. Qualitative researchers most often use personalised, informal and context-based language, whereas quantitative researchers most often use impersonal, formal and rule-based text.
- The two use different research processes. Whereas those in the qualitative group tend to apply induction, multivariate and multiple process interactions and context

specific methods, those in the quantitative group tend to apply deduction, limited cause-effect relationships and context-free methods.

It is not yet possible to conclusively answer the question of whether 'quantitative' is better than 'qualitative' research or vice versa. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested that the debate is itself unproductive. The rationale for choosing a particular research strategy is grounded in prior assumptions regarding ontology, human nature and epistemology. In other words, the selection of methodology depends upon which tools are perceived to be appropriate to these beliefs (Allison et al., 1996; Morgan, 1980/83; Tesch, 1990).

Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Methodologies

Many researchers (e.g. Miles & Huberman, 1994; Denzin, 1978; Brewer & Hunter, 1989) advocate a combination of methodologies in social science research. However, combining qualitative and quantitative data within a single research project is contentious. For example, Smith and Heshusius (1986) argue that the qualitative and quantitative approaches are incompatible, due to the different ways in which the two paradigms have developed.

Smith & Heshusius (1986) stress the different meanings of the concept of 'truth' between the two approaches. The quantitative approach assumes that there is a 'real' social world, which can be observed and described objectively. Truth then signifies a direct correspondence between the words used to describe the world and independently existing reality. Whereas in qualitative approaches, different views of the world coexist,

and one individual's view is no more or no less 'true' than anyone else's. Because the two paradigms define truth so differently. Smith and Heshusius suggest that approaches based on them are in principle not compatible.

However, Smith and Heshusius (1986) do not entirely condemn the linkage of qualitative and quantitative methods. They suggest that researchers of a '*realist orientation*' (a term from grounded theory) should be able to utilise methods more usually associated with qualitative enquiry. Likewise, researchers of a '*naturalistic orientation*' may incorporate quantitative methods into their investigations. But there is still no implication that the two paradigms are compatible or complementary, because quantitative research depends on the view that there is a single, objective truth, whereas qualitative researchers accept in multiple, subjective truths. According to Smith and Heshusius (1986), one research project can utilise many different methodologies but ultimately a conclusions can only be drawn according to one perspective. Different methodologies may be integrated, but different meanings of 'truth' cannot be reconciled.

However, Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that co-operation between the different perspectives may be productive. Qualitative data can be used in questionnaire and survey design materials to identify the most important variables. Even more usefully, predictions generated by qualitative studies can be tested quantitatively. Both types of methodology can in fact be used for description, exploration and induction as well as for more specific explanatory, confirmatory and hypothesis-testing purposes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Especially when studying complex phenomena, a combination of different methodologies may be essential (Brewer & Hunter, 1989). The most important

reasons for this revolve around the concept of ‘triangulation’ to overcome the inherent weaknesses of single measurement instruments (Denzin, 1978); which is a problem often encountered within the social sciences.

The term ‘triangulation’ has been proffered by Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, and Sechrest (1966) to describe a strategy of using a variety of research evidence. Triangulation has been defined as “building checks and balances into a design through multiple data collection strategies” (Patton, 1987). Saunders et al. (2000: 99) noted that “triangulation refers to the use of different data collection methods within one study in order to ensure that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you.” It is therefore an ideal approach to address potential problems in constructing validity, since multiple sources of evidence provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon (Yin, 1994). In addition, Fellows and Liu (1997) mentioned that the use of triangulation combines quantitative and qualitative techniques together in one study, which can be very powerful in gaining insights and elaborating on the results, and assists in making inferences and in drawing conclusions. The reasons for this are that triangulation studies employ two or more research techniques; qualitative and quantitative approaches may be employed to reduce or eliminate the disadvantages of each individual approach whilst gaining the advantages of each, and of the combination. Thus a multi-dimensional view of the subject under study is gained through synergy.

Patton (1987: 60) discusses four types of triangulation in data evaluation:

- Data-triangulation: the use of a variety of data sources in a study, for example, interviewing people in different status positions or with different points of view.

- Investigator-triangulation: the use of several different evaluations or researchers.
- Theory-triangulation: the use of multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data.
- Methodological-triangulation: the use of multiple methods to study a single problem or programme, such as interviews, observations, questionnaires, and documents.

Since Organ introduced the concept of OCB in 1988, many studies have been carried out to identify its antecedents, as well as its effects: such as decreasing conflict in organisations (e.g., Smith et al., 1983), increasing productivity (e.g., Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1993), and improving employee morale (e.g., Organ, 1988; George & Bettenhausen, 1990, etc.). The quantitative approach has predominated in these OCB studies. However, according to Morrison's (1994) distinction between the perceptions of employees and supervisors concerning job requirements and role behaviour, any study of role behaviour and OCB needs the fullest possible investigation into employees' role behaviour. As a consequence, a qualitative approach to the research is necessary. Generally, purely quantitative studies are used to measure specific characteristics through structured data collection procedures. Conversely, qualitative studies are usually in-depth investigations of a less structured nature, using a very limited sample. Each technique has its advantages and disadvantages, and so qualitative research is undertaken in conjunction with quantitative investigations in this study. The quantitative approach is used first to measure various attributions and inter-relationships among variables, followed by a qualitative study to enhance the interpretation of the results.

5.4 Research Strategy

Various authors have described many different research strategies (Robson, 1993; Fellow & Liu, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000; etc.). For instance, Robson (1993) listed the three traditional research strategies, which are the experiment, survey and case study. Each method has advantages and disadvantages, and data collected from each method may have different degrees of error, value, validity and reliability.

5.4.1 Experiment

The experiment is the principal natural scientific method for theory testing (Rose & Sullivan, 1996). The principle of experimental lies in the attempt to control all factors that might affect what is being studied, in order to specify the causal relationships involved. Consequently, what is being studied must be capable of being measured. Next, traditionally, two identical groups are selected, one of which is given special treatment (the experimental group) and the other is not (the control group), then any differences between the two groups at the end of the experiment period may be attributed to the difference in treatment. A causal relationship can then be established.

It seems easy to plan experiments which deal with measurable phenomena. In addition, experimental allows conclusions to be drawn about cause and effect if the experimental design is sound, but usually large groups are needed if many variations and ambiguities are to be controlled. Such large-scale experiments are time consuming and expensive. Although experimental tests which require only a few hours can sometimes be very effective, when claiming a causal relationship great care needs to be taken to ensure that all possible causes have been considered (Bell, 1993).

5.4.2 Surveys

The survey method is defined by Zikmund (1997: 192) as “a method of primary data collection based on communication with a representative sample of individuals.” It allows the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way. Based mostly on questionnaires, such data are standardised, allowing easy comparison. However, Saunders et al. (2000) state that the questionnaire is not the only data collection device that belongs to the survey category. In addition, other such devices include structured observation and interviews. Commonly, samples are surveyed through questionnaires or interviews, and surveys vary from highly structured questionnaires to unstructured interviews (Fellows & Liu, 1997).

In surveys, all respondents will be asked the same questions in, as far as possible, the same circumstances. For the wording of question, it is important to conduct a pilot study to ensure that all questions mean the same to all respondents. Surveys can provide answers to the questions ‘*what, where and how*’, but it is not easy to find out ‘*why*’ (Bell, 1993). Surveys can be cross-sectional (information collected at one point in time), or longitudinal (collected over a period of time) and operate on the basis of statistical samples (Creswell, 1994). In addition, Zikmund (1997) believes that surveys provide a quick, inexpensive, efficient and accurate means of assessing information about a population, and they are quite flexible. However, for the given sample size of responses required, particular consideration must be given to question design, response rates and the numbers of responses obtained.

The majority of studies of OCB have involved the survey method (e.g. Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988, Moorman, 1991; etc.).

5.4.3 Case Study

Miller and Dingwall (1997) stated that case study research uses qualitative research methods. Robson (1993: 40) defined case study as “the development of detailed, intensive knowledge about a single case, or a small number of related cases.” It is best suited to the examination of ‘*why, what and how*’ contemporary, real-life phenomena occur, but under conditions where researchers have minimal control (Yin, 1994). The great strength of case study research is that it allows the researcher to concentrate on a specific instance or situation and to identify the various interactive processes at work. Case studies may be carried out to follow up and to put flesh on the bones of a survey. They can precede a survey and be used as a means of identifying key issues which merit further investigation, but the majority of case studies are carried out as free-standing exercises. Observations and interviews are most frequently used in case studies, but no method is excluded (Bell, 1993).

5.4.4 Ethnography

Ethnography is rooted in the inductive approach, originating from the field of anthropology. The purpose is to interpret the social world that research subjects inhabit in terms of the way in which they interpret it. This is obviously a research process that is very time consuming and takes place over an extended time period. The research process needs to be flexible and responsive to change, since the researcher will constantly be developing new patterns of thought about what is being observed (Saunders et al., 2000).

Applying the ethnographical research approach, the researcher becomes part of the group under study and observes subjects' behaviours and statements to gain insights into '*what, how and why*' their patterns of behaviour occur (Fellow & Liu, 1997). Participant and non-participant observation are two types of ethnographic method. Although this strategy can determine cultural factors such as value structures and beliefs, the influence of the researcher on the group and of the existence of the research itself will be difficult to determine. One of the criticisms of this strategy, particularly from positivist researchers, is that the method does not permit generalisable conclusions to be drawn.

5.4.5 Action Research

Fellows and Liu (1997) explain that action research involves the active participation of the researcher in the process under study, in order to identify, promote and evaluate problems and potential solutions. Moreover, action research is designed to suggest and test solutions to particular problems, and therefore it falls within the applied research category. However, Marsick and Watkins (1997) note that action research differs from other forms of applied research because of its explicit focus on action, in particular promoting change within the organisation. Action research can develop ways of learning about an organisation or social system through attempting to change it. It can also reap the benefits of learning and enhancing research and managerial skills and developing an understanding of organisational culture and undertaking a socialisation process. However, it may be time consuming and has limited internal validity. The possible loss of control of extraneous variables indicates the main weakness of action research (Gill & Johnson, 1991).

Selecting a strategy for OCB research

The research reported in this thesis intends to investigate the natural setting of people in their work setting and how people see their role in the workplace. It was clearly inappropriate to employ an experimental strategy because this research does not create the role demand. This research also does not try to bring about change in the behaviour of subjects in terms of encouraging respondents to perform more OCB. With this in mind, action research is also not an appropriate research strategy. There may be a place for an ethnographic study, but it is probably not a particularly appropriate method for this inquiry — which involves asking people to talk about their roles rather than observing what they do; because such observation would not directly reveal what they think. The survey method clearly could be appropriate because it could measure self-perceptions and allows the generalisation of OCB results; and also represents the strategy adopted in most previous work in this area. Moreover, this research could employ the case study method to support generalisation to some extent.

5.5 Methods Used in this Research

The literature review has shown that research on organisational citizenship has been carried out mostly by adopting a quantitative research approach (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988, Moorman, 1991; etc.). This approach clearly produces some useful results, but it cannot provide more in-depth understanding of the concepts of organisational citizenship behaviour. As noted above, to provide valuable contextual information, qualitative approaches are very appropriate, even necessary, in the beginning

stage of developing knowledge about unfamiliar situations (Kirk & Miller, 1986; Spiggle, 1994).

The literature review has also revealed that the great majority of research on OCB has been conducted in Western contexts. While the concepts of OCB may be universal, it cannot automatically be assumed that they will apply in exactly the same way in an Asian context. Essentially, the approaches recommended by many cross-cultural researchers (e.g., Maholtra & Peterson, 2001; Maholtra, Agawal, & Peterson, 1996): start with “etic” (i.e. “universal”) concepts (and measures), but then their relevance must be confirmed through in-depth understanding within the specific culture in which they will be used (“emic”). The in-depth understandings of how people in a culture view a concept, according to Maholtra, Agarwal, & Peterson (1996), must come from qualitative research methods. In the current research, this is achieved via interviews.

After this stage, the research return to more quantitative approaches, and questionnaires and pictorial representations have been employed as measurement tools to support the research. These two further instruments involve similar questions to the interview questions, and are intended to allow the research to gain more information. The use of these different instruments is intended to offer a form of triangulation.

Initial instruments and modifications to the instruments

With regards to role-set theory, tentative questions were prepared for the interview to seek information about role senders, the focal person, and the expectation of the focal person from the various role senders. A revision of the questions developed was

performed several times to obtain accurate data for the study. For example, the question: “Have you ever seen your job description?” was omitted from the set of questions for interviews because, on application, the question appeared not to be relevant to the research. Another question: “How did you achieve your position in the university?” has also been omitted, because answers simply revealed the history of the respondents, which was of no benefit to the research. However, some questions were added over the course of these pilot interviews, including: “What did you do mainly on a typical day?” “Can you give me an example of when you think you do something beyond your normal role?” and “Have you done something helpful to your colleagues?”, since these potentially relate to perceptions of what may be in-role or extra-role behaviour. The theoretical framework of the research was based around five areas of inquiry:

- What is the scope of work activities a lecturer has to perform?
- How do they know what duties and responsibilities they have to perform?
- What do they perceive to be the expectations of others?
- What do they think are the things that they do and where are they uncertain as to whether they are within or beyond their role?
- What do they think are the things that they do that are beyond their role?

Three instruments were used for collecting data:

1. Semi-structured interview (Appendix A1 and A2)

Before their interview, participants were contacted personally about this research project. Interviews with all participants used as an instrument were recorded on

audiocassette with the participants' permission, consisting of a range of questions covering the five key areas above.

During the interviews, the concept of role was explained to interviewees. They were also shown the interview questions so as to help them understand their content. The interview questions were developed from Merton's role-set theory (1957) focusing on role-playing that results from role expectations. The content of the interviews consisted of four parts:

Part 1 — Questions in this part concerned the general background of the respondent, e.g. age, years of tenure, highest academic qualification and job title in the university. These interview questions appear as questions 1-4.

Part 2 — Duties and responsibilities of the interviewees were examined so as to explain the scope and set of tasks each interviewee had to perform. The questions were also concerned with how each subject knew about their own appointed tasks, lines of authority, and responsibility for decisions. The final question in this area investigated the participants' attitudes toward work achievement. These interview questions appear as questions 5-7.

Part 3 — The participants were asked to identify key people in the university as their role senders and to express their opinions in response to the expectations of their role senders. These interview questions appear as questions 8-13.

Part 4 — In this part, the participants were asked to express a set of their tasks in terms of in-role and extra-role behaviour. The boundary between in-role behaviour and

extra-role behaviour, as well as the participants' opinions on performing extra-role behaviour, were explored in detail. To do this, the questions concentrated on the details of the tasks a participant performs each day, including playing roles beyond regular duties. Within this part of the interview, the terms in-role and extra-role were not used explicitly by the interviewer, so that bias would not be introduced into the responses, but instead the genuine self-perceptions of roles were captured. These interview questions appear as questions 14-20.

Purpose of interview questions

After developing the theoretical framework, the interview questions were designed to obtain “accurate” answers from respondents. The purpose of each question is as follows:

1. How old are you?

To elicit personal data from a respondent.

2. How many years have you been employed by this university?

To elicit personal data from a respondent.

3. What is your highest academic qualification?

To elicit personal data from a respondent.

4. What is your job title in the university?

The job title refers to the position in an organisation an occupant holds. This question was included to examine the expected behaviour patterns attributed to a particular position in a university or “role” according to the role concept.

5. What are your responsibilities within the university?

Holding a position in the university involves designated obligations or responsibilities, meaning the duty to perform tasks or activities that a lecturer has been assigned. This question sought each lecturer’s duties and responsibilities of office.

6. How do you know what your responsibilities are?

To enquire about the sources of data on respondents’ duties and responsibilities.

7. What do you have to do within these responsibilities?

Normally, each position has certain activities that are expected in a formal organisation. These activities constitute the role for that position. An organisation also develops job descriptions that define the activities of each particular position. However, both formal structure (job description, supervisor, etc.) and informal structure (peers, subordinates, friends in other departments, etc.) informs the occupant what tasks or activities he /she has to do. This question was intended to investigate this matter.

8. As a member of the university, could you tell me who the key people are?

This question requested each respondent to provide viewpoints on his/her key people.

9. Which of those people have a greater influence on your work?

This question looked for who the more important role senders were for a particular lecturer (focal person) because they had some real influence over the lecturer's behaviour. That is, verbal and behavioural messages may be sent to the lecturer to pressure him or her into behaving as expected.

10. Are there any persons / organisations who monitor your performance?

This question aims to discover if lecturers' activities and behaviours are monitored to determine whether or not the university is on target toward achieving its goals and making corrections as necessary. Since role senders and the university cognitively evaluate the lecturer's actual behaviour against those expectations, this question was developed according to role-set theory to enquire how the lecturer (focal person)'s behaviour and performance was influenced to move toward the university's goals and the role senders' expectations.

11. What do these people expect from you?

This question is indispensable for the research using role-set theory as a theoretical framework, because a role implies that behaviour is oriented to certain patterned expectations of others. This master examined the role-set members' expectations about what a lecturer should be doing in the position.

12. Do you think these people's expectations are reasonable?

According to role-set theory, after role senders' expectations are communicated to a lecturer (a focal person), they cause the lecturer (focal person) to perceive their expectations about the role. He/she may then decide to act upon the role in terms of

actual role-related behaviour. The question sought to investigate the part of the process concerning the lecturers' perceptions of the expected role. In addition, it enquired into the lecturer (focal person)'s evaluation of the role-senders' expectations.

13. What do you, in turn, expect of your key people?

This question asks about a respondent's expectations of role-senders. These expectations are reflections of the focal person's attitude towards his/her role-senders.

14. Could you tell me what you do on a typical day?

This question aims to obtain data on a respondent's daily job. This question is similar to question number 5, but it gives expression to a respondent's actual performance beyond or below job requirements.

15. What did you do mainly on last..(day)..?

This question aims to collect detailed data and ask each respondent to specify jobs/tasks he/she has done within the latest week, according to his/her recall.

16. Have you met your key people on that day?

This question seeks to learn whether a respondent meets his/her role-senders' expectations because they play an important role in sending expectations to the focal person.

17. Do you think what you did on last..(day)..

17.1 Which of the expectations did you intend to meet?

This is a supplement to the question number 15. This question seeks a respondent's attitude toward his/her performance and behaviour. It leads each respondent to consider whether his/her performance achieves goals or meets expectations. Also, it gives expression to the respondent's expectations.

17.2 Which of the expectations did you perhaps not meet?

This asks a respondent to view his/her performance as not living up to expectations.

17.3 Which expectations did you exceed?

Here a respondent may regard some of his/her performance as above expectations.

18. Can you give me examples of when you think you do something beyond requirements?

This seeks each participant's view on whether or not his/her behaviours represent OCB.

19. Why did you do this?

This seeks the reasons why he/she performs behaviour beyond regular duty and considers whether these behaviours are OCB. For example, one respondent explained that he was willing to hold a class during holidays. However, this is not OCB because he gets paid.

20. Would you like to add anything else?

This welcomes any respondents' additional opinions or points of view about the research apart from the above questions.

2. Questionnaire (Checklist) (Appendix A3, A4, and A5)

To support their interviews, all participants were asked to complete an additional short questionnaire on their own. This was essentially a supporting checklist, covering aspects of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) adapted from the work of many OCB researchers such as Bateman and Organ (1983), Smith et al. (1983), Puffer (1987), Skarlicki and Latham (1996) and Farh et al. (1997). With regard to this checklist, the participants were not informed that the questionnaire was about extra-role behaviour, just that they were requested to consider various types of action they perform each day.

Table 5.2: Dimensions of OCB and sources of each item in the questionnaire

Item	Question	Dimension of OCB	Sources
1	Help his/her colleagues to perform their job better	Altruism	Bateman & Organ, 1983
2	Co-operate well with those around him/her	Altruism	Bateman & Organ, 1983
3	Make positive statements about the department	Civic virtue	Bateman & Organ, 1983
4	Protect university property	Courtesy	Bateman & Organ, 1983; Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997
5	Help others who have been absent	Altruism	Smith et al., 1983; Puffer, 1987
6	Help others who have heavy workloads	Altruism	Smith et al., 1983
7	Give advance notice if unable to come to work	Courtesy	Smith et al., 1983
8	Does not take unnecessary time off work	Conscientiousness	Smith et al., 1983; Puffer, 1987
9	Assist supervisor with his or her work	Altruism	Smith et al., 1983
10	Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job	Conscientiousness	Smith et al., 1983; Puffer, 1987
11	Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed	Conscientiousness	Puffer, 1987
12	Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university	Civic virtue	Smith et al., 1983; Puffer, 1987
13	Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image	Civic virtue	Smith et al., 1983; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996
14	Assist others with their duties	Altruism	Skarlicki & Latham, 1996
15	Attend school meetings actively	Civic virtue	Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997
16	Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems	Altruism	Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997
17	Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings	Civic virtue	Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997
18	Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced	Conscientiousness	Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997
19	Often arrive early and start working immediately	Conscientiousness	Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997
20	Come to work more often than most of the people	Conscientiousness	Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997

Table 5.2 shows how the questions in the questionnaire have been adapted from previous OCB research, and also indicates the dimensions of OCB relevant to each item. For example, item number 12 — “Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university” — was come from “Makes innovative suggestions to improve department.” Another instance is item number 17 — “Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings” — which was adapted from

“Eager to tell outsiders good news about the company and clarify their misunderstandings.” So, the items were changed to reflect the present context.

3. Pictorial representation (Appendix A 6 and A 7)

According to role-set theory, a focal person or role occupant is expected to act out a role. Role senders are those people whose expectations help to define the role. An instrument was designed with the purpose of identifying the focal person’s perception of their role senders and the level of interaction that they had with each of the role senders. To measure this, a picture board and a set of coloured pins (to identify individual role senders) were used at the end of the interview. These pins were located by each focal person on two boards on which were drawn a number of concentric circles. On one board, the distance from the centre indicated different *frequencies of contact* between the role senders and the focal person (see Figure 5.1.1). On a second board, distance represented the *strength of influence* of the role senders (see Figure 5.1.2).

Figure 5.1.1: The first pictorial representation board

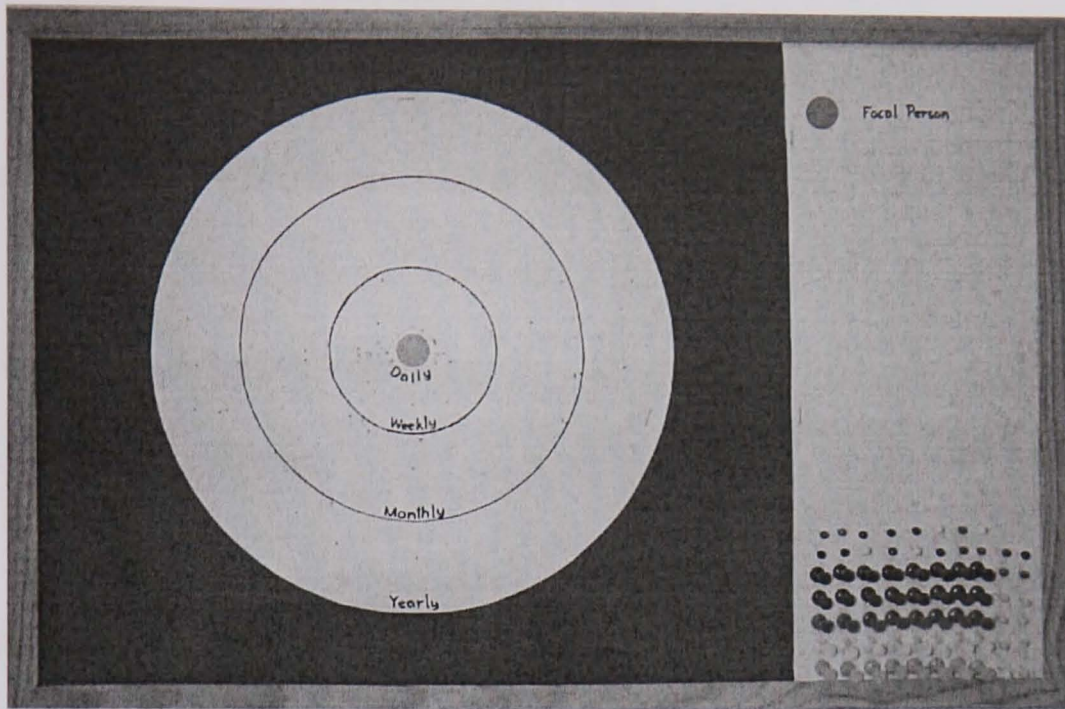
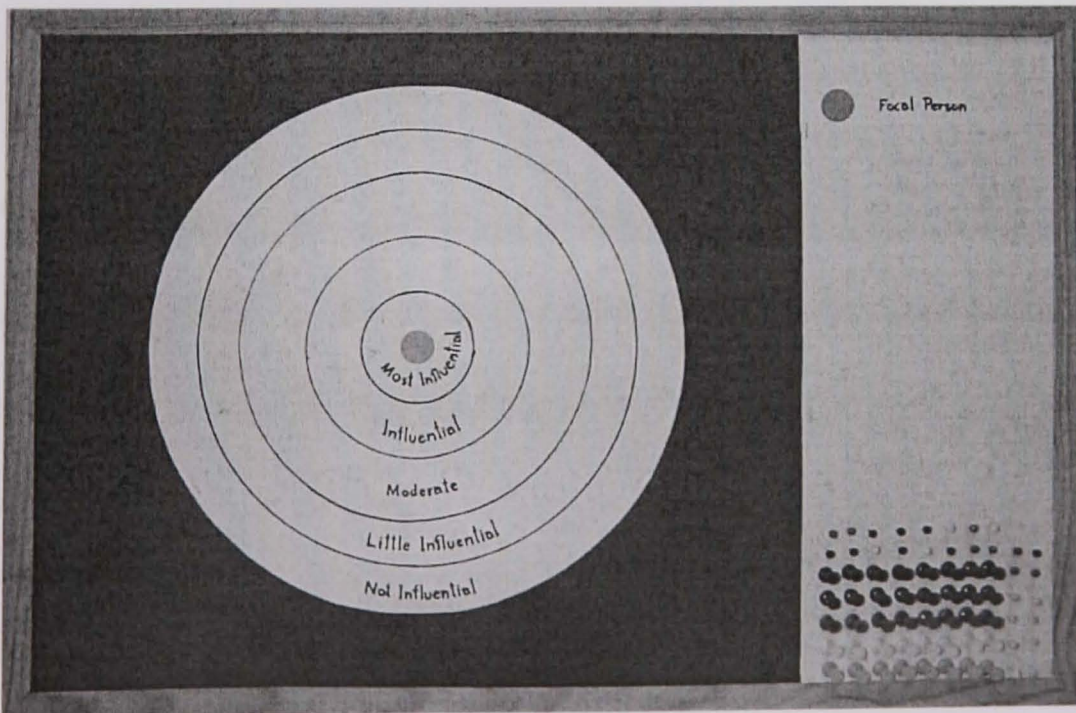


Figure 5.1.2: The second pictorial representation board



The instruments were developed in order to gather data from respondents, such as their perception of that role, how they learn to perform their role, who are their key people, and what level of influence they perceive from their key people (role sender). Past research has used questionnaires (e.g. Smith, et al., 1983; Organ, 1988; Moorman, 1991), but on evaluation these often seem not to provide any significant volume of rich data specific to their role. Therefore this measurement tool had the potential to add great value to the data collected.

5.6 Collecting Data

This research is comprised of two studies – a pilot study and the subsequent main study. It used data collected from both UK and Thai universities. The data for the pilot study came from a number of northern UK university lecturers. The data for the main study came from lecturers and their supervisors from Thai universities.

5.6.1 Pilot Study

The pilot study was carried out to test the quality and practicability of the research instruments in relation to the work of university lecturers. The purpose of testing these participants was to ensure that all procedures used are workable (Kiess & Bloomquist, 1985).

Participants and procedures

The pilot study was conducted in a northern UK University. Lecturers employed within the business school at the university constituted the participants. The respondents

consisted of 14 members of academic staff. Five respondents were principal lecturers and 9 respondents were either senior lecturer or lecturer. Two of the sample held the position of Divisional Leader, two of the samples were research coordinators and a small number of the sample had course leadership responsibility. The sample consisted of 10 men (71%) and 4 women (29%) ranging in age from 30 to 54 years. The role of this group was to act as a pilot study for a larger scale survey to be undertaken as the basis of a main study. Table 5.3 shows the personal data gained.

Table 5.3: Demographic data of the respondents in the pilot study

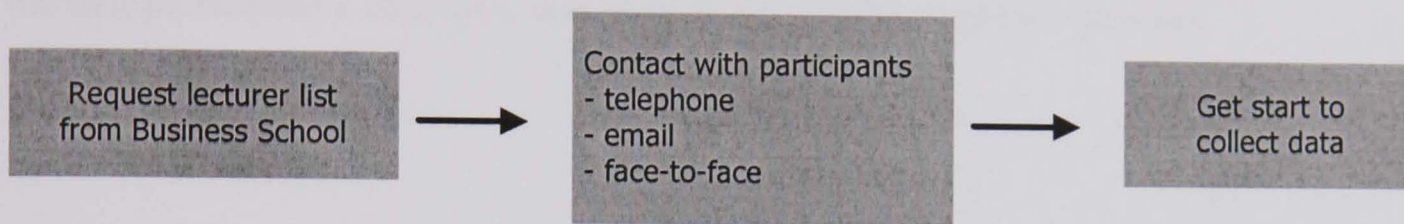
Participant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sex	F	M	M	M	M	M	M
Age	30	35	40s	50	51	40	32
Highest Academic Qualification	Master	Master	Master	Master	Master	Master	Master
Year of Tenure	1.5	9	11	20	14	9	4
Job Title	Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	Principal Lecturer	Principal Lecturer	Principal Lecturer	Principal Lecturer	Senior Lecturer
Admin Position	Unit Leader	Programme Director	Research Coordinator	Divisional Leader	Research Coordinator	Programme Director	-
School	Sport Mgt	OA & HRM	Stg & Int Bus	Acc & Fin Mgt	OA & HRM	Stg & Int Bus	OA & HRM

Continued

Participant	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Sex	M	M	M	F	F	F	M
Age	39	54	41	41	34	40	54
Highest Academic Qualification	PhD	Post Graduate Certificate	Master	Master	Master	Master	Master
Year of Tenure	1	30	7	6	8.5	8	8
Job Title	Senior Lecturer	Principal Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	Senior Lecturer
Admin Position	-	Divisional Leader	Course Leader	Course Leader	-	Course Leader	-
School	Stg & Int Bus	OA & HRM	OA & HRM	OA & HRM	OA & HRM	OA & HRM	OA & HRM

Data collection data was divided into two phases, the first phase from January to May 2001, and the second phase of gathering supplementary data, from November to December 2001. The procedures for collecting data are shown in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Procedures in Pilot study



The researcher requested a list of lecturers' names from the Business School, and approached them as subjects for participation in the study. Contact with participants was made through telephone, email, or face-to-face at their offices in order to make an appointment with each participant for interview and to complete the questionnaire. At the time of the interview with each participant, the researcher arrived early at the participant's office or an agreed rendezvous. The respondents were informed of the purposes of the study, and the kinds of interview questions to be asked. After finishing the interview, subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire, and then, to perform the pictorial representations to examine the various relationships between the participants and their role senders. These fourteen respondents were used primarily to facilitate the development of the measurement tools, and as such, a degree of fine-tuning and adaptation took place over the course of their participation. However, the interim results, including the range of responses and types of perceptions identified, are also of interest in

themselves. In order to ensure the consistency of any results cited and discussed, follow-up interviews took place with certain respondents as required (see Table 5.3).

All participants except one (the first participant) came from the same faculty, because this research did not intend to make a comparison of lecturers' different perceptions of role behaviour in different faculties (see Table 5.3). Therefore, data from the first participant's interview was included in the data analysis process.

5.6.2 Main study

Participants and procedures

This study was conducted in four private universities in Bangkok, Thailand. Results from the pilot study suggested that the research should collect data not only from all employees and workers, but also from the members of the role set in order to obtain the most valid and reliable research results possible. Therefore, the participants in the main study included lecturers and their direct supervisors who were Heads of Department. A total of 29 lecturers and 9 supervisors participated in the study. The participants were from five departments of Business School, namely, Department of Management, Financial Management, Human Resource Management, Marketing Management, and Industrial Management.

The sample of lecturers comprised of 22 females (76%) and 7 males (24%). The age and tenure range of subordinates (lecturers) were 26-53 years and 1-19 years respectively. Of these 29 lecturers, 27 held a masters level degree and two held a doctorate (see Table 5.4.1).

Table 5.4.1: Demographic data of the respondents in the main study
(subordinates)

Participant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sex	M	F	M	F	M	F	F	F	F	F
Age	27	26	36	30	31	32	32	31	48	28
Highest Academic Qualification	MBA	MBA	DBA	MBA	MPA	MBA	MBA	MA	MA	MBA
Year of Tenure	2	1	13	2.5	6	2.5	3.5	2	7	3
Job Title	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec
School	Fin1	Mkt1	Fin1	Fin1	Hrm1	Fin1	Mkt1	Mgt1	Hrm1	Mkt1
University	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	1	1

Continued

Participant	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Sex	M	F	M	F	F	F	F	F	M	F
Age	32	27	36	34	31	30	35	39	33	53
Highest Academic Qualification	MBA	MS	MBA	MBA	MBA	MBA	MBA	MIS	MBA	MA
Year of Tenure	2	3	3	2	3	3	3.5	3	3	2
Job Title	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec
School	InMgt1	Hrm1	Mkt1	Mkt1	Mgt1	Fin1	Fin1	InMgt1	InMgt1	Mgt1
University	4	1	1	1	4	1	1	4	4	4

Continued

Participant	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
Sex	M	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Age	52	35	29	35	48	37	43	43	35
Highest Academic Qualification	MBA	MBA	DBA	MBA	MA	MA	MBA	MS	MBA
Year of Tenure	19	5	1.5	11	17	8	11	4	1
Job Title	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec	Lec
School	Mgt2	Mgt2	Fin2	Fin2	Hrm2	Hrm2	Mkt2	Mkt2	Mkt2
University	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2

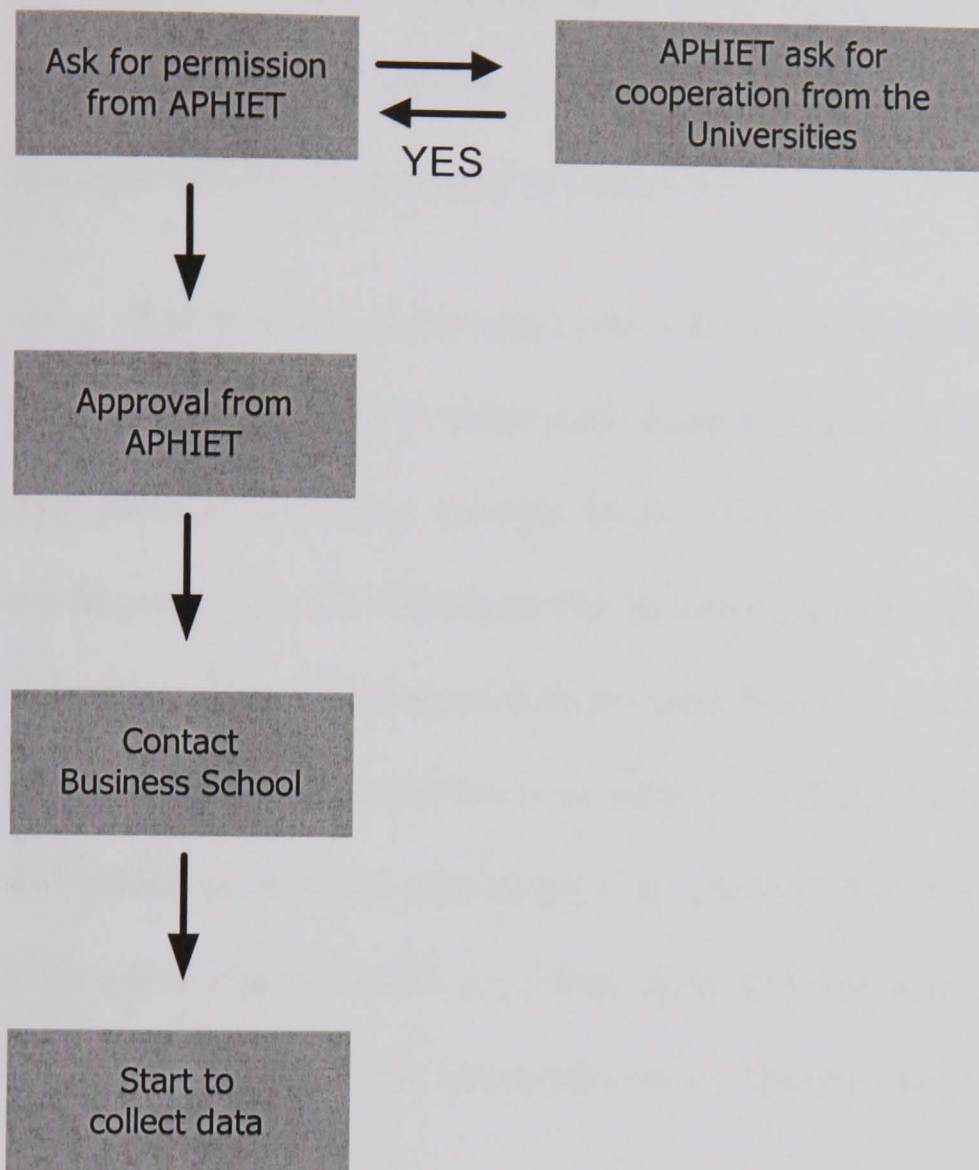
The supervisors consisted of 5 females and 4 males. The supervisors' age and years with the university ranged from 31 to 56 and 1 to 30 years respectively (see Table 5.4.2). Two-thirds of the respondents (6 respondents) held a masters degree, and one third (3 respondents) had a doctoral degree (see Table 5.4.2).

Table 5.4.2: Demographic data of the respondents in the Main Study
(supervisors)

Participant	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38
Sex	F	M	F	F	F	M	F	M	M
Age	33	33	39	41	34	53	31	38	56
Highest Academic Qualification	DBA	DBA	MBA	MBA	MPA	EdD	MBA	MBA	MBA
Year of Tenure	11	1	9	18	6	30	5	5	5
Job Title	Head	Head	Head	Head	Head	Head	Head	Head	Head
School	Fin1	Fin2	Mkt1	Mkt2	Hrm1	Hrm2	Mgt1	Mgt2	InMgt1
University	1	3	1	2	1	2	4	3	4

Data collection was conducted from September to December 2002. The procedures for collecting the data are summarised in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: Procedures in Main study



Each Thai private university is a member of the Association of Private Higher Education Institutions of Thailand (APHEIT). Under an agreement with members of APHEIT, if anyone wants to do research involving selecting the universities as a sample, he/she has to obtain permission from APHEIT first. The researcher initially asked permission from APHEIT to undertake this research. APHEIT sent a letter of cooperation in order to ask for the universities' participation in the research, which subsequently proved to be successful (Appendix B3).

When the four universities agreed to let researcher collect data, they sent letters of approval to APHEIT. At the same time, the university assigned its Department of Research and Development to take care of the researcher by cooperating with the Business Schools in arranging the interviews.

The majority of the interviews took place in departmental staff rooms. However, due to interruptions from other staff requiring resources from this room, some interviews took place in an empty meeting room. The interviewer explained that the study was investigating the role behaviour that lecturers perform, what they expect others to do, and vice versa. It was explained that the interview was going to be recorded because it was not possible for the interviewer to write everything down. However, the tape-recorder was placed close to the participant who was told that they could switch it off at any time if they felt uncomfortable, or if they wished to say something but not have it recorded. All participants were also encouraged to ask the interviewer any questions that they had.

The instruments used to gather data in this main study were the same as those used and developed during the pilot study. The value of having the three instruments of interview, questionnaire, and pictorial representation is that they all help to make the results more robust. In terms of triangulation, this research covers three of Puttun's (1987) types of data, theory and methodological triangulation, as discussed earlier in this chapter. The data collection methods involved in the empirical study represented data and methodological triangulation. The data from the perspectives of both employees and supervisors used to examine the research questions represented theory triangulation. However, as mentioned earlier in this section, the main study was extended to collect

more data from the participants' supervisors, in order to compare their views of roles with those of their subordinates. So, the instruments for gathering data were changed with a number of additional questions added which are described below.

Interview questions: Supervisors were asked two questions in order to discover how they perceive their subordinates' role. These are:

- In the role of (his/her subordinate's name), what do you see as being the central feature of his/her role within the organisation?
- Could you tell me, according to your point of view, what (his/her subordinate's name) has done beyond the expectations of his/her role?

Questionnaire: One main question on the questionnaire was slightly changed to read. The full questionnaire can be seen in Appendix A5.

- For (his/her subordinate's name), what do you think these following behaviours you see, they have been whether either central of his/her job or beyond his/her job?

Pictorial representation: The main questions here were also slightly changed as follows:

- From your point of view, who influences (his/her subordinate's name) work role?
- To what extent do these people influence (his/her subordinate's name) work?

Translation of the instruments from English into Thai was needed because the research was conducted in Thailand. To ensure that these translations were absolutely

accurate and meaningful, the translated documents were checked by a linguist with knowledge of Organisational Behaviour to verify and certify them (Appendix B1).

5.7 Data Analysis

NUDI*ST, a software package for analysing qualitative data, was initially considered for the analysis of the data from interviews. However, both technical and conceptual problems were identified which suggested that its use may be inappropriate. The main part of this study examined behaviour in the Thai context, and NUDI*ST was not yet available in the Thai language. Therefore, the software could not be used because of the obvious problems of loose translation, loose emphasis, loose sequencing and consequently poor quality and unreliable results (Appendix B9). In short, if the narratives from the interviews were in Thai and were translated, it is unclear whether any systematic context analysis performed using such software would be analysing the translation rather than the original transcripts. This would be potentially result in identifying too great a similarity between respondents, based on converging translations rather than necessarily on any similarity of actual responses.

5.7.1 Method of Analysis of Interview Data

Data Preparation: All data collected from interviews was recorded on audiotape and typed in order to file a permanent record. After that, the transcripts were sent back to the interviewees to correct in accuracies.

Coding the data: The researcher had already determined the concepts used in this research and the foundations of the study. The researcher then determined draft topics

called ‘thinking units’ (a first attempt to categorise the data) (Lofland, 1971). Afterwards, the researcher adjusted each of these ‘thinking units’ to relate to each other, and the thinking units were then classified into categories — each category being adjusted to the interview questions.

Extracting the data: In this stage of data analysis, any interview data that matched the categories derived was highlighted and collected together. If any interviewee did not mention or provide clear enough data then the next person’s transcript was examined. After this was completed for each respondent, the process was repeated for all interview sections. This systematic procedure prevented confusion and allowed concentration on data in each category.

During the investigation of each highlighted topic, if any interesting issue arose in the data this was set as a sub-category. After completing all of these steps, it was possible to decide whether or not each category was correlated. Any categories could be added, changed, or eliminated if necessary.

Conclusion: Any of highlighted categories will be compiled for drawing the overall analytical conclusion.

5.7.2 Method of Analysis of Questionnaire Data

Data Preparation: After interview, each participant was asked to complete a 20-item questionnaire is made up of two parts:

- Which of the following do you perform in your day-to-day work?

- Do you think the following items are within or beyond the boundaries of your duties?

The subjects were both employee (actors) and their supervisors who were also asked to comment on their subordinates' behaviour. All data from the questionnaire were collected and presented in tabular form to be ready for analysis. The symbol "A" is used to signify subordinates' responses and "B" for supervisors' responses. Some items were rated for both in-role and extra-role behaviour. There were no missing data from the questionnaires.

Coding: All data was recorded using numerical codes, which enabled rapid data entry and helped to reduce error. Data checking was performed to eliminate any illegitimate codes. While this was very time consuming, it was important in order to reduce the danger of incorrect data leading to incorrect results.

Analysis and interpretation: After the coding process the data were entered into SPSS for analysis, showing frequency of responses to each item as well as showing the following:

- overall frequency of subordinates' and supervisors' responses.
- subordinates' and supervisors' responses to each item rated as in-role behaviour.
- subordinates' and supervisors' responses to each item rated as extra-role behaviours.

The results of the analysis and their interpretation and conclusion drawn will appear later in the thesis.

5.7.3 Method of Analysis of Pictorial Representation Data

Data Preparation: After the interview and questionnaire, each participant was asked to identify the role senders with whom he/she interacted, which were listed on the first board. The second board showed each role sender's importance to the participant (focal person). Each coloured pin on each board represented a role sender, and on completion the boards were photographed for analysis.

Coding the data: All the data from the pictorial representations were collected and presented in tabular form. Since the participants were from four Thai universities, the official titles of the respondents' jobs and their organisational structure differed from one university to another. For example, some universities use Assistant Dean for Academic Affairs and Assistant Dean for Student Affairs while others use Associate Dean. For convenience of interpretation, classification and recording of data, the term 'Deputy Dean' was used to represent those roles.

Moreover, the posts of President, Vice President for Academic Affairs and Vice President for Administration were merged into the term 'Member of Executives' for data analysis.

SPSS was used for the analysis of the frequency of interactions. Processing the data by computer needed coding, and therefore the codes 1, 2, 3 and 4 were given to the respective daily, weekly, monthly and yearly categories. In the same way, categories of

the intensity of interaction were coded as 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 for no influence, little, moderate, more influence, and most influence, respectively.

Analysis and interpretation: After assigning numerical symbols permitting the transfer of data from responses to computer-coding, the number and percentage of responses to each role sender were shown as well as a role sender's influence over a participant's job. Furthermore, the analysis of relationships between frequency and intensity of interaction was conducted using cross-tabulation.

5.8 Ethical Issues in this Research

Silverman (2003: 271) stated that "Ethical procedures can also be clarified by consulting the ethical guidelines of one's professional association." This research has followed the ethical guidelines set out by the *British Psychological Society* so as not to overlook the rights, liberties and safety of the participants.

The subjects in this study were entirely voluntary. Before conducting the interviews, the researcher contacted either the participant directly or via their organisations (university or institution) to solicit their participation in the study (Appendices B2 - B8). The participants were informed about the purpose of the study and the process of data collection. They were guaranteed complete confidentiality.

Each interview was recorded with the participants' permission. The tape recorder was placed close to the participant, and he/she could switch it off at any time whenever he/she felt uncomfortable or wished to say something without being recording.

Each recorded interview was transcribed and sent back to the interviewee to check for any mistakes. Any data in the transcripts could be deleted or changed if the interviewee felt uncomfortable with it. In addition, the participants' personal data were kept confidential. All data from the participants will only be used in this research.

5.9 Summary

The purpose of quantitative research is to determine the quantity or extent of some phenomenon in the form of numbers. Conversely, the focus of qualitative research is not on number but on meaningful characterisations, interpretations, expressive descriptions and behaviours. Any source of information may be informally investigated to clarify which qualities or characteristics are associated with the situation or issue under study. The focus of this chapter starts with explanation of quantitative and qualitative research in terms of its nature, as well as its advantages and disadvantages.

Then the methods used in this study have been explained. This research has surveyed people's perceptions and understandings of their roles. The work has used a deductive approach associated with positivism, which takes account of how actors interpret situations. The case study method was also used in this study to generalise some issue about this study. Furthermore, this study adopted triangulation methods to enhance the interpretation of the survey results.

Three methods, including interviews, questionnaires and pictorial representations were employed in this study. Face to face interviews were used, whose greatest value lies in the depth and detail of information that can be secured. This method enabled more

improvement to be made to the quality of the information gathered than the other methods used. The use of interviews offered the opportunity to probe with additional questions and gather supplemental information about respondents' role behaviours. Questionnaires were also used to examine organisational citizenship behaviour. Finally, methods of pictorial representation were developed as measurement instrument by the researcher for this study.

Chapter Six

Findings of the Pilot Study

6.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the pilot study undertaken in a UK university, with great close attention paid to its methods and results in order to extend and apply these to the main study. First, the focus is on the results from the first method employed, the semi-structured interview. Then the discussion turns to the results from the second method, the questionnaire. Finally, the pictorial representation method is developed and introduced for the study so as to enrich the results

The major purpose of the pilot study was to find answers to the questions below. Findings from the three instruments were as follows:

6.2 Results from the Semi-Structured Interviews

1. What is the scope of the work activities a lecturer has to perform?

As mentioned earlier, a role refers to the expected behaviour patterns attributed to a particular position in an organisation. Role-playing varies from person to person resulting from the different backgrounds, attitudes and beliefs of the respondents.

Teaching is seen as a primary duty by nearly all of the responding lecturers, who identified students as key people in their interviews. Nevertheless, the data from the interviews revealed that there are many different opinions about the teaching duties and of students as key people influencing the participants' role-playing. That is, some lecturers believed that their *Students* were the leading role sender, but this group did not represent all respondents. In contrast, all participants regarded the *Divisional Leader* as a key person having a great influence on their actions. *Management and administrative roles* are identified as other in-role duties for a number of the respondents, although not all of the participants had administrative duties and there were varying levels of frequency and influence cited for major administrative players as role senders.

Research is currently seen as a way of leading to higher academic positions among the respondents. The results of the interviews revealed that the participants have some responsibility for conducting research, but this is not a strict rule for all of the participants, with some not mentioning *Research Staff*, *Colleague* or *Students* as role senders at all. Although most participants wished to do research, some stated that they could not because of heavy teaching burdens and lack of time. However, the second participant was assigned the job of taking responsibility for research in the whole school. The third and fourth participants were also designated as research coordinators, hence citing the increased prominence of researchers as their role senders.

2. How do they know what duties and responsibilities they have to perform?

The results of the interviews suggested a lot of sources of information about the duties and responsibilities of lecturers. Many participants revealed that their immediate supervisor let them know what they had to do. The first participant, for example, said,

“Those particular responsibilities are given to me by my boss, my line manager, my Head of Division”

The third participant talked about how he knew what his job duties were, saying that,

“There’s no description but by talking and discussing with my boss and with other people”

The statements of the fifth, seventh, ninth, and tenth participants also confirmed the main source of information on duties and responsibilities as indicated,

“I think some of the teaching ones...mainly by negotiation with the Head of the Division... Research Coordinator...it’s partly being told by my Head of School”;
“Just read it from information that I’ve been given and from discussion with colleagues, my line manager”;
“I get some instructions from my Head of School”;
“On the teaching side, your allocation comes through the line manager”

The fourth participant suggested a job description as another important source

“There is a job description which tells me about my responsibility”

In addition, the fifth participant explained that,

“The job description would say something...and then, by implication, say something about what he had to do”

The sixth, eighth, and ninth participants said likewise.

The eighth participant noticed problems with the job description, saying that,

“The job description is sort of general, and if I would list what’s required...the job description says things quite differently from what the reality is”

Almost half of the participants said that they learned by themselves what they had to do to achieve personal and organisational goals. For example, the third participant stated that,

“...some of responsibilities are things that I choose to do...I make the choices to do them.”

Similarly, the ninth, twelfth, and thirteenth participants reported that they had been performing their job duties for a long period of time, so they had become automatic, and also up to them as individuals.

Additionally, the results showed other sources of information, such as in the second participant’s statement,

“Teaching responsibility is seen a core business to the division, so everybody in the division was appointed as teaching staff...For research responsibility, I was known to have some expertise in a particular area, and as a consequence of that, I was asked because of the people that I network with.”

And in the eighth participant’s statement.

“...responsibilities are very wide ranging depending on the needs of the subject division and the units”

3. What do they perceive to be the expectations of others?

The results from the interviews revealed that each participant had got various expectations from many role senders.

In terms of teaching duties, half of the participants perceived that their supervisors expected them to deliver their teaching competently and professionally. For example, the sixth participant stated that,

“The Divisional Leader expects me to I deliver the unit I’m responsible for with integrity and meet syllabus requirements, and meet the assessment requirements etc.”

Meanwhile, one third of respondents realised that students expected them to be available whenever needed. The twelfth participant, for example, said,

“...it is that I’m a good teacher and having a good relationship with them, being responsible in the way that you deal with them, what you tell them, and the materials that you give them...”

Half of participants mentioned that they think their colleagues expect them to do an appropriate teaching job and to be supportive to them. For instance, the fifth participant said that,

“I think, again, their expectation are that I’ll be involved in designing courses, and being involved in the delivery that I share that with them. I share the teaching with them. We’ll do some; we’ll share marking. We’ll share things like

contributions to course design, examination duties... In terms of the quality of expectations, I think, they expect that I contribute the ideas, and materials.”

In terms of research duties, the results from the interviews revealed that both supervisors and colleagues expected the participants to generate research output. Interestingly, one of the participants, the thirteenth participant, mentioned that her colleagues pushed her to do more on research. As she said,

“They are expecting me to have a better research file, because I don’t have one, I have done a little bit of research and I have written a chapter of a book, and I do go to conferences. They want me to look at things in that area because that is a part of my profile that is very poor.”

It seems to be an important pressure on members of academic staff in the UK, to develop themselves by doing research.

Some of the participants undertook managerial work, such as allocating teaching, sorting out problems with members of the staff, and so on. They perceived that their supervisors expected them to manage things in the division smoothly, to lead the division and make sure it had a good profile of courses. Moreover, their colleagues (subordinates) expected them to give them appropriate workloads, lead the division, and so on. For instance, the ninth participant said,

“That would be help and guidance on their career progression, and subject development. They would be expecting me to arrange their teaching loads and teaching activity, and to co-ordinate that. They just expect me to lead the division in negotiation with other divisions on teaching, which is a general expectation.”

4. What do they think are the things that they do, and where they are uncertain as to whether they are within or beyond their role?

Different individuals had different perceptions of the behaviour associated with a given role. The interviewees suggested that they learned and perceived what their job duties and responsibilities were from several sources, including their job descriptions, supervisors (line manager) and from colleagues.

Even though a *job description* generally contains a job summary, the job duties and responsibilities and some indication of the working conditions, some participants remarked that it did not go into sufficient detail. For example, the eighth participant said,

“I’m used to the job description being quite different from what the reality is”

And the first participant commented,

“The job description is somewhat similar to what I’ve been doing. It does not describe it in much detail but it’s a general description...”

In addition, organisations or people that the respondents were associated with, such as the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA), Course Leaders, Peers and those outside the University such as Publishers, Staff at other Universities or consultancy clients, had taken charge of the some work for various respondents.

5. What do they think are the things that they do that are beyond their role?

The interviews showed that more than half of the participants usually lend colleagues a hand by covering for classes, providing recommendations for curriculum development and supporting the students of other staff for research/teaching. For example, the eighth participant believed that,

“I have been helpful to colleagues, in terms of giving support over their courses and coming up with ideas regarding how we develop them, and also filling in for colleagues when you have to be away or anything like that.”

In cases when a lecturer was unable to work due to sickness or other reasons, his or her colleagues were willing to be in charge during the lecturer’s absence so that the class was not cancelled. For example, the seventh participant stated that,

“...this is what we usually do and everyone tries to do it. If someone is ill, then we will take their classes for them. That way, the students don’t miss any work.”

There have been many suggestions for improving the management of the school, for example, the sixth participant revealed that,

“I’m running the *Peer Support Scheme* at the moment, which is my idea. I went to the Head of School last year and I was appointed to run it. I have third year students supporting their first year peers on an informal basis, and that wasn’t expected.”

Some lecturers had done things beyond the scope of their duties for their students. For example, the fifth participant said that,

“I suppose, in the Tuesday afternoon session which is talking about the course, just to help research students, not so much colleagues”

The interviews suggested that some participants often devoted themselves to their jobs. The eleventh participant gave an example, saying that,

“...the test for the first years, I’m sure a lot of people would have looked at it and thought, we have a system, we’ll leave that in place and won’t change it, and I have changed it and tried something new, which will hopefully benefit everyone. It was not a requirement, I could have done it the way we’ve always done it and gone home early, but I didn’t. I put in extra work that exceeds what is required.”

The results from the interviews above indicate the roles, duties, and responsibilities of lecturers. They reflect the opinions of the participants about their behaviours, which are the focal points of this research.

In the design of the interview questions, and during the collection of data in the pilot study, the questions were improved. The pilot study assisted in testing, relating and collecting information useful to the study (as mentioned in section 5.5). Therefore, the techniques used were adjusted before being utilised in the main study. At this point, interviews with the immediate supervisors of the lecturers were added as a necessary improvement upon the pilot study. From these additional interviews, such role senders are vital to understand lecturers’ in-role and extra-role behaviours. These interviews were set by focusing on supervisors’ opinions on the in-role and extra-role behaviour of their subordinates (lecturers) (see section 5.6.2).

6.3 Results from Questionnaire (Checklist)

The primary analyses of the supporting questions and the interviews suggests that a *fuzzy boundary* exists between in-role and extra-role behaviour, given that a number of

activities were regularly undertaken by several participants which are not stated in their job description or employment contract. That is, the participants discussed above often carried out, almost on a daily basis, what organisational researchers would refer to as OCB, though they themselves did not see these particular actions as being beyond their role. In effect, it had become *normal* for the participants to carry out tasks that were not written in job descriptions or which were out of the scope of their duties and responsibilities. The employees' definition of these activities was that they were in-role, while Organ and other writers would define them as extra-role. Tables 6.1 and 6.2 indicate the range of participation across a range of "extra" roles.

Table 6.1: Checklist data of extra-role behaviour that the respondents perceive as part of their day-to-day work

Questions	Par	Instances	Frequency	No. responses out of 14
1. Train or help others to perform their jobs better	1	Induction/peer review	When applicable	8
	2	Train colleagues/provide support or IT software	Ad-hoc basis	
	3	Research supervision	Each week	
	8	n/a	When required	
	9	n/a	Weekly (help)	
	10	New member of staff	Daily	
	12	Helping new staff on unit	Weekly	
	14	Discussing problem	n/a	
2. Co-operate well with those around you	1	Team teaching, committee member	Constantly	14
	2	Support for colleagues who share my units/student support on units I teach	Daily/weekly	
	3	Teach in a team	Everyday	
	4	n/a	3 times/semester	
	5	n/a	Occasionally	
	6	n/a	n/a	
	7	n/a	Everyday	
	8	n/a	Always	
	9	n/a	Daily	
	10	Involved in programme team for HRM	Weekly	
	11	Share ideas for content delivery of units	Weekly	
	12	with members of teaching team	Weekly	
	13	Emailing staff / course leaders	When required	
	14	Team teaching	n/a	
	14	n/a	n/a	
3. Make positive statements about the department	1	Open days/placement visits	Constantly	7
	2	Students/extend clients e.g. trip to Russia	Ad-hoc basis	
	3	NBS is to be in top 10 Business Schools in UK	Most day	
	4	n/a	Rarely	
	8	n/a	Sometimes	
	9	n/a	Occasionally	
	14	n/a	n/a	
4. Protect university property	1	Lock doors etc.	Constantly	6
	2	Lock my office door	All of the time	
	4	Lock any door	Every time I use a room	
	6	n/a	n/a	
	7	n/a	Every day	
	8	n/a	Always	
5. Help others who have been absent	1	Cover their teaching	Not very often	14
	2	Cover classes	When asked, ad-hoc	
	3	Cover classes	Whenever need	
	4	Covering teaching	As required/ 1per month	
	5	n/a	Very occasionally	
	6	n/a	n/a	
	7	n/a	Every month	
	8	n/a	Once	

	10	Cover for people who are away	When required	
	11	Cover classes	When required	
	12	Covering classes	Every 3 months	
	13	Provide with teaching materials	When required	
	14	Cover for illness	n/a	
6. Help others who have heavy work-loads	1	I willingly support other members of staff, particularly new staff	When applicable	7
	2	Support to research colleagues	Ad-hoc	
	3	Take classes for colleagues	Once a month	
		Offered support technical knowledge		
	5	n/a	Occasionally	
	7	n/a	From time to time	
7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work	11	Colleagues new course start-up	n/a	9
	13	Putting QPS together to teach	Fortnightly	
	3	Overseas trips	Once a month	
	4	n/a	Whenever sick	
	5	n/a	Always	
	6	n/a	n/a	
8. Does not take unnecessary time off work	7	n/a	Always	7
	9	n/a	n/a	
	10	Have not been off ill for 3 years approximately	n/a	
	11	Work to standard holiday & Research Scholarly Activity (RSA) allowances	n/a	
	12	Low absence rate	n/a	
	14	n/a	n/a	
9. Assist supervisor with his or her work	1	Attend meetings on their behalf	Rarely	10
	2	Support in QAA inspection	Ad-hoc	
	3	Jointly supervise PhDs	Each week	
	4	Review internet blackboard	1 per week	
	5	n/a	Not often	
	6	n/a	n/a	
	8	n/a	When asked	
	10	With programme team work	Weekly	
10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job	12	Covering class	Every 3 months	12
	13	Attend exam boards	When required	
	1	Organise social events/additional placement visit	Constantly	
	2	Support in QAA inspection	Ad-hoc	
	3	Write a report on an overseas market	When necessary	
	4	n/a	Rarely	
	5	n/a	Occasionally	
	6	n/a	n/a	
7	n/a	Every couple of months		
11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off	9	n/a	n/a	
	11	Made suggestions to course design being developed by a colleague	n/a	
	12	Trying new assessment method	Monthly	
	13	Helping students with personal problems	When required	
	14	Multimedia prospectus	n/a	
	1	I have never used all my leave or RSA time		
2	I spent last Summer helping with QAA inspection			

than most individuals or less than allowed	3 4 9 12 13 14	I never take my full holiday allowance Work harder n/a Have not had a free day this term Don't take all holiday/RSA leave n/a	Every year When required Usually Weekly Annually Usually	8
12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the school	1 2 3 4 5 6 8 12 13 14	Member of many task forces Teaching research ad-hoc Proposal for DBA n/a n/a n/a n/a Computer aided assessment At away days / meetings Suggesting to improve admin	Constantly Daily Every week Rarely Occasionally n/a Weekly Once a year 4-5 times a year n/a	10
13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image	1 2 3 4 6 11 13 14	Conference presentations (external) Conferences British Council Exhibitions Professional lectures dinners n/a Participate in open evenings (which is expected of other Course Leaders - even though others do not necessarily attend Placement visits Nissan meeting	Constantly Yearly 4 times a year 2-3/semester n/a n/a Once a year n/a	8
14. Assist others with their duties	1 2 3 4 5 6 10 12 13 14	Member of many additional groups within the university that are voluntary Support colleagues if necessary with cover Provide teaching materials n/a n/a n/a Manager developed weekends Preparing teaching materials Helping to write exam papers / assessments Help when needed	Constantly Ad-hoc When required for covering class Occasionally n/a Twice per year Weekly When required n/a	10
15. Actively attend university meetings	1 2 3 4 6 8 9 11	Research committee, placement task force Faculty Quality Committee, Exam Boards, Divisional Meeting Research degree sub committee Those which are considered important n/a n/a n/a Division meetings / School meetings infrequent but should attend to hear information at first-hand	Twice a semester One/semester Every week 2 per week n/a Not very often Monthly n/a	8
16. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	QAA process n/a n/a Do some additional marking n/a n/a n/a n/a	Constantly Ad-hoc When required 2-3 per semester Often n/a Every month Daily	13

	9	n/a	n/a		
	11	Advised colleague on issues relating to her new role as course leader	n/a		
	12	Helping with other units	Every 3 months		
	13	Cover for teaching	When required		
	14	n/a	n/a		
17. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings	1	Summer school workshop	Once a year	4	
	3	n/a	When required		
	4	Relations with China	2-3 per semester		
	6	n/a	n/a		
18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced	1	Traces/assessment procedures etc.	Sometimes	10	
	4	n/a	Always		
	6	n/a	n/a		
	7	n/a	Every day		
	8	n/a	Always		
	9	n/a	n/a		
	11	Assessment regulations – e.g. submitting sample scores to external examiners	n/a		
	12	First year assessments	Once a year		
	13	n/a	n/a		
	14	n/a	n/a		
19. Often arrive early and start working immediately	1	Before 8 a.m. most days	Most days	11	
	2	Start at 7 a.m. each day	Daily		
	3	n/a	Every day		
	4	Start at 8.15	Every day		
	5	n/a	Not often		
	6	n/a	n/a		
	7	n/a	Every week		
	8	n/a	Daily		
	10	Most days 7.50/8.00 o'clock start	Most days		
	13	Preparing for teaching	Daily		
	14	n/a	n/a		
20. You think you come to work more often than most of the people	1	Often work 8 a.m.-8p.m.	Constantly		6
	2	Summer vacation-building is empty	Most of the day		
	3	I was here on Saturday	Whenever necessary		
	9	n/a	n/a		
	12	No free day	Weekly		
	13	I find difficult to stay at home and work because of everything that has to be done here	Daily		

Table 6.2: Total number of the checklist data of extra-role behaviour that the respondents perceive as part of their day-to-day work

Item	Questions	No. responses out of 14
2	Co-operate well with those around you	14
5	Help others who have been absent	14
16	Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems	13
10	Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job	12
19	Often arrive early and start working immediately	11
9	Assist supervisor with his or her work	10
12	Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the school	10
14	Assist others with their duties	10
18	Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced	10
7	Give advance notice if unable to come to work	9
1	Train or help others to perform their jobs better	8
11	Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed	8
13	Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image	8
15	Actively attend university meetings	8
3	Make positive statements about the department	7
6	Help others who have heavy work loads	7
8	Does not take unnecessary time off work	7
4	Protect university property	6
20	Come to work more often than most of the people	6
17	Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings	4

Table 6.1 and 6.2 show that the respondents perform extra-role behaviours (OCB) as part of their day-to-day work. The responses indicated that there were two items – second and fifth – which all respondents have performed. Seventeen of the items were

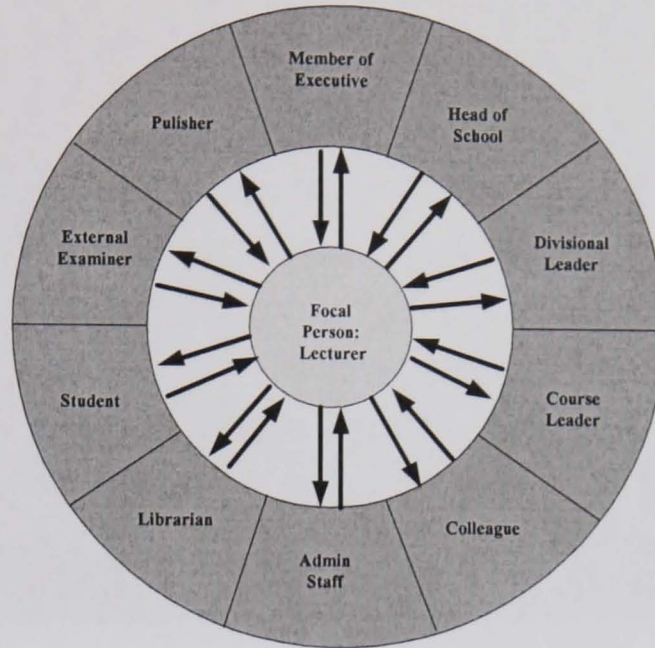
performed by a majority of the research participants. The lowest number of response was to the seventeenth item.

Although the results from the questionnaire were from a small sample, they were used in supporting interviews' data about the extra-role behaviour in their routine job. However, in the main study, respondents (both supervisors and subordinates) were asked to discriminate whether each question in the questionnaire concerned in-role or extra-role behaviour in order to utilise these in analysing their perceptions of in-role and extra role discrimination.

6.3 Results from Pictorial Representations

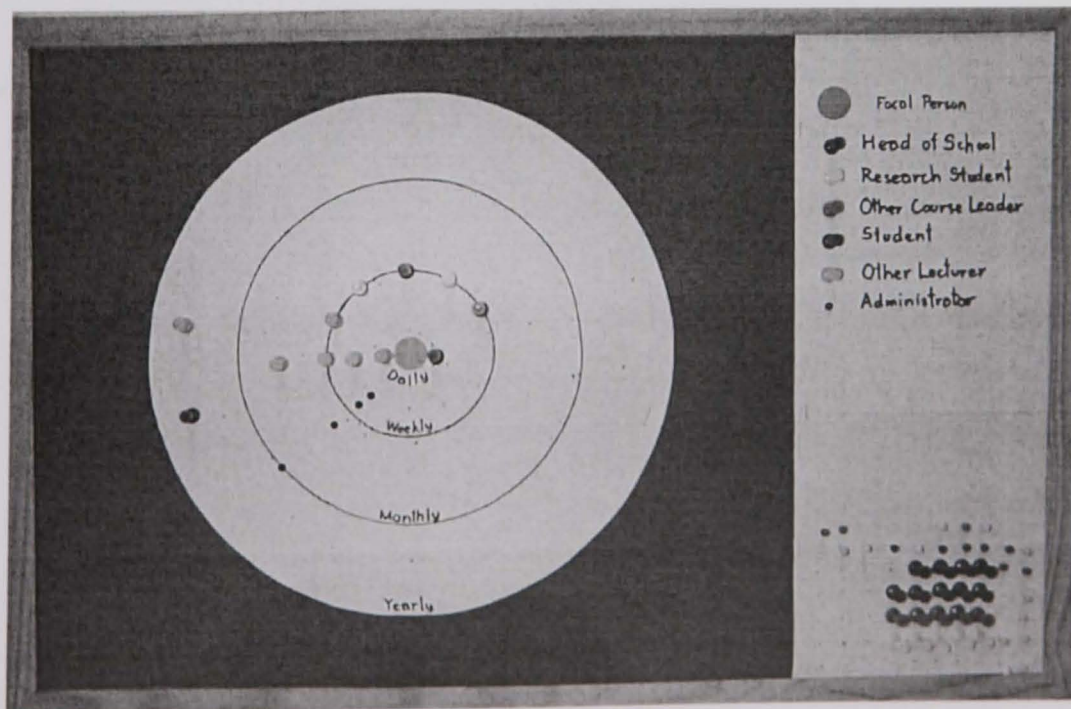
The interviews helped identify a range of role senders for each participant. Figure 6.1 shows an example of the role senders as identified by one particular lecturer, using an adaptation of a pictorial instrument. Figure 6.1 also shows a complete picture of those who influence the respondent. Individually, this is perhaps less effective as it could be as a communication tool with that used in the interviews. This instrument helps to provide the data which each respondent indicates the frequency and intensity of influence of each role sender rather than just their existence. Figure 6.2 provides an example of this and Table 6.3 gives a complete breakdown of the responses.

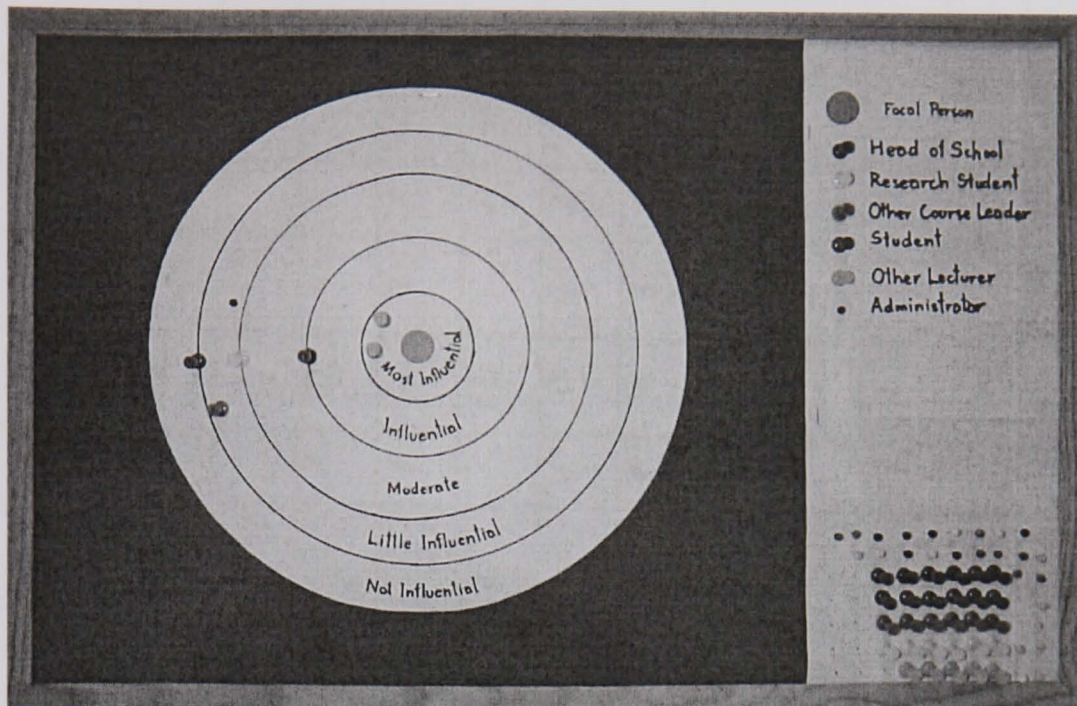
Figure 6.1: An example of a lecturer's role-set



[Format of the illustration adapted from Zanden, V. & Wilfrid, J. (1979): *Sociology*, New York: John Wiley & Sons, p.114.]

Figure 6.2: An example of the results from the Pictorial Representation





The extent to which the number and type of role senders varies amongst the participants will be of interest when this data measurement tool is used in the main study.

Table 6.3 Pictorial data

Participant	1		2		3		4		5		6		7								
	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in							
Member of Executive					✓	M	4	✓	M	3											
Head of School	✓	2/Y	2	✓	2/Y	2	✓	D	4	✓	D	4	✓	2/W	4	✓	D	5	✓	Y	2
Divisional Leader	✓	D	5	✓	D	5							✓	D	5	✓	D	5			
Programme Director									✓	M	4										
Course Leader									✓	W	4	✓	W	2	✓	D	4				
Other Lecturer	✓	D	4	✓	D	3			✓	D	4	✓	D	5	✓	D	2	✓	D	4	
Research Colleague	✓	M	3	✓	M	4												✓	M	2	
Admin Staff							✓	D	3	✓	D	3	✓	D	2	✓	D	3	✓	D	4
Student							✓	D	5	✓	D	5	✓	W	2	✓	W	4	✓	D	5
Research Student													✓	W	3						
External Examination									✓	2/Y	2										
Publisher	✓	Y	2	✓	M	2	✓	M	3												
Librarian																					

Abbreviationfr: Frequency of Interaction -
in: Intensity of Influential -

D: Daily

W: Weekly

M: Monthly

Y: Yearly

n/a: not applicable

1: not influential

2: little influential

3: moderate

4: influential

5: most influential

Participant	8		9		10		11		12		13		14								
	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	Fr	in							
Member of Executive																					
Head of School			✓	3/W	4	✓	M	2	✓	4/Y	2	✓	M	4							
Divisional Leader	✓	M	4	✓	W	4	✓	W	4		2/M	4	✓	D	5	✓	W	4	✓	2/W	5
Programme Director									✓	2/M	4			✓	D	5					
Course Leader	✓	W	5																		
Other Lecturer	✓	D	3	✓	D	5	✓	W	4	✓	W	3	✓	W	4	✓	2/W	3			
Research Colleague				✓	W	3															
Admin Staff	✓	D	2	✓	D	3	✓	W	3						✓	2/W	2				
Student	✓	D	3	✓	2/W	4				✓	W	1									
Research Student																					
External Examination														✓	4/Y	2					
Publisher	✓	Y	4																		
Librarian	✓	W	2																		

Abbreviation

fr: Frequency of Interaction -
in: Intensity of Influential -

D: Daily

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1: not influential

2: little influential

3: moderate

4: influential

5: most influential

The data from Table 6.3 show that there are several groups of people who are important to each respondent, as follows:

Some respondents who perceived that *Head of School* is their role sender reported that they had to interact with the Head of School several times a week. The third, fourth, and sixth participant revealed that it was necessary to interact with the Head of School every day. However, the second, seventh, tenth, and eleventh participant said that they meet the Head of School once in a while because she had little influence on their job.

The respondents who indicated that *Divisional Leader* is their role sender revealed the frequency of interactions between them and the Divisional Leader, saying that there were differences between people in this, and their influence on respondent's job ranges from strong to the very strong.

The respondents who stated that *Other Lecturers* and/or *Colleagues* were their role sender reported that the frequency of interaction between them and other lecturers varied considerably from person to person such as, every day, every week, and every month. In addition, their statements implied that this group of role senders did have an influence on the respondents' job, however, the frequency of interaction did not reflect the intensity of influence. For example, the twelfth participant revealed that her five colleagues were role senders and she interacted with each colleague weekly; however, the intensity of influence of each colleague varied enormously.

Although the Head of School is in the ultimate management position in the school, most respondents took the view that the Head of School was less important to them than

the Divisional Leader. That is, almost all respondents revealed that the *Divisional Leader* was most important person for them because the Divisional Leader was their immediate supervisor. Also, *Other Lecturers* were ranked the second most important people to respondents because these were their colleagues who helped one another with their jobs.

Most respondents reported that they interacted with *Administrators* almost every day. However, the Administrator was not the most important person to these respondents because of their contact being confined to the staff functions of the respondent's job.

With regards to organisational structure, students were not in the line of authority. Nevertheless, a lot of the respondents stated that their students were most influential in the respondents' role-playing and job performance. Because the respondents' key task was teaching, the students were of great importance to the respondents who had to meet their expectations.

The third and fourth participants revealed that they had interaction with *Members of the Executive* because the Member of Executive assigned them extra tasks. Although the frequency of these interactions between them was low, the respondents considered the interactions important because of their high-level in the management of the organisation.

The first, second, third, and eighth participants reported that *Publishers* were important to them because of their research assignments. The fourth and thirteenth participant stated that they had to interact with *External Examiners* concerning coordination, but that this was not important.

Considering the overall situation, it would be interesting to measure how the intensity of influence depends on frequency of interaction. *That is, the more the respondents interact with role sender, the more the role sender may be influential in the respondents' job.* Moreover, there are varying degrees of responses to role sender's expectations, for many reasons. For example, respondents may decide whether or not any task is important; if he/she is interested in the issue, the role sender may be more important to him/her.

Table 6.4: Cross-tabulation between intensity of influence and frequency of interaction viewed by subordinates

Role Sender	Frequency of Interaction	Intensity of Influence						Total
		none	little influence	moderate	Influence	more than Influence	most influence	
Executive	-None	12						12
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly				1	1		2
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		12			1	1		14
Head of School	-None	3						3
	-Daily					2	1	3
	-Few days a week					2		2
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly			1		1		2
	-Few months a year			3				3
	-Yearly			1				1
Total		3		5		5	1	14
Divisional Leader	-None	3						3
	-Daily						5	5
	-Few days a week					1	1	2
	-Weekly					3		3
	-Monthly					1		1
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		3				5	6	14
Programme Director	-None	11						11
	-Daily						1	1
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly					2		2
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		11				2	1	14
Course Leader	-None	10						10
	-Daily					1		1
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly			1		1	1	3
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							

Total		10		1		2	1	14
Other Lecturer	-None	2						2
	-Daily			1	2	3	2	8
	-Few days a week				1			1
	-Weekly				1	2		3
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		2		1	4	5	2	14
Research Colleague	-None	10						10
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly				1			1
	-Monthly			1	1	1		3
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		10		1	2	1		14
Admin Staff	-None	5						5
	-Daily			2	4	1		7
	-Few days a week			1				1
	-Weekly				1			1
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		5		3	5	1		14
Student	-None	6						6
	-Daily				1		3	4
	-Few days a week					1		1
	-Weekly		1	1		1		3
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		6	1	1	1	2	3	14
Research Student	-None	13						13
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly				1			1
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		13			1			14
External Examiner	-None	12						12
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year			2				2
	-Yearly							

Total		12		2				14
Publisher	-None	10						
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly			1	1			
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly			1		1		
Total		10		2	1	1		14
Librarian	-None	13						13
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly			1				1
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		13		1				14

As shown in table 6.4, a clear majority of the respondents revealed that they were not on contact with and did not attach importance to members of the executive, programme directors, course leaders, research colleagues, research students, external examiners, publishers, or librarians. When considering the category of who has the most influence, 6 respondents choose divisional leader as their role sender; 3 respondents chose students as their role sender; and 2 respondents chose colleagues as their role sender. On the other hand, when considering the non-influence category, almost all respondents indicated either research students or librarians; 12 respondents indicated either members of the executive and external examiners; and 2 respondents indicated programme directors as of low influence.

Table 6.5: The total number of respondents from influence to most influence level classifying each type of role sender

Role sender	Total number of respondent from influence to most influence
Member of Executive	2
Head of School	6
Divisional Leader	11
Programme Director	3
Course Leader	3
Other Lecturer	11
Research Colleague	3
Administrator	6
Student	6
Research Student	1
External Examiner	2
Publisher	2
Librarian	0

Table 6.5 provides an illustration of the role-set of members of academic staff from Newcastle Business school. The greater proportion of participants revealed that his/her role senders were the Divisional Leaders (11 participants), Other Lecturers (11 participants), Heads of school (6 participants), Administrators (6 participants), and Students (6 participants).

With regard to the frequency of interaction between respondents and role senders, the data revealed that 5 respondents contacted divisional leaders daily; 8 respondents had contact with other lecturers; 3 respondents had contact with head of school daily; 7 respondents had contact with administrators daily; and 4 respondents had contact with students daily.

When taking the relationship between intensity and frequency of interaction into account, as a result, *it tends to be the more the respondents interact with the role sender, the more role sender is influential in respondents' job.*

Analysis of the pictorial representations can be used to support the interview data on the issues of role senders and their role for each focal person (lecturer). Then, this instrument was also used with supervisors, by asking for their decisions on who are the subordinates' (lecturers) role sender and his influence, in order to compare the results and measure the degree of compatibility between supervisors' and subordinates' opinions.

6.4 Summary

The results of the study provide evidence regarding different perceptions of role behaviour. The respondents stated that they learned of their job duties and responsibilities from many sources, including immediate supervisors, job description, and by themselves.

In terms of duties and responsibility, the data revealed that the main area of duties and responsibility was teaching. In addition, research was seen as a key area leading to higher academic positions. Many participants wished to do research but they could not because of heavy teaching burdens and a lack of time. Moreover, some participants had managerial work because they held an associated managerial position.

In teaching duties as central to their role, the participants perceived that others expected them to deliver the unit competently and professionally, while being supportive

to their colleagues. With respect to research duties, the participants perceived that others expected them to generate research output.

Although many sources exist in the university to allow academic staff to learn how to do their job, some participants remarked that these sources did not go into sufficient detail. That is why sometimes they were uncertain of what was within their role. The interviews also suggested that some participants often devoted themselves to their jobs, such as by helping to take other lecturers' classes when their colleagues were ill or absent, and by providing recommendations for curriculum development and so forth.

Considering the case of the participants in this study, important role-senders include divisional leaders, colleagues, heads of school, administrators, and students.

Chapter Seven

Findings of the Main Study

7.1 Introduction

The major feature of the research has been to investigate the perceptions of in-role and extra-role behaviour of academic staff in Thailand. The rationale of the method was the expectation that Thai university lecturers might well think about their role in very different ways from many Western role incumbents. This culture of Thailand may lead to a different view of OCB from that which is common in Organ's work – based as this is on mainly Western studies. Compared with the pilot study, the method of data collection used in the main study differed in that data was collected from employees (job incumbents) and supervisors (role senders) with the intention of comparing their views on in-role and extra-role behaviour.

This chapter presents the findings from the three methods of data collection used in the main study. These findings were as follows:

7.2 Results from Semi-Structured Interview

1. What is the scope of work activities a lecturer has to perform?

1.1 Teaching

The general and fundamental duty of the participants is teaching. Each university assigns its lecturers a 12-15 hours/week-teaching load, and a head of department 9 hours/week-teaching load. For example, the thirtieth participant said in the interview that:

“...his teaching load was 12 hours/week. The lecturer had to begin and dismiss a class on time, as well as set up 9 hours/week in order for students to ask for advice. Sometimes there were no students seeking advice; even so, he/she needed to be in during office hours.”

However, the university would reduce a lecturer’s workload if he/she undertook research.

1.2 Academic Advisors

Office hours are the hours the universities assign each lecturer to advise students. During office hours, for six to nine hours a week, a lecturer should be available in his or her office according to university regulations. In their advisory role, lecturers deal not only with academic problems but also other problems such as financial problems, family matters and so forth. For example, the twelfth participant said that,

“I give my students advice on personal matters, romance, including borrowing money from me...”

The seventh participant's statement added to the issue, saying that,

“As an advisor, I do not advise only on learning but matters of family, friends including earning his/her living...”

The ninth participant also reported that,

“Academic advisors take care of enrolment (suggesting what courses a particular student should take). In addition, some students may encounter learning problems or cannot catch up with the others in their class; some students have problems with a lecturer taking charge of a class he/she was taking. Those students let me know about the problems they face so as to ask for suggestions. The most popular issue students usually ask for advice about is borrowing from the academic loan fund. If a student who applies for a loan from the academic loan fund is rejected, the lecturer is likely to recommend borrowing from other funds or doing a part-time job to get a sum of money for enrolment.”

Further, the twentieth participant revealed that,

“I have to give advice on all matters, not as an academic adviser but as a lecturer responsible for the class that students from several school take due to it being a basic course. Giving advice to those students includes learning and personal matters. For example, a student's parent called me sometime last summer to put into the care of his child because of his boy falling in love with a girl; the parent asked me to talk with the boy.”

In the view of the eleventh participant:

“...giving advice to students is varied because they have different problems. An adviser can recommend on all subjects such as life and family problems, but has to emphasise academic matters. I raise this issue because some problem go beyond a lecturer's duties and responsibilities.”

The close relationship between a lecturer and his/her students at university results from societal expectations based on traditional Thai values that a lecturer does not only

give students knowledge, but has to act like a parent who takes care of the students in all things and instils confidence, discipline, and so on. For example, the fifteenth participant said that,

“The relationship still goes on even after his or her graduation. The old boys always call me and ask for my suggestions when having problems at work.”

And the twenty-first participant reported that,

“A previous student has studied for a masters programme and encountered some problems about learning in the programme, he calls to get my suggestions.”

A problem of the lecturer’s office hours is that in some universities the roles and regulations about office hours are so rigid that is doing the job obstructed. For example, the sixteenth participant states that,

“...during office hour, I have to be in the office, but I need time to go out to search for information in preparing a lesson. I used to request a budget to apply for a training programme, but it is hard to do because there are so many rules and regulation for university approval. Furthermore, if I get permission to attend the training programme, but the time of the training programme coincides with the time of the class that I take charge of, the class has to be cancelled. I then need to arrange to make up for the cancelled class afterwards.”

Some participants such as the twenty-second, viewed that,

“...the task of giving advice becomes an unnecessary burden to lecturers”

1.3 Extracurricular activities

The university provides a variety of activities to supplement their students' learning and to encourage the students to take part in university life. These activities include academic contests, going outside on study tours, attending lectures from guest speakers, and so forth. Usually the faculty assigns one lecturer or a group to take charge of extracurricular activities. The twenty-sixth participant remarked that there were two types of activities, one provided for consolidating the classes, the other only indirectly related to the classes. The latter are to develop the leadership potential of students. Overall, the activities aim to encourage student participation and to develop their attachment to the faculty and university.

The thirty-fourth participant added that,

“... We planned to sell second hand products during the economic crisis. We asked for the donation of goods that are still OK to sell them to students, lecturers, and staff. We organise a car boot sale every year and donate the income to charity....”

In the thirty-first participant's view the activities' usefulness was to prepare the students to be ready to start work after they graduate.

“...I like the students to work as teams. And it depends on the assignment. I myself like to assign something different from other lecturers. I always emphasise teamwork. In my opinion, learning is not competing with other persons but yourself. Further, you must know how to work in a team and improve your creativity.”

1.4 Academic writing/ research

Writing textbooks and doing research are not university requirements. However, it is a university's policy to encourage their lecturers to do the things. For example, the twenty-second participant said that he was not required to do research and write textbooks. The thirtieth participant pointed out that he/she thought all lecturers could do them, if they had enough spare time. However, the university did not compel its lecturers to do them. The thirty-seventh participant also observed that,

“The university did not require that their lecturers have to do research and write books, but persuaded the lecturers onto do them. Some lecturers stayed with the university for over ten years and never wrote an academic article. They remained with the university, even though they did not achieve main the aims of their academic career.”

Some lecturers discussed the lack of interest in doing research and writing a textbook. For example, the first participant stated that:

“Most fully expected to teach, with the rest of work time spent studying and doing research. However, becoming employed as lecturers, besides teaching they received other assignments. In the beginning they intended to improve the quality of teaching, but later he/ she learned that he/she could not to do it because there were too many work assignments.”

2. How do they know what duties and responsibilities they have to perform?

The results of the interviews suggested a lot of sources of information about the duties and responsibilities a lecturer must perform. The eleventh participant revealed that,

“In the beginning, the university arranges induction for new lecturers. They also provide documents about the lecturer and academic advisor’s responsibilities, and what should be done. About teaching, I had discussed this with the head of department or colleagues.”

The twelfth participant also mentioned that,

“I was told by the head of department, about the orders from the university and faculty that I have to follow. In addition, I must know what I have to do on that orders. That means self-study because the university’s job description was unclear. When I first joined this university, there was an orientation programme which told us the roles of academic advisor, exams, grading system, and how to be a good lecturer.”

Again, the fourteenth participant said that,

“There was a job description and I have been instructed by the Head of Department.”

To summarise:

2.1 Job description

The majority of participants revealed that the job description is one of source of learning about their role. For instance, the second participant mentioned that,

“There were documents shown to me when I first jointed; for example a lecturer’s manual, which covers all operating activities.”

The ninth participant said that,

“We have a job description. The university provided a manual during the induction day. This manual mentioned all topics such as what academic advisors

should do and what are my roles. In teaching activities for instance, what are my responsibilities, in advising students, and helping to solve their problems.”

2.2 Induction

The university may conduct an induction programme for new lecturers in order to give guidance about teaching techniques, workflow, and to introduce staff and organisations involved with them. This also introduced them to get to know each other. For example, the twenty-third participant revealed that,

“We had a 2 day induction to tell us about our responsibilities. In fact, it was not only induction because they had guest speakers talking about teaching, research techniques, and the corporation overall.”

Because universities recruit lecturers at different times of the year and hold only one induction session per year, some lecturers have to wait for the next round of induction, as the nineteenth participant mentioned,

“...induction will help new lecturers understand things better. This induction is conducted once a year but, in my case, I came in January and the other lecturers came in June. The induction was conducted in June and I had already taught for 2 semesters.”

The induction is not the best source for lecturer to learn how to do their job, as can be seen from the views of the eighth participant,

“...induction just told us roughly what we should do and what are our responsibilities. For instance, how to perform as invigilator, how many days for sick leave, how many days are allowed for vacation. In fact, induction did not tell us everything: I think it’s only about 60% and the rest I got from work experience, observation, and colleagues. Indeed, most details about how to invigilate and

grade exams, I got from colleagues, or from the Dean in meetings or from announcements by the Head of Department.”

The above quotation suggests that people could learn about their role from the same sort of formal processes* but that they may learn about their role in different ways because what one person learns about his/her role informally may or may not be the same as others. Therefore, the role of expectations may be different.

2.3 Meetings

A quarter of the participants insisted that they also learn about their role via meetings. The interview information illustrated that the participants have regular department, faculty, and university meetings. For example, the ninth participant revealed that,

* An outline of the process relating to academic and examinations is given as an illustration. In Thailand, private universities are under the control of the Ministry of University Affairs. As for educational quality control, the ministry appoints representatives (qualified lecturers, in each subject in most cases from public universities) to inspect educational quality twice a year. In the first inspection, representatives have a meeting with the Head of Department to consider; examinations for students in order to find out whether these examinations cover all details of that subject; ways to score each examination are suitable to the challenge of each question. If the representatives require amendment, they will inform via the Head of Department in order to inform lecturers who design that examination to amend it. If that lecturer refuses, that examination cannot be used.

In the second inspection, a meeting is arranged to review the examination results considering the weighting of marks and whether they meet the appropriate standards and whether they are too low or too high. If the representatives consider that the range of marks should be amended, they will inform the Head of Department to pass this onto the lecturer who marked them. In the case that he/she refuses to amend them the results of the examinations are not validated.

When the representatives require amendments, this is a challenge for lecturers who lack experience on how to amend marks in order to reach the representatives' requirements. Generally, experienced colleagues would suggest amendment techniques. This seems to be an informal process, and it is something that is not taught. It is an informal learning activity. And, of course, it is not part of the induction.

“There is a department meeting at least once a month. After the meeting, we will know what our roles are. In the meeting, sometimes they assign committees and divide us into small groups and then we will work on our own.”

The fifteenth participant said that,

“There are both from faculty and university announcements. In addition, there is a job description. If it is announced through the faculty telling us what to do as well as on a written order. Currently all written orders tell each individual what to do and what are our responsibilities.”

2.4 Immediate supervisor

Most participants mentioned that the Head of Department is the one who assigns their work and monitors them. For instance, the first participant mentioned, “My supervisor guided me on what to do.” And the fifteenth participant mentioned that “... Head of Department will assign to us what to do or what is to be changed.” Meanwhile the fourteenth participant revealed that,

“The head of department is more important in terms of assigning classes to teach and class schedule. That means she is arranging all teaching schedules and assigning us what classes to teach, at what time. All vacation requests and documentation have to go through the head of department.”

The eighth participant mentioned that,

“From the Head of Department’s point of view we may do whatever we want but have to follow the university’s rules. For example, she does not care what am I doing when I am out of office hours...”

2.5 Previous experience / learning by themselves

A quarter of participants revealed that they learn to perform their duties from prior experience and/or learning by themselves. For instant, the fifteenth participant said that,

“I used to teach elsewhere before and I just utilised my personal experience. I got here and worked out how much I had to teach, what type of students I had, and induction. There was an induction and a manual came along but I started teaching before that.”

The tenth participant said that,

“Indeed, I have learnt by myself. I already knew that I would be an academic advisor but I really did not know how many students and what types of advice I could provide and what the curriculum is. The Head of Department assigned me to be an academic advisor but she did not go into detail, I had to read from the book myself. Teaching is unique and individual. Each year the university has seminars and invited guest speakers talking about teaching efficiency and how to teach in a large lecture room. Sometimes I just asked other lecturers who had attended previous seminars about these techniques. For administration, there was a demonstration in a seminar to teach us these techniques. For teaching a class, if I did not pay attention to the guest speakers then I simply apply my previous knowledge.”

3. What do they perceive to be the expectations of others?

3.1 Students

More than half of the participants revealed that students are a great influence on their work. For example, the fourth participant mentioned that,

“Students are my responsibility. They are my job. I prepare everything for them, not for the head of department — such as teaching materials, text lists, supporting activities...”

From her point of view, she thought that,

“For students, they expect knowledge and skills in the subjects so that they could bring these to their future career...”

The above point of view is similar to that of the twelfth participant who said that,

“The Head of department expected us to finish all assignments on time. Students expected that we would contribute knowledge in order for them to apply it to daily life.”

From another point of view, the fifth participant mentioned that students are the most important people for him. However, he added that,

“There are two groups of students. The first group has lower expectations and expect us to teach whatever is covered in the curriculum. The second group has higher expectations, they expect the lecturer to contribute more knowledge, teaching material and activities. The environment in the class is slightly different between these two groups, but they have the same objective, which is an A grade.”

His view on students’ expectations also directly affected his job as follows:

“In my first few years, I expected quite a lot from students. I thought there was no difference between private and public university students. Public universities have better quality students by using exams to select students. Therefore, private university students have different knowledge levels. At first, I had high expectations for them but after I had taught for 6 years I reduced my expectations and focused on those with lower expectations rather than those with higher expectations, because this group has more problems with their grades and I had to reduce my standards quite a lot. Personally, I would love to see them spending their lives safely in society and achieving their goals by applying the knowledge that I taught. No matter if they use the knowledge that I taught or not, I have been training them to survive in society.”

3.2 Immediate supervisor

Almost all participants mentioned that the Head of Department expected them to complete their work. For instance, the tenth participant said that,

“The Head of Department expected us to teach smoothly and assist in her assignments.”

Similarly, the eleventh participant said that,

“The Head of Department expects me to complete all assignments, to teach all topics and adjust material or topics as the department or faculty desired.”

3.3 Colleagues

The results of the interviews showed that more than half of the participants mentioned that his/her colleagues are the important people. The first participant said that,

“...my colleagues recommended to me what should I do such as how should I prepare before class, how to do grading, and so on.”

In terms of expectations, for instance, the thirteenth participant perceived that his colleagues expected him to be a good team member and to assist them.

The fifteenth participant added that,

“Colleagues are influential in terms of helping each other. They will assist me with what I can't do and I will assist them with what they can't do.”

There are two more persons who the participants identified as important persons: the Dean and Deputy Dean. Half of the participants revealed that they perceived that the Dean and Deputy Dean have similar expectations, which are that they want them to complete their work and meet the required standards.

4. What do they think are the things that they do where they are uncertain as to whether they are within or beyond their role?

Different individuals have different perceptions of the behaviour associated with a given role. The interviewees suggested that they learned and perceived what their job duties and responsibilities are from several sources, including the job description, induction, supervisors, colleagues and previous experience.

Even though the job description generally contains a job summary, job duties and responsibilities, and some indication of working conditions, the data revealed that one fifth of participants had never seen their job descriptions. For example the twentieth participant said that,

“There is no provision of job descriptions during orientation week for new lecturers. It is just spread by word of mouth when colleagues and the head of department let new lecturers know what they have to do, how to teach, and how to be an academic advisor.”

The orientation does not give detailed information on jobs. It is no more than a period of time during which new lecturers are introduced to their colleagues, supervisors, and the university. For example, the twenty-second participant said that,

“During the time as a newcomer to the university, I participated in a week or two of perfunctory orientation, however, it is only a session where new employees make the acquaintance of one another. By the way, I have never seen my job description.”

The eighth participant observed that,

“The induction does not give all information about the job to employees because 60 per cent of the information an employee learns from experience and from colleagues. And the Dean notifies during faculty meetings or a Head of Department lets me know.”

Sometimes induction for a new lecturer is not held at the start of his/her work.

That means orientation does not help the new lecturers to learn their job duties. For example, the nineteenth participant revealed that,

“...induction for new lecturers is held once a year. I entered the university in January and another lecturer entered the university in June, but we were both given the induction at the same time. Therefore, I already knew the information from the induction because of learning by doing.”

With regards to the data above concerning learning about the role of being a lecturer, each participant has to learn from many sources. The data revealed that three quarters of participants learned from the head of department, and more than half learned by themselves.

Large discrepancies between each participant's perceptions of the job boundaries are a consequence. Some participants are not convinced that what they do is within their duties and responsibilities, for example, the seventh, eleventh, nineteenth, twenty-first,

and twenty-ninth participants. In particular speaking about the role of advisor, the eleventh participant said that,

“...giving advice to students is varied because they have different problems. An advisor can make recommendations on all subjects, such as life and family problems, but has to emphasise academic matters. I raise the issue because some problems go beyond a lecturer’s duties and responsibilities.”

5. What do they think are the things that they do that are beyond their role?

5.1 Protecting university property

Four lecturers, the twenty-first, twenty-third, twenty-fourth and thirty-third participants mention cost savings on behalf of their institutions, including conservation of electricity, water or stationery. For example, the twenty-first participant said that he always switched off the computer when he did not use it. The twenty-third participant spoke of the savings she made,

“Such as, using both sides of paper and reusing diskettes. I tried to save the university’s money even though no one told me to do so.”

Interestingly, almost all lecturers give the same reason for this type of behaviour which from their socialisation.

5.2 Giving extra help to students

Some lecturers do things for beyond the scope of their duties for students. The seventh participant gave an example,

“As an advisor, I do not advise only on learning but on matters of family and friends, including earning his/her living.”

Due to students' lack of planning skills for study, the tenth participant has developed a study-plan form for individual self-checking. She noticed that some students made mistakes when either enrolling for new academic semesters or submitting proposals for study. Some courses have conditions such as prerequisite subjects or requiring a minimum grade to pass. This study-plan form can help students be aware of this so as to avoid making mistakes.

Normally, lecturers in a faculty have been assigned to teach undergraduate students. Someone who has obtained a higher degree or academic position may be appointed to teach postgraduate students in graduate school. For example, the twenty-third participant said that she had been assigned to teach graduate students. Concerning her duties she noticed that,

“For instance, usually in teaching for graduate students, the university did not fix hours for advising. Working hours were from 8 am – 5 pm but what I've usually done was allow students to see me from 6pm – 9pm. Sometimes, I have done extra work by allowing them to call me at home, and I'm happy to do this, because some did not attend classes in daytime, but at evening or weekends. Even on my days off I come in but do not sign-in, so no one knows. Only students know that I work on Sundays, especially when the university assigns me as thesis advisor for graduate students. This has happened quite often, so I have to work at weekends.”

Some lecturers have connections which help students get jobs. For example, the twenty-fifth participant talked about her extra help to students:

“I have friends working in the Human Resource Departments of several firms. I usually let them know when my students graduate but have not got a job yet; I will suggest applying to the firms my friends work for.”

5.3 Making suggestions about improvements in learning and teaching

There have been many suggestions for improving the management of the faculty.

For example, the twenty-third participant claimed that,

“I gave an idea to improve the graduate curriculum and provide some extra activities for graduate students. For instance, I proposed the Dean to add business-planning project into the course. We should have a guest speaker for 3-4 hours or external activity so that students will understand more about what a business plan is.”

5.4 Helping others to solve work-related problems

Another example of extra-role behaviour is helping colleagues or staff members of the department/faculty solve problems. The first participant said that he had a good knowledge of computers; the computer in the department/faculty sometimes crashed, so he helped to fix it.

5.5 Telling others good things about the university and clarifying their misunderstandings

Four lecturers – the first, fourth, seventeenth and twenty-third participant – are proud to be part of their institutions. When they hear someone speaking in such a way that may damage their institution’s reputation, they will defend it against the accusation. For example, the twenty-third participant referred to her behaviours and feelings,

“...for instance, someone said that in studying here it is easy to get a good grade. I would forcefully correct this, it is so untrue. Or some graduate students from public university have negative perspectives, I always correct them. But if someone has a really bad or negative attitude, I will recommend them to study somewhere else.”

In addition, some lecturers – such as the fourth and seventeenth participant – instilled love and faith in the university into their students because they believed that trust in the university eventually leads to a more powerful and strong society. The fourth participant said that

“I talked to students in class about belief in the organisation. Sometimes, the students think that because they are in private university, they should not be as proud as people are in public universities. I encourage self-pride in students. I do not like it when I ask them why they came to study here and they told me that it is just because they couldn’t get into public university. I think it’s not good for them or the university. I have tried hard to instil this belief. They would be better if they followed this attitude. They would then grow to be part of a strong community.”

5.6 Putting more effort into work

The interviews suggested that some participants often devoted themselves to their jobs. For example, the thirty-fourth participant said that,

“When I do something, I like to get good results. Furthermore, I like the challenge of doing new things. At the same time, we must have a better methods to support the students...”

Another example could be the twenty-sixth participant, who said that the university launched a marketing project every year. This participant revealed that she did not only expect people to get to know the university but tried to persuade them apply to

be students. She created games or activities to impress people. The university had never trained her in any of this. She added,

“I will not do what goes against the grain, meaning that I always intend to do the job better than the university’s expectation.”

5.7 Engaging in extra activities

The twenty-ninth participant spoke of participating in the university’s educational guidance road show. She added that the Head of Department and Dean inquired about her participation in the project. She thought that because she had experience in educational guidance she would volunteer to do this.

The thirty-third participant referred to helping staff members with administrative tasks such as drawing up department/faculty letters to be sent to those outside the university, and reviewing department/faculty minutes.

5.8 Helping others who have heavy workloads

Some lecturers and staff members of the department/faculty have sometimes been assigned too much work to be able to meet deadlines. With such a workload, even if they are willing to engage in extra-role activities, they are unable to do so. Such a situation probably affects overall university performance. However, it has given rise to helpful behaviour from others toward these colleagues, in lending a hand to those who have a heavy workload. For example, the twenty-third participant talked about setting examination questions.

“Let us say we have 4 lecturers to teach this class. I will do exam chapter 1-2. another will do chapter 3-4, but if she has too much assignments I will help her do chapter 3-4.”

The thirty-first participant remarked on helping colleagues who have heavy workloads,

“Normally, I have an enormous number of tasks, but when I am available, I will give colleagues with heavy workloads a hand. Helping another will benefit him/her and the university as well as me.”

5.9 Volunteering to do things not formally required by the job

Two lecturers mentioned that they have devoted themselves to work beyond normal duties. For example, the fifth and ninth participant have been chosen to be on the committee on employee benefits of their universities. This follows a law that stipulates that any organisation has to form a committee to explore and seek information on the quality of the life of the university’s employees, and then to submit the information for university approval.

These two lecturers spoke of their devotion to the university along the same lines. That is, they have served on the committee irrespective of remuneration, but they volunteered to act on behalf of the university’s employees because they have good knowledge of labour law.

Another similar example of devotion to work beyond normal duty is the thirty-seventh participant’s behaviour. This participant talked about introducing ISO to the university; and the university needed employees to participate in the project.

“The head of the project sounded me out about my participation in the project as internal auditor. I decided to do it, but had to attend a training course for auditors first, and then was officially designated to be ISO auditor.”

Another interesting example is of the nineteenth participant, who took care of the computer system in the department:

“Taking care of the system in the department is a task that I have volunteered to do for 3 years now, because I am a computer engineer. Waiting for a staff member from the computer centre may harm the department’s operation.”

The sixteenth participant remarked on her devotion to the task of interviewing entrants. The task was previously performed by the Head of Department, who then asked for volunteers.

The thirty-first participant’s behaviour also reveals of devotion. He searched for various information on training programmes outside the university, and then sent it out to other departments/faculties. He stated that he has acted as seminar information centre.

5.10 participating actively in school meetings

Participating actively in school meetings has been regarded as extra-role behaviour. Speaking of meetings, the thirty-second participant said that,

“I consider attending meetings an important task, and always attend both formal and informal meetings. I think meetings are held because the organisers need to inform lecturers and staff members of important information. If there were no meetings, communication within the faculty would not occur.”

7.3 Results from Questionnaire (Checklist)

Table 7.1 shows the frequency of subordinate and supervisor responses to the questionnaire items. The first two columns show the total number of responses where both subordinate and supervisor classify the item as one carried out by the subordinate: the second column where neither classifies it that way.

Column three and four show respectively: the frequency of responses where only the subordinate classifies the items as one he/she carries out; where only the supervisor classifies the items as one carried out by the subordinate.

Table 7.1: Frequency of subordinate and supervisor indicating that subordinate performs behaviours of each questionnaire item

Question	Both	Neither	Sub only	Sup only	Total
1. Help his/her colleagues to perform their job better.	24	0	4	1	29
2. Co-operate well with those around him/her.	26	0	3	0	29
3. Make positive statements about the department.	20	1	5	3	29
4. Protect university property.	21	0	6	2	29
5. Help others who have been absent.	12	5	12	0	29
6. Help others who have heavy workloads.	7	4	16	2	29
7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.	24	2	3	0	29
8. Does not take unnecessary time off work.	21	0	8	0	29
9. Assist supervisor with his or her work.	24	0	4	1	29
10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.	13	4	7	5	29
11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.	7	2	17	3	29
12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.	16	4	7	2	29
13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.	11	6	9	3	29
14. Assist others with their duties.	21	0	8	0	29
15. Attend school meetings actively.	15	3	6	5	29
16. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	22	1	6	0	29
17. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.	13	4	9	3	29
18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.	18	0	6	5	29
19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.	10	6	8	5	29
20. Come to work more often than most of the people.	9	3	14	3	29

The frequency scores for table 7.1-7.6 have been assigned into 3 categories: (1) below 15 is referred to as low, (2) 15-22 as moderate, and (3) 23 and over as high.

For Table 7.1, high scores in 'Both' column are shown by respondents' (subordinates and supervisors) responses to item numbers 1, 2, 7, and 9, where both parties report that the subordinate exhibits these behaviours in performing their tasks. For items number 3, 4, 8, 12, 14, 15, 16, and 18, the frequency of subordinates and supervisors both responding that the items are performed by the subordinate is moderate. Items number 5, 6, 10, 11, 17, 19, and 20, show a low level of score in column 1 but some scores in column 3. *That is, subordinates have performed each of these items, which are OCB behaviours, but the supervisor does not report having seen their performance.* For example item 5 – a total of 24 subordinates (12 from the 'Both' column and 12 from the 'Sub only' column) report that they do show this behaviour. By contrast only 12 supervisors agree.

Table 7.2 shows the total frequency of responses where only the subordinate and supervisor classifies the items as one he/she carries out. The third column shows the total number of responses (from table 7.1, column 1 + column 3) where the subordinate classifies the item as one carried out by the subordinate.

The sixth column shows the total number of responses (from table 7.1, column 1 + column 4) where the supervisor classifies the item as one carried out by the subordinate.

Table 7.2: Total frequency of only the subordinate and only the supervisor indicating that subordinate performs behaviours of each questionnaire item

Question	Both	Sub only	Total	Both	Sup only	Total
1. Help his/her colleagues to perform their job better.	24	4	28	24	1	25
2. Co-operate well with those around him/her.	26	3	29	26	0	26
3. Make positive statements about the department.	20	5	25	20	3	23
4. Protect university property.	21	6	27	21	2	23
5. Help others who have been absent.	12	12	24	12	0	12
6. Help others who have heavy workloads.	7	16	23	7	2	9
7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.	24	3	27	24	0	24
8. Does not take unnecessary time off work.	21	8	29	21	0	21
9. Assist supervisor with his or her work.	24	4	28	24	1	25
10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.	13	7	20	13	5	18
11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.	7	17	24	7	3	10
12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.	16	7	23	16	2	18
13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.	11	9	20	11	3	14
14. Assist others with their duties.	21	8	29	21	0	21
15. Attend school meetings actively.	15	6	21	15	5	20
16. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	22	6	28	22	0	22
17. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.	13	9	22	13	3	16
18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.	18	6	24	18	5	23
19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.	10	8	18	10	5	15
20. Come to work more often than most of the people.	9	14	23	9	3	12

Table 7.2 shows the total frequency of only the subordinate and only the supervisor response to the questionnaire items. For items 2, 8, and 14, all subordinates report that they carry out these activities. The lowest total of eighteen is for item 19. All subordinates report to item numbers 2, 8, and 14. Interestingly, when considering the response rates of ‘subordinates only’ compared with those of ‘supervisor only’ for each item of the questionnaire, the frequency of response rates of subordinates is higher than that of the supervisors for each item. *That is, subordinates report that they perform the behaviours as part of their work more often than their supervisors see.*

Table 7.3 shows the frequency of subordinate and supervisor responses over whether items are in-role behaviours for subordinates. Column one shows the total number of responses where both subordinate and supervisor classify the item as in-role behaviour for the subordinate. Column two shows the total number of responses where neither supervisor nor subordinate classifies the items as in-role behaviour. And then column three shows the frequency of responses where only the subordinate classifies the items as in-role behaviour. Column four shows the frequency of responses where only the supervisor classifies the items as in-role behaviour. Column five then shows the total responses.

Table 7.3: Frequency of subordinate-ratings (self-ratings) and supervisor-ratings indicating that behaviours are in-role

Question	Both	Neither	Sub only	Sup only	Total
1. Help his/her colleagues to perform their job better.	8	5	4	12	29
2. Co-operate well with those around him/her.	15	2	3	9	29
3. Make positive statements about the department.	14	3	3	9	29
4. Protect university property.	15	1	7	6	29
5. Help others who have been absent.	1	17	6	5	29
6. Help others who have heavy workloads.	1	21	4	3	29
7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.	28	0	0	1	29
8. Does not take unnecessary time off work.	27	0	1	1	29
9. Assist supervisor with his or her work.	15	5	5	4	29
10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.	0	18	4	7	29
11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.	9	9	8	3	29
12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.	11	3	6	9	29
13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.	5	12	5	7	29
14. Assist others with their duties.	7	10	4	8	29
15. Attend school meetings actively.	23	0	4	2	29
16. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	6	11	3	9	29
17. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.	7	9	3	10	29
18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.	20	0	4	5	29
19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.	16	2	7	4	29
20. Come to work more often than most of the people.	21	2	2	4	29

As presented in table 7.3, a large number of subordinate-ratings (self-ratings) and supervisor-ratings indicate in-role behaviours. High agreement is shown by respondents' (subordinates and supervisors) responses to the Items number 7, 8, and 15, show high ratings, as in-role behaviours where both parties view these behaviours as in-role

behaviours. The response rates of subordinates and supervisors of item 2, 4, 9, 18, 19, and 20 show moderate classification as in-role. The item number 1, 3, 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, and 17 show low levels of classification as in-role. That is, *supervisors and subordinates are reluctant to consider these behaviours as in-role.*

Table 7.4 shows the total frequency of subordinate-ratings (self-ratings) and supervisor-ratings indicating in-role behaviours. The third column shows the total number of responses where only the subordinate classifies the item as in-role.

The column six shows the total number of responses where only the supervisor classifies the item as in-role.

Table 7.4: Total frequency of subordinate-ratings (self-ratings) and supervisor-ratings indicating that behaviours are in-role

Question	Both	Sub only	Total	Both	Sup only	Total
1. Help his/her colleagues to perform their job better.	8	4	12	8	12	20
2. Co-operate well with those around him/her.	15	3	18	15	9	24
3. Make positive statements about the department.	14	3	17	14	9	23
4. Protect university property.	15	7	22	15	6	21
5. Help others who have been absent.	1	6	7	1	5	6
6. Help others who have heavy workloads.	1	4	5	1	3	4
7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.	28	0	28	28	1	29
8. Does not take unnecessary time off work.	27	1	28	27	1	28
9. Assist supervisor with his or her work.	15	5	20	15	4	19
10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.	0	4	4	0	7	7
11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.	9	8	17	9	3	12
12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.	11	6	17	11	9	20
13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.	5	5	10	5	7	12
14. Assist others with their duties.	7	4	11	7	8	15
15. Attend school meetings actively.	23	4	27	23	2	25
16. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	6	3	9	6	9	15
17. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.	7	3	10	7	10	17
18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.	20	4	24	20	5	25
19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.	16	7	23	16	4	20
20. Come to work more often than most of the people.	21	2	23	21	4	25

For the behaviours shown in the item numbers 4, 5, 6, 9, 11, 15, and 19, the ratio of total score of subordinate considering these behaviours as in-role behaviours is higher than those of supervisors. But only for items 11 and 19 are the differences greater than 2. Item number 8 presents the same ratio of total score of subordinate-ratings and supervisor-ratings for in-role behaviour. Items 1, 2, 3, 7, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, and 20, the frequency of supervisors rating the item as in-role is higher than that of subordinates. For all of these except for 7, 13, and 20, the differences are greater than two. Comparing these three categories of these items, therefore, *supervisors are likely to consider more behaviours part of subordinates' work more than subordinates do.*

Table 7.5 shows the frequency of subordinate and supervisor responses over whether items are extra-role behaviours for subordinates. This table is a mirror reflection from table 7.3 because the respondents were asked to choose only one choice from either in-role or extra-role behaviour. Therefore, if both subordinate and supervisor classify the items as in-role behaviours in column one (table 7.3), then, the same score would appear in column two (table 7.5) which neither subordinate nor supervisor classify the item as extra-role behaviour. For example, the results from the first item in table 7.3 shows that column one (both) score 8, and column two (neither) score 5. So, the results in the first item in table 7.5 would score 5 in column one (both) and score 8 in column two (neither).

Again, the same reason as above, if only the subordinate responses (column three) over whether items are in-role behaviours for subordinates in table 7.3. then, the same score would appear in column four (table 7.5) which only the supervisor indicates the item as extra-role behaviour. For example, the results from the first item in table 7.3

shows that column three (subordinate only) score 4, and column four (supervisor only) score 12. So, the results in the first item in table 7.5 would score 12 in column three (subordinate only) and score 4 in column four (supervisor only).

Table 7.5: Frequency of subordinate-ratings (self-ratings) and supervisor-ratings indicating that behaviours are extra-role

Question	Both	Neither	Sub only	Sup only	Total
1. Help his/her colleagues to perform their job better.	5	8	12	4	29
2. Co-operate well with those around him/her.	2	15	9	3	29
3. Make positive statements about the department.	3	14	9	3	29
4. Protect university property.	1	15	6	7	29
5. Help others who have been absent.	17	1	5	6	29
6. Help others who have heavy workloads.	21	1	3	4	29
7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.	0	28	1	0	29
8. Does not take unnecessary time off work.	0	27	1	1	29
9. Assist supervisor with his or her work.	5	15	4	5	29
10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.	18	0	7	4	29
11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.	9	9	3	8	29
12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.	3	11	9	6	29
13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.	12	5	7	5	29
14. Assist others with their duties.	10	7	8	4	29
15. Attend school meetings actively.	0	23	2	4	29
16. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	11	6	9	3	29
17. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.	9	7	10	3	29
18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.	0	20	5	4	29
19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.	2	16	4	7	29
20. Come to work more often than most of the people.	2	21	4	2	29

Table 7.5 displays the frequency of subordinate-ratings (self-ratings) and supervisor-ratings indicating extra-role behaviours. There is no high classification shown by respondents' (subordinates and supervisors) responses to the item where both parties report that the subordinates view these behaviours are extra-role behaviours. Items 5, 6, and 10, show moderate levels of agreement. Seventeen items show low levels of classification. Particularly for items 7, 8, 15, and 18, there are no responses to the item where both parties report that these behaviours are extra-role behaviours. *That is, the subordinates and supervisors are sure that these behaviours are not extra-role behaviours.*

Table 7.6 shows the total frequency of subordinate-ratings (self-ratings) and supervisor-ratings indicating extra-role behaviours. Column three shows the total number of responses where only the subordinate classifies the item as extra-role behaviour.

Column six shows the total number of responses where only the supervisor classifies the item as extra-role behaviour.

Table 7.6: Total frequency of subordinate-ratings (self-ratings) and supervisor-ratings indicating that behaviours are extra-role

Question	Both	Sub only	Total	Both	Sup only	Total
1. Help his/her colleagues to perform their job better.	5	12	17	5	4	9
2. Co-operate well with those around him/her.	2	9	11	2	3	5
3. Make positive statements about the department.	3	9	12	3	3	6
4. Protect university property.	1	6	7	1	7	8
5. Help others who have been absent.	17	5	22	17	6	23
6. Help others who have heavy workloads.	21	3	24	21	4	25
7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.	0	1	1	0	0	0
8. Does not take unnecessary time off work.	0	1	1	0	1	1
9. Assist supervisor with his or her work.	5	4	9	5	5	10
10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.	18	7	25	18	4	22
11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.	9	3	12	9	8	17
12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.	3	9	12	3	6	9
13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.	12	7	19	12	5	17
14. Assist others with their duties.	10	8	18	10	4	14
15. Attend school meetings actively.	0	2	2	0	4	4
16. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	11	9	20	11	3	14
17. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.	9	10	19	9	3	12
18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.	0	5	5	0	4	4
19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.	2	4	6	2	7	9
20. Come to work more often than most of the people.	2	4	6	2	2	4

As Table 7.6 is a mirror reflection of table 7.4, therefore, when taking account of either total score of subordinates' response rates or supervisors' response rates for each item of the questionnaire, the frequency of response rates of total score of subordinate only is higher than that of supervisor only for all questionnaire items. *That is, subordinates consider the behaviours shown in each item as extra-role behaviours more than supervisors do.*

The results from Table 7.1-7.2 show that there are ten items, 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 14, 16, and 18, which are obviously done by the subordinate. There are no items, where both parties obviously agree that subordinates do perform the behaviour. Items number 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 17, 19, and 20, shows fuzziness in that the two parties do not appear to be sure if the subordinate does the behaviour in the item.

For Tables 7.3-7.6, when considering the responses from both parties in terms of agreement over each item, the results can be assigned into 3 categories: 1) the behaviour in the item is agreed as in-role; 2) the behaviour is agreed to be extra-role; 3) the parties involved are not sure if the behaviour in the item is in-role or extra-role–fuzziness.

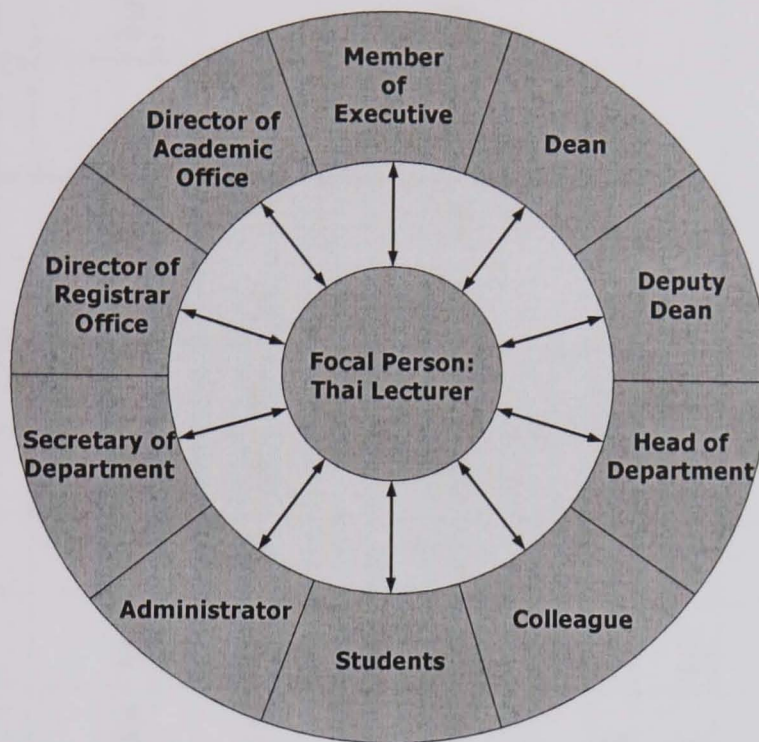
There are five items, 7, 8, 15, 18, and 20, which show both parties agreeing that these are in-role behaviours. Items number 5, 6, and 10 are extra-role behaviours. The items number 11 and 17 show fuzziness that is some respondents say they are in-role. some saying they are extra-role.

In conclusion, the results from questionnaire revealed that the respondents who were employees perform the extra-role behaviours on their routine work and supervisors acknowledge their performance. When comparing the perceptions of behaviour in each item between employees and supervisors, the results show that the employees and their supervisors had different views on behaviours. That is, the supervisors included more job behaviours as part of their employees' work than employees did. However, the results also show that subordinates perform these behaviours as part of their work more often than supervisors see.

7.4 Results from Pictorial Representations

Figure 7.1 shows an example of the set of role senders identified by one particular lecturer, using the pictorial instrument. The diagram does not indicate either the frequency or the intensity of influence exerted by each role sender, though such data was obtained using the pictorial instrument during the interviews. Full details of such levels of frequency and intensity are given in Table 7.7.

Figure 7: An example of a Thai lecturer's role-set



[Format of the illustration adapted from Zanden, V. & Wilfrid, J. (1979): *Sociology*, New York: John Wiley & Sons, p.114.]

Table 7.7 illustrates the overall frequency of subordinates and supervisors responses to each role-sender. The first row shows the supervisor where the supervisees from and the subordinates read supervisor are shown in the second row. The subsequently row shows the frequency of contact and intensity of influence of each role-sender for each role occupant. There are, for example, two Heads of Financial Department, two Heads of Marketing Department, and so on.

Table 7.7 Pictorial data

Supervisor	F I N 1												F I N 2											
Subordinate	1		3			4		6		16		17		23		24								
Role sender	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in	fr	in								
President			A	Y/-	5/-																			
Vice President			A	M/-	5/-																			
Dean	B	-/4	AB	D/-	5/5	AB	W/-	4/4	AB	M/-	4/4	AB	M/-	4/4	B	-/4	AB	W/-	5/4	AB	M/-	5/4		
Assoc. Dean																								
Assit. Dean for Academic Affairs	B	-/4	AB	W/-	4/4	AB	W/-	4/4	B	-/4	AB	W/-	4/4	AB	M/-	5/4								
Assit. Dean for Student Affairs	B	-/5	A	W/-	4/-	A	W/-	4/-			A	W/-	4/-											
Head of Department	AB	D/-	4/5			AB	D/-	4/5	AB	D/-	4/5	AB	D/-	4/5	AB	D/-	5/5	AB	2/W/-	3/4	AB	W/-	5/4	
Secretary of Department																								
Colleague	A	D/-	3/-	A	D/-	5/-	A	D/-	4/-	A	D/-	4/-	A	D/-	4/-	A	D/-	4/-	A	2/W/-	4/-	A	3/Y/-	4/-
Administrator															A	W/-	3/-							
Students	A	D/-	4/-			A	D/-	5/-	A	W/-	5/-	A	D/-	5/-	A	D/-	4/-							
Director of Academic Affair Office			A	M/-	4/-																			
Director of Registrar Office			A	M/-	4/-																			

Abbreviation

FIN: Department of Finance

MKT: Department of Marketing

HRM: Department of Human Resource Management

MGT: Department of Management

INMGT: Department of Industrial Management

fr: Frequency of Interaction -

D: Daily

W: Weekly

M: Monthly

Y: Yearly

in: Intensity of Influential -

1: not influential

2: little influential

3: moderate

4: influential

5: most influential

A: Subordinate rating

B: Supervisor rating

Supervisor	H R M 1									H R M 2						M G T 1								
Subordinate	5			9			12			25			26			8		15		20				
Role sender	fr	in		fr	in		fr	in		fr	in		fr	in		fr	in		fr	in		fr	in	
President																								
Vice President	A	Y/-	4.5/-	A	M/-	4/-							A	Y/-	4/-									
Dean	AB	W/-	4.5/5	AB	M/-	5/5	AB	W/-	3/5	AB	M/-	2/4	AB	M/-	2/4	A	W/-	4/-	A	M/-	4/-			
Assoc. Dean										AB	M/-	4/4	AB	W/-	4/4									
Assit. Dean for Academic Affairs	B		-/5	B		-/5	B		-/5							A	W/-	3/-						
Assit. Dean for Student Affairs	B		-/5	B		-/5	B		-/5							A	W/-	3/-						
Head of Department	AB	D/-	4.5/4	B		-/5	AB	D/-	4/5	AB	D/-	3/5	AB	D/-	3/5	AB	D/-	3/5	AB	D/-	4/5	AB	D/-	4/5
Secretary of Department										B		-/4												
Colleague				A	D/-	3/-	A	D/-	4/-	B		-/4	B		-/4	B		-/4	AB	D/-	5/4	AB	D/-	4/4
Administrator	B		-/4	B		-/4	B		-/4							A	D/-	4/-				A	D/-	3/-
Students	AB	D/-	5/5	B		-/5	AB	D/-	5/5				A	D/-	5/-	AB	D/-	4/5	AB	D/-	5/5	AB	W/-	5/5
Director of Academic Affair Office																								
Director of Registrar Office																								

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in: Intensity of Influential -

1: not influential

2: little influential

3: moderate

4: influential

5: most influential

A: Subordinate rating

B: Supervisor rating

Supervisor	M G T 2						I N M G T								
Subordinate	21			22			11			18			19		
Role sender	fr	in		fr	in		fr	in		fr	in		fr	in	
President															
Vice President															
Dean	AB	2/Y/-	3/3	A	W/-	4/-	AB	W/-	3/5	AB	M/-	4/5	AB	M/-	3/5
Assoc. Dean															
Assit. Dean for Academic Affairs				A	W/-	4/-	A	D/-	4/-	A	W/-	4/-	A	W/-	3/-
Assit. Dean for Student Affairs							A	D/-	4/-	A	W/-	4/-	A	W/-	4/-
Head of Department	A	M/-	4/-	A	W/-	5/-	AB	D/-	5/5	AB	D/-	4/5	A	D/-	5/-
Secretary of Department															
Colleague	AB	D/-	4/3	AB	D/-	5/4				AB	D/-	4/5	AB	D/-	5/5
Administrator															
Students							B	-/-	-/5	AB	D/-	5/5	B	-/-	-/5
Director of Academic Affair Office															
Director of Registrar Office															

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D: Daily

W: Weekly

M: Monthly

Y: Yearly

in: Intensity of Influential -

1: not influential

2: little influential

3: moderate

4: influential

5: most influential

A: Subordinate rating

B: Supervisor rating

Table 7.8 shows the frequency of subordinate and supervisor responses to the role sender. The first two columns show the total number of responses where both subordinate and supervisor identify the role sender for subordinate; the second column where neither identify it that way.

Column three and four show respectively: the frequency of responses where only the subordinate identify the role sender for subordinate; where only the supervisor identifies the role sender for subordinate.

Table 7.8: Frequency of overall response to the role sender

Role sender	Both	Neither	Sub only	Sup only	Total
Executive	0	24	5	0	29
Dean	21	1	4	3	29
Deputy Dean	11	5	6	7	29
Head of Department	22	1	4	2	29
Secretary of Department	0	27	1	1	29
Colleague	11	2	11	5	29
Administrator	3	17	4	5	29
Students	8	7	11	3	29
Director of Academic Affairs Office	0	27	2	0	29
Director of Registrar Office	0	28	1	0	29

Table 7.8 illustrates the overall frequency of subordinates' (self) and supervisors' (others) responses to each role sender for subordinates. In terms of those roles where subordinate and supervisor's agree, the Head of school has the highest response rate (22 respondents). The other persons who would be in this group are Dean (21 respondents), Deputy dean and Colleague (11 respondents), and Students (8 respondents). Meanwhile,

the frequency of neither agreeing Director of registrar office has been viewed to be the highest response rate (28 respondents). Other persons who have got the higher frequency are Director of academic affairs office (27 respondents), Secretary of department (27 respondents), and Administrator (17 respondents). *As the results, the both parties have strong agreed that the head of department and the dean are their role senders for subordinates.*

Table 7.9 shows the total frequency of responses where only the subordinate and supervisor identify the role sender for subordinate. The third column shows the total number of responses (from table 7.8, column one + column three) where only the subordinate identify the role sender for subordinate. The sixth column shows the total number of responses (from table 7.8, column one + column four) where only the supervisor identifies the role sender for subordinate.

Table 7.9: Total frequency of only the subordinate and only the supervisor response to the role sender

Role sender	Both	Sup only	Total	Both	Sup only	Total
Executive	0	5	5	0	0	0
Dean	21	4	25	21	3	24
Deputy Dean	11	6	17	11	7	18
Head of Department	22	4	26	22	2	24
Secretary of Department	0	1	1	0	1	1
Colleague	11	11	22	11	5	16
Administrator	3	4	7	3	5	8
Students	8	11	19	8	3	11
Director of Academic Affairs Office	0	2	2	0	0	0
Director of Registrar Office	0	1	1	0	0	0

Table 7.9 shows the total frequency of only the subordinate and only the supervisor response to the role sender. When considering to frequency on either subordinate or supervisor only, most of subordinate citation is higher than supervisor citation. In this time, one more role sender, colleagues (22 respondents), has been cited on the high level response by subordinates. *That is, subordinates viewed that they have more role sender than supervisor see.*

Table 7.10: Cross-tabulation between intensity of interaction and frequency of interaction viewed by subordinate

Role sender	Frequency of Interaction	Intensity of Influence						Total
		none	little influence	moderate	Influence	more than Influence	most influence	
Executive	-None	24						24
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly				1			1
	-Few months a year						1	1
	-Yearly				1	1	1	3
Total		24			2	1	2	29
Dean	-None	4						4
	-Daily						1	1
	-Few days a week				1			1
	-Weekly			3	3	1	3	10
	-Monthly		2	1	5		4	12
	-Few months a year			1				1
	-Yearly							
Total		4	2	5	9	1	8	29
Deputy Dean	-None	14						14
	-Daily				2		1	3
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly			2	7			9
	-Monthly				2		1	3
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		14		2	11		2	29
Head of Department	-None	3						3
	-Daily			3	8	1	9	21
	-Few days a week			1				1
	-Weekly				1		2	3
	-Monthly				1			1
	-Few months a year							
	-Yearly							
Total		3		4	10	1	11	29
Secretary of Department	-None	28						28
	-Daily						1	1
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly							
-Few months								

	a year -Yearly							
Total		28					1	29
Colleague	-None	7						7
	-Daily		2		13		1	20
	-Few days a week				1		4	1
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly				1			
	-Few months a year -Yearly							1
Total		7	2	15	1	4		29
Administrator	-None	22						22
	-Daily		1		4		1	6
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly		1					1
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year -Yearly							
Total		22	2	4	1			29
Students	-None	10						10
	-Daily				3		12	15
	-Few days a week				1			1
	-Weekly						3	3
	-Monthly							
	-Few months a year -Yearly							
Total		10		4		15		29
Director of Academic Affair Office	-None	27						27
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly				1		1	2
	-Few months a year -Yearly							
Total		27		1		1		29
Director of Registrar Office	-None	28						28
	-Daily							
	-Few days a week							
	-Weekly							
	-Monthly				1			1
	-Few months a year -Yearly							
Total		28		1				29

As shown in table 7.10, a clear majority of the respondents who are subordinates revealed that they are not on contact with and do not attach importance to members of executive, secretary of department, administrator, Director of academic affairs office, and Director of registrar office. When considering the category with the greatest influence, 15 respondents who are subordinates choose students as their role sender; 11 respondents choose head of department as their role sender; and 8 respondents choose dean as their role sender. Another interesting point is in influence category, that is, 15 percent of the respondents view colleagues as their role sender; 11 respondents view deputy dean as their role sender; 10 respondents view head of department as their role sender; and 9 respondents view dean as their role sender.

With regard to frequency of interaction between respondents and the role sender, the data revealed that 21 respondents have contact with head of department daily; 20 respondents have contact with colleagues; 15 respondents has contact with students weekly; 9 respondents contact with deputy dean weekly; and 12 respondents contact with their dean monthly.

When taking intensity of interaction and frequency of interaction into account, role senders of the two categories are in the same group. As a result above, it tends to be a positive relationship. That is, the more respondents interact with role sender, the more role sender is influential in the respondents' job.

Table 7.11: The total number of respondents from influence to most influence level classifying each role sender

Role sender	Total number of respondent from influence to most influence
Executive	5
Dean	18
Deputy Dean	12
Head of Department	22
Secretary of Department	1
Colleague	20
Administrator	5
Students	19
Director of Academic Affair Office	2
Director of Registrar Office	1

Table 7.11 provides illustration of the role-set of members of academic staff from 4 Thai universities. The greater part of participants revealed that his/her role senders are Head of Department (22 participants), Colleagues (20 participants), Students (19 participants), Dean (18 participants), and Deputy Dean (12 participants) respectively.

7.5 Summary

The results from the interview revealed that the participants learned of their job duties and responsibilities from many sources including job description, orientation (induction), department meeting, immediate supervisor, and previous experience or learning by themselves. The important role-senders for Thai lecturer comprise Head of Department, Colleagues, Students, Dean and Deputy Dean respectively.

In terms of duty and responsibility, the data revealed that the main area of duty and responsibility are teaching and student advisor. The results showed that the student advisor duty seems to be a heavy burden for Thai lecturers because it was not only giving academic counselling but also helping their students to sort out personal problems. Other duties and responsibilities are setting extra-curriculum activities and academic writing or research.

Although there are many sources of learning how to do the job, some participants remarked that they did not go into sufficient detail. That is why sometimes they are uncertain whether what they do is within their role. The interviews also suggested that some participants often devote themselves to their jobs such as helping to take other lecturers' class when he/she is ill or absent, providing recommendations for curriculum development and so forth.

In terms of expectations, the participants perceived that their supervisor expected them to complete assignments and obey rules, students expected them to deliver interesting and clear lecture and earn good grades, and colleagues expected them to be being cooperative.

The results also revealed that the employees have performed the extra-role behaviours on their routine work. In addition, the subordinates perform these behaviours as part of their work more often than supervisors see. Finally, the supervisors included more job behaviours as part of their employees' work than employees did.

Chapter Eight

The Role of the Lecturer in the UK New University and the Thai Private University: Similarities and Differences

8.1 Introduction

Having considered the role of academic staffs in the two countries separately, this chapter now draws these discussions together to identify and discuss similarities and differences. The study examines lecturers' role behaviours in UK and Thai private universities. To gain a basic understanding of the nature of a lecturer's job-role, this part of the analysis and comparison begins with a description of the evolution of the Thai and UK education systems. Their evolution can be seen as responses to important changes in society and economic and public policy because these factors have had dramatic impacts on the education system. These changes are also examined in the light of the responses of the interviewees in the current study.

8.2 The work of UK academics

In common with all sectors of education in the United Kingdom during the 1990s, higher education underwent a period of rapid change. Many of these changes were the result of central government policies designed to increase student numbers, obtain better

value for money and improve accountability through the imposition of a range of quality-control mechanisms (Evans & Abbott, 1998).

The entire system was radically reformed by the removal in 1992 of the '*binary divide*' between universities and polytechnics, accompanying an unprecedented growth in student numbers, changes to funding mechanisms and an obsession with quality control measured by external assessors (Hill, 1996).

As increased central control was being imposed, the government was putting pressure on the universities to treat university education as a marketable product by encouraging competition between institutions and greater choice for students (Johnson, 1994).

The marketisation of university education has led to continued government pressure on universities to maintain quality. The introduction of mechanisms designed to measure standards across all higher-education institutions in areas such as teaching and research has ensured that the government has put in place a number of external controls. As a consequence, more emphasis has been placed on applied research, collegiality has been reduced and pressure to raise standards has been linked to funding (Evans & Abbott, 1998).

The ranking of universities according to their research records is bound to have an impact on their overall profile. Those enjoying a higher ranking will find it easier to attract leading researchers onto their staff and may devote more of their resources to research. Some universities may find themselves concentrating on teaching, with

research being squeezed to the margins and based specifically around curriculum areas. These developments are likely to have a profound effect on the attitudes of academic staff to their work, and will impact upon the nature of their jobs.

Webb (1999) wrote that in the UK 5.8 million people worked in education, medical, welfare and government jobs. He argued that their work had changed and that they were increasingly directed and controlled, trusted less and monitored more. Where their work had once been reliant on reciprocity and cooperation, these were being displaced by market relationships, insularity and competition.

Academic life, once considered a low-stress area, has increasingly been understood to be stressful for a growing number of academic staff (Fisher, 1994; Soliman & Soliman, 1997). Academic staff widely report longer hours of work, more marking to be done and raised expectations of publication and service to the community (Thorsen, 1996; McInnis, 2000). These changes can be especially threatening for academic staffs who were appointed primarily to teach and who may be clustered in newer universities and are the subject of this thesis. One of the UK respondents in this study, who is a Divisional Leader, commented that,

“I think, generally speaking, within the University sector of lecturers, the amount of expectations are increasing all the time. There is more pressure to provide quality teaching. The pressures are coming from the government; it brings a lot of pressure. And the University has to apply that pressure to get a good score in terms of university ratings. But then, the university expects, even when teaching is good, that there are other things, which people have to do like research, consultancy, and administration generally. Those seem to increase all the time. So those pressures certainly are greater and greater. I would say that, from a personal point of view, increasing all of those expectations has put a lot of pressures on people and I’m sure that most people feel they can’t meet all the expectations. Certainly, I can’t meet all of those expectations. So I just try to sort

out what the priorities are and keep the people who seem important to me, keep them happy. Another thing to me, not for my satisfaction but certainly in terms of my main commitment is just to make sure that they are okay. No! not just okay, but to keep them within good quality.”

Teaching and academic life generally has changed in the past quarter of a century and will continue to become different. Henkel (2000) recalls that the experience of becoming an academic in Britain in the 1960s and 1970s was that of a golden age in which individuals were free to pursue their own goals at their own pace. Posts were easier to get, a first class degree was a great help but a PhD was not vital, especially in polytechnics where research was not something that staff were generally expected to do (although people did research out of interest in their teaching). Young staff were assumed to be functioning, independent practitioners, within the dominant norm of self-regulation (Henkel, 2000).

The 1980s and 1990s were different. Senior academics saw their younger colleagues having a more sophisticated understanding of the demands of an academic career and the skills and knowledge to be successful. They were also perceived to be more focused and efficient in the allocation of their time (Henkel, 2000). To survive in this risky environment they had to be ready to change direction to accommodate work and opportunities on offer. Degrees of academic independence on appointment were found to vary, especially between pre- and post-1992 universities. The experience of short-term contract work was common and was combined with a constant pressure to compete, particularly by publishing.

Because of the external pressures, the universities needed to reorganise their management system to continuously adapt to new situations as a consequence of the developing education system and difficulties encountered. These changes gave rise to displaying a new behaviour and performing modified roles for their staffs. One interesting example was the student support system in the UK.

The earliest UK universities were established as religious foundation. The medieval university had the character more of a boarding school, with the teachers taking an explicit moral responsibility for their charges. University teachers were clearly expected to keep control over their students. This disciplinary oversight was understood as having a religious as well as a moral dimension, by virtue of the fact that teachers would all be ordained clergymen. Thus, the young student was entrusted to the charge of someone older and supposedly wiser to act explicitly as a moral guide and father-figure.

This goes a long way to explain why student support has been conceived in terms of 'pastoral care', with strong religious and moral overtones. As is well-known, the oldest universities were groupings of small self-governing colleges, each of which was organised as a community. This upholds an ideal in which staff-student relationships are built around intimate and relaxed one-to-one tutorials, and student-student relationships are encouraged by extensive opportunity for peer support. These might be called the '*amateur tradition*' (Earwalker, 1992).

The foundations of the thirty polytechnics at the end of the 1960s represented an explicit break with the university tradition. The designation of several new polytechnics at the beginning of the 1990s might be thought to confirm this radical shift away from

traditional forms of higher education. Old ideals were often transformed out of all recognition, but they did not disappear without trace.

As publicly funded institutions under the control of local education authorities and lacking the independence of the universities, the polytechnics were subject to financial pressure and economic constraints which bore much more heavily on the public sector. The polytechnics consequently led the way in admitting more non-traditional students, a group likely to be in particular need of help and support.

The polytechnics quickly established Departments of Student Services offering a comprehensive services including help with accommodation, medical attention, careers advice and counselling, services which in many universities were relatively undeveloped or uncoordinated. Student support was to be carried out by those who were specially trained, properly qualified and specifically appointed to the task. This kind of provision was clearly derived from an attempt to reshape and re-appropriate a very traditional concept of higher education. This might be called '*professional counselling*' (Earwalker, 1992).

8.3 The work of Thai academics

Thailand's higher education has been integrated into national development plans since their inception in the early 1960s. Education in Thailand was once only available to the rich and upper classes (Ministry of University Affairs, 1995). Since the first National Economic Development Plan, the demand for greater educational opportunities for all has increased dramatically. To allow more opportunity to more people, the government has

implemented policies intended to disseminate tertiary level education to every region of the Kingdom and has established regional universities in many areas since the mid 1960s. However, the number of universities of this nature is still insufficient to respond to the needs of the nation and those who desire to learn. To ease this pressure, the government has encouraged further private investment in higher education institutions. Moreover, these colleges were designated as universities after *the Private College Act of 1979*. Thus increasing the overall number of universities is also another method of providing greater educational opportunities to a greater number of people. Since that time, the private universities have helped lessen the burden of the government in providing higher education to students who otherwise would have had no such training, since the limited numbers of public universities could not satisfy the demand of the people for higher education.

Since 1979, the Ministry of University Affairs has been the coordinating agency between the government and private tertiary institutions. The Office of the Permanent Secretary serves as secretariat to the Private University Committee which gives advice to the Ministry of University Affairs on the relevant rules and regulations needed to ensure the standards and accreditation of private higher education institutions. The committee also considers granting approval to the programmes of study offered by these institutions.

Kulachon (1997) conducted research on private colleges in Thailand from 1974. He identified the problems private colleges in Thailand encountered, and then suggested solutions to those problems as follows:

- There was much difficulty in recruiting highly qualified full-time staff members of the private universities because private higher education in Thailand was relatively new and needed more time to become well known. He suggested that the Thai government should give support to the private colleges in the area of faculty development by providing scholarships to administrators and teaching staff members for further training.
- The private universities have encountered lack of government support in areas such as providing loans to private universities with low interest rates, allowing tax credit for voluntary contributions to private universities, giving grants and scholarships to a number of students in the private universities and providing funds for building construction.
- The gap in tuition and fees between public and private university was huge. For instance, the tuition fee of undergraduate at public universities was 40-200 baht/credit hour while at private universities was 500-1,800 baht/credit hour (Ministry of University Affairs, 2002). He suggested that the Thai government should increase the tuition and fees in the public universities or give financial support to the private colleges to reduce the gap between the two sectors.
- Finally, he suggested that the external examiner and control systems should be abolished and more autonomy and freedom granted to the private colleges in conducting their operations (Kulachon, 1997).

Although after the 1980s Thai private colleges were granted university status, the problems above remained due to lack of government support. As a result, the tuition fees

of private universities were higher than these of public universities. However, several private universities attempted to enhance the quality of their full-time staff members, providing scholarships to study abroad and in Thailand.

Furthermore, the experiences of the author suggest that the quality of students who gain entry to public universities is higher than private universities. Most of the private university students have failed to pass the national university entrance examination. Therefore, private university was a second choice for students to study in higher education. This is consistent with the views of respondents in the current research study.

For example:

The 5th respondent of the Thai sample said in the interview that,

“In my first few years, I expected quite a lot from students. I thought there was no difference between private and public university students. Public universities have better quality students by using exams to select them. Therefore, private university students have different knowledge levels. At first, I had high expectations for them but after I had taught for 6 years I reduced my expectations and focused on those with lower expectations rather than those with higher expectations, because this group has more problems with their grades and I had to reduce my standards quite a lot. Personally, I would love to see them spending their lives safely in society and achieving their goals by applying the knowledge that I taught. No matter if they use the knowledge that I taught or not, I have been training to teach them to survive in society”.

The 13th respondent of the Thai sample said that he taught marketing research; but the students were weak in mathematics. Thus he needed to provide the students with grounding in mathematics first, even though it was not his duty.

The 18th respondent of the Thai sample reported that a student-centred approach to teaching was adopted. Further, she said that she learnt of the students' basics of knowledge so as to prepare teaching methods. When a student was too weak to follow a lesson, great care was needed; she acted as a support.

Because of the above reasons, lecturers in private universities had too much work to carry out, resulting in quite a low quality of private university students. It is therefore recognised that the private university students were of poor quality in comparison with public university students.

Although the tuition fees of private universities were higher than those of public universities, the problems of insufficient facilities for study existed because the private universities lacked the support of their government. Examples include:

The 10th respondent of the Thai sample said that many lecturers needed text books and academic journals and then made a request for the materials. They expected that the university would comply with the request because those materials were necessary for teaching. Against their expectations, the university tried to save on such costs as much as possible.

The 16th respondent of the Thai sample said that,

“I used to request a budget to apply for a training programme, but this it is hard to do because there are so many rules and regulation for university approval”.

The 8th respondent of the Thai sample said that the university's school equipment was completely inadequate. For example, an overhead projector was available in each classroom, but many of them did not work. Regarding lecturer development, it seemed that the policy promoted developing lecturers. However, when a lecturer requested permission to attend a seminar and workshop at a cost of bath 7,000, her request was refused because it was too expensive. In the case of a seminar she wanted to go to free of charge, she obtained permission. In other words, the universities' actions were contrary to their policy.

To have a clearer understanding of the similarities and differences between UK and Thai academic staff in terms of in-role and extra-role behaviours, the discussion now turns to a comparison of the job characteristics leading to job roles and behaviours as described by respondents in the study. Results from the interview are summarised in table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Summary comparison of academic work between UK and Thai academic staff

Key areas of role	Job characteristic	
	UK	Thai
Teaching	Undergraduate and post graduate Programmes	Undergraduate programme
Academic advice	Academic issues	Academic issues / pastoral care
Research	Assigned to particular academic staff or institution, Personal interest	Personal interest
Managerial / administrative	Assigned to particular academic staff	Assigned to particular academic staff
Extracurricular activities	Assigned to particular academic staff or institution	Provide the activities based on teaching unit

Table 8.1 shows the nature of the work of academic staff in the two countries. There are some similarities and differences as follows:

- Teaching

Academic staff from both UK and Thai universities reported that teaching is their primary responsibility because it has been seen to be a core business to their divisions. However, there are differences in some aspects of responsibilities for the teaching programme. For example, lecturers in the Faculty of Business Administration of a Thai university only organise the teaching programme for undergraduates while postgraduate

programmes will be organised by the Graduate School. However, some lecturers are invited to teach on postgraduate programmes but this will not count as part of their normal responsibilities.

In Business School in UK universities, both undergraduate and postgraduate teaching programmes are organised by UK academic staff. Thus, some academic staff will be assigned to teach at both levels. For example, the second UK respondent reported that,

“My current responsibilities are in two areas. I teach at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. I’m teaching statistics and modelling related subjects. I am teaching modelling for decision making to level two undergraduate students. I am also teaching business research analysis (the quantitative aspects of business research) to level three undergraduates and postgraduates...”

The fifth UK respondent revealed that,

“Mainly, I interact with postgraduate and postgraduate research students. I don’t interact much with undergraduates except those who are doing dissertations. I spend more time than I should with both undergraduates and postgraduates when they’re doing dissertations...”

Moreover, the research result revealed that some UK academic staff will be asked to be supervisors of PhD students, e.g. the second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, eighth and ninth respondent. Referring to the interviews, the third respondent talked about his responsibilities as follows:

“First of all, I’m responsible for teaching strategic management and international business at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Secondly, I’m responsible for conducting research on my own and publishing. Thirdly, I’m responsible for

developing research in the Business School and that's not just my own research but I'm developing other people's research. Fourthly, I'm involved in advising PhD students (obviously, I have some other administrators) and I'm also teaching research students."

- Pastoral Care

In the past, pastoral care was approached in a peculiarly British way (Earwalker, 1992). It was believed that academic staffs have to take a great deal of interest in those they teach and to interpret their role as including a great deal more than just teaching. In a traditional British sense, academic staff in higher education had to take responsibility for every aspect of the student's life. However, there is now a recognition that student support must be carried out by those who are specially trained, properly qualified and specifically appointed to the task. Since 1990s, Departments of Student Services have been established by polytechnics. These new institutions offer consultancy and assistance to students in general aspects regarding their study, i.e. helping with accommodation, medical attention, career advice and counseling, etc. As a result, the responsibility to take a great deal of interest in students' lives has decreased as part of the role of UK lecturers. According to the results from the current study, there is only one UK respondent (the thirteenth respondent) reported that she helps students with personal problems.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the beginnings of Thai education were centralised in Buddhist monasteries, teaching both general education and moral standards to students. After the education reformation of the nineteenth century, the Western style of education has played a main role in Thai society. Thus, the important role of Buddhist monasteries in education has declined. Moreover, teaching work has been transferred from monks to teachers. As a result, Thai society has expected teachers to have as high moral standards

as the monks, and to show similar levels of kindness as parents do to their own children (Siwalak, 1989). These expectations and beliefs represent the roots of Thai education from then until now. The results from this study show that most Thai lecturers still take a great deal of interest in their students' lives as well as in their teaching role.

- Research

The interview results show that UK universities place emphasis on research work, and thus academic staffs have been delegated to conduct research study. According to the results from this study, although most UK lecturers wished to do research, some stated that they could not do much of it because of their heavy teaching burdens and lack of time. However, the results have also revealed that UK universities have supported research by establishing Centres of Business Excellence for generating research outputs in terms of paper and reports. Moreover, Business School also appoint academic staff as Research Coordinators to enhance research activities.

The interview results from Thai lecturers show that only a few lecturers are interested in carrying out research, but they have the same problems as UK lecturers of heavy teaching burdens and lack of time. Moreover, the observations of the researcher found that some universities in Thailand also do not emphasise and support lecturers sufficiently in carrying out research — where for example there is only one computer in a whole department and only one computer printer in the faculty.

- Managerial and Administrative Work

Managerial and administrative work has been seen to help teaching programmes to be effective and useful. Basically, such work is delegated to particular members of staff. Results from this study have revealed that there are many levels of management and administrative works which varies across the hierarchy in the faculty. For instance, the ninth UK respondent, who is a Divisional Leader, described his responsibility that,

“Well, the job title is Divisional Leader; I’m responsible for developing timetables, and the development of my colleagues in the Business Modelling Division. I’m a first line manager of 11-12 colleagues in the division. I’m teaching also. I take quite a heavy teaching load for a Divisional Leader but I enjoy teaching. So, partly teaching, partly of administrative, a little bit of research, and management within the division. And with that, because Divisional Leaders are members of the school management group, this requires co-operation between staff teaching various subjects.”

The sixth respondent, who is a Programme Director, described his managerial work as follows,

“My first responsibility, I think, is to act as Programme Director. Within the overall structure, I’m a part of the senior management group; one of my duties is to act as the manager within the school.”

On the other hand, Thai private universities appear to try to take advantage of their lecturers. That is, all lecturers are assigned administrative tasks. Most activities in Thai universities need the academic staff for their performance, i.e. providing public relation for the programmes, recruiting new students, conducting entrance examinations, supporting student relations activities, being advisors for student clubs, conducting

congregation ceremonies, etc. For example, the fifth Thai respondent described part of his responsibilities as,

“...Currently, I am assigned to be a department secretary. Within this role, I have to perform as an administrator such as arranging departmental meetings. In addition, I am also a member of the sub-committee for improving the quality of students in the faculty. As a member of this sub-committee, I am in charge of faculty activities such as organising induction, commencement and student loans, etc...”

As the result, lecturers have to spend considerable time at meetings and in processing activities. Further, sometimes they have a teaching role as well as committee work at the same time. Thus, some lecturers have to cancel classes. Excessive responsibilities for Thai lecturers lead to lack of time in preparing lectures as well as less efficiency in teaching. The first respondent from the Thai university argued that,

“Current problem is the unclear job description. I and my colleagues expected that we would do our best in teaching. So far, we are involved in many activities besides teaching. Before I jointed this institution, I thought I would have more time to do research and improve my teaching quality by merging technology and knowledge. But when I arrived, this was not what I thought, because we have such a lot of extra activities besides teaching. If you ask me, do I like to do student activities? In fact, I don't. If they want me to do so, I will. Actually I would like to do research but I have to spend time doing student activities...”

The results were consistent with the work of Shamar, Launglaor, & Thasnapark (2004) who found that Thai universities are burdening their academic staff with administrative and related tasks that do not really contribute to the principal mission of universities. Further, their study suggested that a majority of academics experienced

substantial increases in workloads with respect to teaching classes, other teaching-related activities and administration.

- Extracurricular Activities

Extracurricular activities can take many forms which enable the students to pursue individual development; for example, study tours, industrial visits and placement. Such activities will be conducive to making education more realistic. Therefore, extracurricular activities have been recognised as valuable for student development. Generally, UK academic staffs do not need to take responsibility for extracurricular activities. The seventh UK respondent reported that,

“Extracurricular activities, I wouldn’t include, I would class those as separate from my responsibilities. But in fact, I’m not really involved in any extracurricular activities....”

However, extracurricular activities will be delegated to certain academic staff to take responsibility for. As can be seen from the present research, the first UK respondent, who is a unit leader described her responsibility as follows,

“Well, I’m responsible for teaching different units and I’m unit leader of those particular units as well as being responsible for supervising dissertation students. I also have responsible for taking placement students and personal students in their first year, second year, and third year. Further, my admin role is that I’m in charge of placement and coordinate the entire set of placements.”

Meanwhile, in Thailand, universities do not recognise these activities as officially important. However, most course leaders are expected to provide and use them. For example, the thirty fourth Thai respondent, who is a Head of Department, revealed that

each lecturer not only has teaching and advisory roles but also has to support and arrange extracurricular activities for the teaching unit.

Even when extracurricular activities have been provided for Thai students, lecturers have some criticisms, such as graduated students lack skills and experiences when they enter the labour market. The author's experience confirms that the extracurricular activities are not well prepared and do not respond to labour market needs. By comparison, in the UK, one extracurricular activity— industrial placement— has been designed specifically to be part of the programme. This activity provides useful skills and valuable experiences for students in the real world. Therefore, appropriate extracurricular activities and programme redesign should be reconsidered for Thai universities along possibly with the appointment of specialist staff for whom the activities would be clearly designated as part of their job role.

8.4 Similarities in the importance of the role sender in UK and Thai academic work

The characteristics and boundaries of the work of UK and Thai academic staff influence their role behaviours. This was the main focus of this research. Merton's role set theory (1957) was applied to the study to clarify their role behaviours.

As mentioned in chapter 2, the role set is described as consisting of the different people (role senders) which whom the focal person has contact and who have a stake in, and hold expectations about, the focal person's performance. They therefore develop beliefs and attitudes about what the focal person should or should not do as part of the

role. A study of an incumbent's roles and behaviours should begin with a detailed examination of role sender expectations. The results showed that the most important role senders of UK and Thai academic staffs were the same, namely the immediate supervisor, colleagues and students.

When considering the power of the members of the role set, in terms of the immediate supervisor, if a role incumbent (lecturer) has any relevant problems at work, the immediate supervisor should help him/her solve these problems. Further, he/she should be the evaluator of the incumbent's performance. The immediate supervisor has, therefore, more power over a lecturer's role performance. For example, the second UK respondent said that,

“My point of view, the key people are the people who I deal with. My Divisional Leader, who manages me on a day-to-day basis in terms of allocating my work, gives an indication of what is expected from me. He allocates work to me which I manage myself, though he talks to me about future developments...”

The fourteenth UK respondent cited,

“My Divisional Leader. If I need anything doing I have to ask permission to do it; if I need any resources I have to ask him to provide them; if I want to teach something else I have to go to him and persuade him that it is a good idea.”

Because of working together, sometimes cooperating in teaching and giving advice about work, colleagues have the power to affect a lecturer's role performance. For example, the first UK respondent stated that,

“If you’re just looking at the responsibilities, I’ve got my responsibilities to my students and responsibilities to the team within the division itself. We do a lot of team teaching and a lot of working together as a team. So, I guess I have responsibilities to the team...”

The twelfth UK respondent said that,

“They are the people who have an influence on what I do. To some extent with my colleagues, I would take guidance and advice from them; they do not really have influence over me, though they could ask me to do things...”

The Thai academic staff said the same things as the UK academic staffs. For example, the twenty-third Thai respondent reported that,

“...I’m a newcomer here, so colleagues are very helpful. They advise me what I have to do...”

However, when considering the relationship between a lecturer and students based on differences of power of those in the role set, although the lecturer may have a monopoly of power, most respondents took the view that his/her students were important people. For example, the fourth UK respondent mentioned that,

“Students, they have a big influence, in terms of designing appropriate programmes, and in terms of their delivery. Some are conscious about if I have delivered lectures and seminars well, and usually if I get negative feedback then I will try to change...”

Also, the first Thai respondent who revealed his important persons as follows,

“The first important person for me is my supervisor because most of my assignments were assigned from her. Second are the students. Next are my colleagues or teaching team...”

The fourth Thai respondent also said that,

“Students are my responsibility. They are my job. I prepare everything for them such as teaching materials and supporting activities. Colleagues and the head of department should also be noted.”

8.5 Differences in perception of role behaviours of supervisors and lecturers

Referring to the questionnaire, all items on Table 7.6 (page 204) represent extra-role behaviours. Results from Table 7.6 show that there are different views about each item among the lecturers. That is, some lecturers see the item as in-role and some of them see it as extra-role behaviour. For example, for items 13, 14, 16 and 17, half of the respondents see them as extra-role behaviours. Meanwhile, for items 4, 7, 8, 15, 18, 19 and 20, most of the lecturers view them as in-role behaviours.

When comparing the view of supervisors and lecturers, the results show that supervisors view the items as extra-role behaviours less than lecturers do. For example, for items 1, 2, 3 and 12, most supervisors view them as in-role behaviours while only some lecturers do. That is, the supervisors include more job behaviours as part of their subordinates' work role than their subordinates do.

These results were consistent with the work of Morrison (1994) who found that employees differed in what they defined as in-role and extra-role behaviour. Moreover,

the employees and their supervisors also had different views on these behaviours. Morrison (1994) stated that employees and their supervisors will differ in how broadly they define the employees' responsibilities. This suggests that an important factor driving employee behaviour is whether they define a given activity as in-role or extra-role. She reasoned that the greater an employee's perceived job breadth, the more activities he or she defined as in-role. Her research suggested that the factors that influence the perceived boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviour are satisfaction, commitment and social cues. She explained that satisfaction broadens the boundaries around the constructs of in-role behaviour in such a way that individuals define more behaviours as in-role, thus including behaviours that for less satisfied individuals might be classified as extra-role.

Another determinant of how broadly employees define their jobs is commitment, which is defined as emotional attachment to an organisation. It appears that commitment causes employees to define their job responsibilities more broadly, and thus committed employees are more likely to engage in what others may see as extra-role behaviour.

The last factor is social cues. Cues from co-workers have a powerful effect on individuals' perceptions and cognitions with respect to their jobs (Thomas & Griffin, 1983). Employees will come to define their job responsibilities in a manner consistent with the cues that they receive from others. Social cues are provided not only by co-workers, but also by supervisors. Supervisors provide both information about formal job responsibilities and subtle cues about the informal responsibilities that employees should consider to be parts of their jobs.

Morrison (1994) also explained a problem for new employees. When they define their role, new employees may be highly uncertain about their responsibilities and therefore define them very broadly, preferring to err on the side of inclusiveness. The second Thai respondent, who had only worked for two months, provides an illustration of this point when she speaks critically about her responsibilities,

“...I don’t know whether I would like to do them or not, but I do all of them. As I mentioned above, I really don’t know which is my assigned work or which is not as I put all my attention into all jobs. I don’t concentrate only on my own assigned work but also my friends’ work if asked for assistance. Thus, I can’t categorise my main responsibilities or other work as I see it all as work to be done...”

Morrison (1994) also stated that as new employees become socialised, however, they reduce their uncertainty, and role definitions may narrow. Employees will develop a sense of their job responsibilities based in part on cues from others.

8.6 The Comparison of extra-role behaviours between the UK and Thai samples

In Hofstede’s (1980) study, Great Britain represented an extremely individualistic culture whose members are self oriented and place an emphasis on individual initiative and achievement. British culture is relatively masculine, where earnings, recognition, advancement and challenge are important. The British also show low power distance; that is people expect equality in power. The last dimension is uncertainty avoidance, British culture exhibits low uncertainty avoidance where people have high tolerance for the unstructured, the unclear and the unpredictable.

Meanwhile, Thai culture has low individualistic characteristic with a preference for tightly knit social frameworks. Thai culture is also characterised by low masculinity which values nurturing environments such as strong relationships with superiors, strong beliefs in group decision making and achievement defined in terms of human contacts and the living environment. Thai culture is identified as being high in power distance where individuals put a high value on conformity, close supervision is positive evaluated by subordinates, and employees fear to disagree with their bosses. Finally, Thai culture shows high uncertainty avoidance tending to display behaviour such as worrying about the future, a tendency to stay with an employer, and less achievement motivation.

Table 8.2 presents a summary comparison of extra-role behaviour from the interview results as follows,

Table 8.2 Summary comparison of extra-role behaviours between UK and Thai academic staff

Extra-role behaviours		
Results	UK	Thai
Similarities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Covering classes when colleagues are absent - Give ideas to improve department - Devote themselves to work beyond normal duty - Make suggestions for course design 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Covering classes when colleagues are absent - Give ideas to improve department - Devote themselves to work beyond normal duty - Help colleagues to solve problems
Differences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Support colleagues' research - Offer support in technical knowledge - Never take full holiday allowance - Willingly support other members of staff 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conservation of electricity, water or stationery - Instil love and faith in the university into the students - Volunteer to do extra activities

Based on Hofstede's work (1980), I had expected that Thai respondents would include behaviours such as helping others as part of in-role behaviours, as a result of a collectivist society presumably inculcating values of helping the group. Interestingly, these areas of behaviour are actually reported as extra-role by the Thai respondents in the study. It was also assumed that individualistic cultures would be less willing to engage in organisational citizenship behaviours, so the extra-role behaviour of the individualistic British who have grown up in a society which presumably values looking out for oneself may be surprising. Perhaps, however, individualism is not an important factor in these relationships, or is replaced by other messages from the culture. In the case of the UK sample, for example, cultural messages encouraging teamwork may modify the individualism message. An example to support this idea can be seen from the fifth UK respondent, who revealed that,

“...There's a time when I can't easily teach a class at Longhirst. The other day when I had to go to do something, my colleague took over my classes and I took over his yesterday. So, that is a sort of trade-off for one of the classes where I could help.”

Another possible explanation for the inconsistency could be that individuals, at least in some countries, respond differently to society at large and to organisations in particular.

As mentioned earlier, UK universities place emphasis on research work. Therefore, research work can be seen as common work for any academic staff. Supporting and encouraging each other's research seems to be similar to helping colleagues with teaching work. For example, the eleventh UK respondent revealed that,

“...Last week my colleague asked me to read a paper she had written, so I did and then gave her feedback about how clearly I thought she had communicated the issue and about the structure of the paper.”

There are some interesting extra-role behaviours from Thai respondents who attempt to instil love and faith in the university into the students. For example, the fourth Thai respondent said that,

“I talked to students in class about belief in the organisation. Sometimes, the students think that because they are in private university, they should not be as proud as people are in public universities. I encourage self-pride in students. I do not like it when I ask them why they came to study here and they told me that it is just because they couldn't get into public university. I think it's not good for them or the university. I have tried hard to instil this belief. They would be better if they followed this attitude. They would then grow to be part of a strong community.”

Going beyond Hofstede, Komin (1990) explains that Thai people have big egos and a deep sense of independence, pride and dignity. Violation of this ego self can provoke strong emotional reactions. Criticism of whatever type is a social affront or an insult to the person. Therefore, 'face-saving' is the first criterion to consider in any kind of evaluative or judgmental action. For example, the twenty-third Thai respondent referred to her behaviours and feelings,

“...for instance, someone said that in studying here it is easy to get a good grade. I would forcefully correct this, it is so untrue. Or some graduate students from public university have negative perspectives, and I always correct them. But if someone has a really bad or negative attitude, I will recommend them to study somewhere else.”

Although high power distance is seen as characteristic of Thai culture, in some respects superior-subordinate relationships in Thai organisations are closer and more paternalistic than those found in western organisations. That is to say, the superior has the right to give orders but also the responsibility to protect and assist his/her subordinate (Syamananda, 1986). At the same time, the subordinate is supposed to respect and be obedient to his/her supervisor. For example, while it is typical for a subordinate to come to work earlier and stay later than his/her supervisor, it is also typical to see the subordinate get involved in his/her supervisor's work. The more the supervisor gets the subordinate involved, the more the subordinate is viewed as a valuable resource for the organisation. A similar type of relationship was found in the study between the Thai lecturers (the supervisors) and their students (the subordinates).

8.7 Summary

This chapter has discussed the development of UK and Thai higher education. In UK higher education, the pressures have been imposed by central government to treat university as a marketable product and, at the same time, to raise the standards of quality control. Pressure on academic life has also meant increased stress from longer hours of work, more expectations of publication and service to the community. While in Thailand, the demand for higher educational opportunity has increased dramatically since the first National Economic Development Plan. Pressure from a society that increasingly value career-oriented education was in part responsible for the government's establishment of regional universities. However, the number of universities was still insufficient to respond to the needs of the nation. Therefore, the government has encouraged private

investment in higher education institutions. Since private universities have been established, they have encountered a lack of government support in many areas, which has meant that they cannot improve their institutions properly. Pressures from finance and the quality of education have been drummed into all levels of management, including academic staff.

Considering the key areas of the role, there are some similarities and differences that appear between these two countries. Firstly, as regards teaching work, the UK Business School is organised into both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes, and therefore some lecturers will be assigned to teach in both programmes. Meanwhile, Thai lecturers only teach on undergraduate programmes. UK lecturers have shown greater attention to research than Thai lecturers. Better research support from UK institutions is a key issue in producing research. Next, for pastoral care, Thai lecturers take a great deal of interest in their students' lives while this role in UK university has been transferred to specific institutions. Managerial and administrative work in a UK university is delegated to a person who holds a particular post; conversely, all Thai lecturers are assigned these tasks. Finally, for extracurricular activities, each Thai lecturer has to support and arrange these activities for the teaching unit. By comparison, in the UK these activities will be delegated to certain academic staff to take responsibility for.

In terms of extra-role behaviour, though there are major differences in cultural characteristics, both UK and Thai academic staff have engaged in similar extra-role behaviours.

Chapter Nine

Conclusions and Discussions

9.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a conclusion of the entire study in this thesis. The contributions of the research are then further outlined. Discussions and implications follow. Finally, limitations of the study and future research directions are identified.

9.2 Conclusions

This study investigates the incumbents' perception of their role among role-set members' expectations. As noted in the research problem (see Chapter One), earlier research failed to clarify roles resulting in gaps between in-role and extra-role behaviours.

Since Bateman and Organ (1983) introduced the construct of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), the topic has received a great deal of research attention. Research on OCB has been directed toward developing measurement of OCB, identifying antecedents of OCB, as well as its effects such as decreasing conflicts in organisations (e.g., Smith et al. 1983; Organ, 1988; George & Bettenhausen, 1990), increasing productivity (e.g., Organ, 1988; Park & Sim, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 1993), improving employees' morale (e.g., Organ, 1988; Smith et al. 1983; George & Bettenhausen, 1990), etc. However, one important issue was whether there was not clear enough conceptual

boundary between OCB, or extra-role behaviour, and in-role behaviour that they could be viewed as distinct constructs (Morrison, 1994).

At present, organisations face strong pressure from both internal and external environments. A condition of organisations survival becomes most evidently essential as societies grow, develop, and differentiate (Adam, 1976). As the limitation of resource, the organisations try to delegate the array of job and tasks to their employee. Graen (1976) noted that role in organisations were rarely fixed and those role perceptions evolve as employees and supervisors negotiate the scope of work activities. These reasons raise a problem: the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviour is ill defined. OCB research has tended to sidestep the potential ambiguity and subjectivity of the OCB construct by adopting a single perspective with respect to boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviour based on the view of supervisors (e.g. Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Moorman, 1991).

In order to take account of this problem above, the research has been called to take the actor/employee's perceptions of role into account. To clarify the role behaviour by using Merton's role-set theory (1957) could provide more understanding of role behaviour. His theory was on the set of other positions with which a role incumbent in the course of accomplishing his/her organisational role. The theory deserved to be used to investigate a role incumbent (lecturer)'s perceptions of role-set members' expectations because according to Kahn et al. (1964), role-set members intend to influence focal person behaviour, through role episodes, in order to define and in force role incumbent behaviour. The in-depth interview was used in the research to examine a focal person

(lecturer)'s view on his/her role-set members (such as supervisor, peers, students, management, etc.)' expectations as a result of the theory. The detail of Merton's role-set theory has been described in Chapter Two.

Previous researchers contended that OCB benefited organisations and their employees, and based much of their research on quantitative approach having been commonly used in previous studies. However, because investigation of employees' complicated behaviour needs rich data for analysis, it has been argued that it is more appropriate for this study to employ qualitative approach.

This study adopts triangulation to reduce the disadvantages of each single method. As described in Chapter Five, semi-structured interview has been utilised as the main method to collect data. Also, questionnaire and pictorial representation have been used as supplements to the study. These additional methods have advantages as follows:

- To recheck the data from the interview. For example, the interview question number 7 asked about focal person's key people, and, first picture1 requested focal person to identify his/her all role senders.
- To obtain more accurate data. For example, the interview question number 18 asked focal person to give examples of his/her behaviours beyond job requirement. Also, questionnaire investigated OCB, having respondents identify which behaviours he/she perform, and judge that they were in-role or extra-role behaviours.

In terms of the methods used in this study, the interview questions and pictorial representation were developed by using Merton's role-set theory. The questionnaire is adapted from the work of many OCB researchers (see Chapter Five).

The focus of this study has been on the lecturers' perception of their role behaviour among others' expectation that they deal with. To test Morrison's argument, this research also examines the supervisor's view (role sender) of their subordinates' role behaviour in order to make the comparison. The two phases of the study were conducted, one in Britain and the other in Thailand.

The first aim of this research was:

“To investigate incumbents' and role senders' perception of the role of university academic staff”

The results revealed that the respondents who were employees and those who were supervisors had different views on behaviours. That is, the supervisors included more job behaviours as part of expectations of their supervisees' or employees' work role than their employees did. However, the results also showed that subordinates perform extra-role behaviours as part of their work more often than supervisors see. This finding was consistent with Morrison's work (1994: 1545) stating that “not only that behaviours will be seen differently across employees, but they will also be seen differently by employees and their supervisors.” She reasoned that “an employee helps a co-worker because he or she wishes to engage in extra effort on behalf of the organisation, or alternatively, because he or she simply sees the behaviour as part of his or her job” (1994:

1544). The finding stated above has been confined to Thai lecturers because the pilot study that was conducted in UK did not examine a supervisor's view on his/her subordinates' role behaviours.

The second aim of research was:

“To make a comparison on roles and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) of UK and Thai university”

In terms of duties and responsibilities, both the UK and Thai academic staffs perceived that teaching is their main duty and responsibility. However, they are different in some aspect of responsibilities for the teaching programme which in UK Business School organises both undergraduate and postgraduate programme but Thai Business School does only undergraduate programme. Therefore, some UK academic staff will be assigned to teach in both levels. Research is currently seen as a way of leading to higher academic positions among the respondents of both the UK and Thai academic staffs. The data shows that, on the UK side, their colleagues pushed them to do more on research while there are no forces on Thai lecturers to do so. Moreover, there is some research support from the UK Business School which includes Centres of Business Excellence and Research Coordinators. This institution and persons can provide help and support for generating research outputs and activities. Next, data revealed that both UK and Thai lecturers also have been delegated the role of academic advisor. Interestingly, this duty seems to be a heavy burden for Thai lecturers because, being an advisory role, it is not only academic problems that are brought to them but also other student's life problems

such as financial problems, family matters and so forth. That is Thai lecturers also play the 'Pastoral care' as part of advisory role.

Management and administration have been seen to help teaching to be effective and useful. Findings revealed that the Thai universities try to take advantage by delegating to all lecturers to get involve with administrative tasks. As a result, lecturers have to spend a lot of time on meeting and processing these tasks. The loading of these responsibilities leads to less efficiency in teaching. On the other hand, these works are delegated to a person who held the particular post. Finally, extracurricular activities, these activities have been considered equally useful for students' development. In Thailand, most Thai course leaders have a policy to develop their students by delegating their academic staff to set up extracurricular activities for every unit. By comparison in the UK, again, these activities are delegated to some academic staff who hold the particular post. Consequently, these burdens consume such a lot of time that it prevents Thai academic staff from taking part in self-development.

Another interesting result from this research is the comparison of extra-role behaviour. According to Hofstede's work (1980), Great Britain culture characteristic is in the same cluster as the United State. It might be assumed that both countries would have similar culture characteristics including extra-role behaviour. Conversely, Thailand is extremely different culture characteristic from Great Britain. Therefore, it would be expected that the people from these two countries could differ in attitudes, beliefs and values. Consequently, these could lead to differences in the people's view of their role behaviour. However, there are some results which are possibly inconsistent with

Hofstede's work. That is, British culture is identified as individualism and, therefore, would be less willing to engage in extra-role behaviours than people in a culture emphasising collectivism (Chhokar, Zhuplev, Fox, & Hartman, 2001). Surprisingly, the results in this study revealed that both UK and Thai academic staffs were willing to engage in similar extra-role behaviours. One similar extra-role behaviours, covering class when colleague absents, seems to be the common behaviour as most participants mentioned it.

In terms of the different extra-role behaviour, for example supporting colleague's research, this difference could appear because UK universities place more emphasis on research than Thai universities. Considering the two examples above, it is difficult to use Hofstede's cultural dimensions to explain why UK lecturers were expressing these behaviours. It might be possible to explain why UK lecturers were willing to help others on these two behaviours by suggesting some sort of teamwork orientation. However, rely solely on Hofstede's culture dimensions may not be sufficient to understand about people's behaviour.

Another interesting example, that of instilling love and faith in the university into the students, can be better explained by reference to Komin's nine Thai value orientations. That is, Thai people have a big ego. Criticism or insult to the person or institution can provoke strong emotional reactions. Thai people always make themselves or their institution look good. Therefore, this behaviour can be seen anywhere in Thailand including in Thai universities. This identification of self with one's work institution is not a feature of British society.

In conclusion, despite Hofstede's major contribution to the study of organisations within a cultural approach, he did not plan his work as an investigation into the specific effects of culture on organisations and their members. In addition, he admits that "The data consisted of answers to questionnaires about employee values and perceptions of the work situation that were collected in the context of two worldwide rounds of employee attitude surveys. Their use for studying differences in national cultures was an unintended, serendipitous by-product, for which the corporation opened its files of 116,000 survey questionnaires collected between 1967 and 1973" (Hofstede, Neuijen, & Ohavy, 1990: 287).

It is, therefore, advisable for researchers conducting cross-cultural study, not to pick up and use Hofstede's cultural dimensions directly because relying solely on this concept would lead to unreliable data and to an incomplete or even false picture. Cross-cultural research should also consider other features of national culture such as socio-cultural characteristics, work-related attitudes and organisational structure and management systems.

The UK and Thai academic staff revealed that immediate supervisor would be the most important person for them. Most of participants have a closer relationship with their immediate supervisor than other. This is because their supervisor is a person who allocates their work, helps them to sort out the problems which are related to work and so on. The others would be their colleagues who help them to work completely. Students are definitely the other important people for both the UK and Thai lecturers because their work relate directly to students.

In terms of the sources that they use to learn their role, the job description is a main source to learn their role. However, some of the participants mentioned that they have never seen it before, so they have to learn their role via other sources. The immediate supervisor and colleagues are also the sources of learning their role. The participants have been told by their supervisor and colleagues about what and how to do their job. In Thai universities, there is one more source to learn the role by using the induction programme. According to Dreher (1982), the induction programme helps newcomers learn their jobs more quickly. The programme should cover job tasks overview of job, job objectives, and relationship to other job. However, the Thai lecturers viewed that the induction programme tends to help people get to know each other, but it did not sufficiently give them information about job duties.

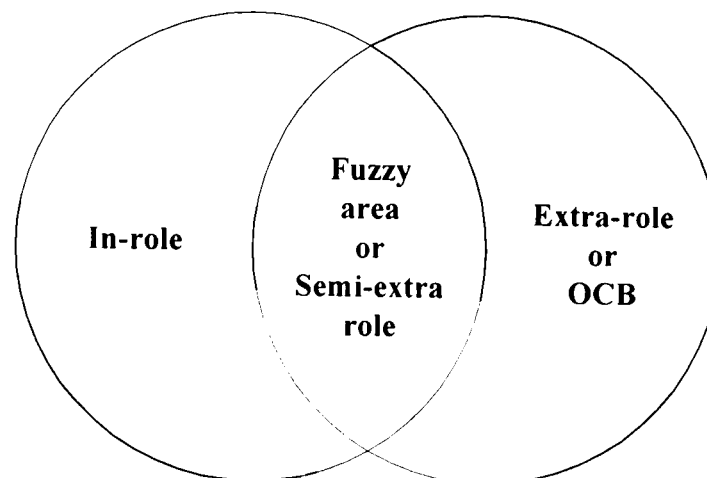
The findings also showed that a number of respondents confronted role ambiguity. For example, several respondents reported that job description and orientation did not give information about jobs enough, though they both are major sources of information on job. This leads to goal, expectation, and responsibility ambiguity (see Chapter Two). That is, role incumbents don't know what job/goal is expected; what they should do, etc.

According to Rosch (1978), there was not clear boundary between in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour in employees' view because his/her perception of role behaviours relating to the process of knowing, understanding and learning job behaviours were likely to vary from person to person. Also, Grean (1976) mentioned that roles in organisation were changeable because supervisors and employees hammer out what employees' workload was. Neiman and Hughes (1951) got the same view as the scholars

above, that is, the concept of role was indistinct and non-definitive. Results of this study were consistent with the works, that is, each employee and supervisor having got knowledge, opinion, and belief about role behaviour diverged from one another.

Since there were elements of ambiguity in job description and induction, job incumbents learned to perform their role by themselves inducing extra-role behaviour. For example, in an advisory role, it might be expected that the boundary for a lecturer might be on academic matters. However, many participants revealed that they give their students advice on all kinds of problems such as family, financial problems, and earning a living because they probably believed that giving advice on other problems, not only academic problems, was necessary because of the impact of these other factors on students' academic problems. By exhibiting all categories of extra-role behaviour (OCB) discussed above, it may be judged that those behaviours are not extra-role behaviour if most employees in the organisations are always or very regularly displaying them. To cover such instances, it is argued in the thesis that it is helpful to introduce a new category of behaviour defined by Sitthijirapat as *semi-extra role* that is "the extra-role behaviours that would be defined by role occupant (focal person) as in-role behaviour" (2003: 43). Although semi-extra role behaviour goes beyond expectation or job duties, it is behaviour that has become quite normal for individuals in organisations to exhibit or that results from or has become part of organisation culture. Consequently, the results of data analyses would suggest three categories of role behaviour have emerged rather than the two suggested by the literature review. These are displayed in Figure 8.1.

Figure 9 Three dimensions of role



The third aim of research was:

“To investigate to the nature of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in a Thai setting”

This research was also intended to examine the nature of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in a Thai setting. A measure of Thai OCB was not proposed in a current research because of the effects of role ambiguity as discussed earlier. Accordingly, it is difficult to define in-role and extra-role behaviour. Nonetheless, this has made significant contributions to a study of Thai OCB. In addition, the present study assists researchers and scholars in recognising universality of OCB measure across culture. When considering findings in comparison with Organ’s OCB dimensions, it supports discussion above. That is,

The first important finding is that if based on Organ’s OCB concept, the incumbents (lecturers)’ perception of OCB in Thailand sounds rather different from that

in others. That is, according to Organ (1988), OCB is composed of five dimensions, namely altruism, conscientious, courtesy, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The dimension of altruism is characterised as helping behaviour, implying sensitivity, especially to one's social environment (Organ, 1988: 103). Samples of Thai lecturers usually exhibit this behaviour because he/she taught other lecturers' classes when they were absent from delivering a lesson (behaviour oriented toward others inside, e.g., peers); he/she gave extra help for his/her students (behaviour oriented toward others outside, e.g., students).

The second dimension is conscientiousness including role behaviours well beyond the minimum required levels (Organ, 1988). The respondents said that he/she always did the job well with meticulous attention to detail. The third dimension, courtesy, includes such actions as helping someone prevent a problem from occurring or taking steps in advance to mitigate the problem (Organ 1988). Findings from the interview and questionnaire showed that most subjects in the study were always mindful of how his/her behaviour affected others' job; trying to avoid creating problems for co-workers, and considering the impact of his/her actions on peers. The fourth dimension, civic virtue, implies responsible participation in the political life of the organisation (Organ, 1988: 12). Several subjects in the study said in the interview that they attend school meeting actively and make a suggestion about improvement on learning and teaching.

The last dimension, sportsmanship, relates to avoiding complaining, petty grievances, and railing against real or imagined slights. The participants showed these behaviours, for example, a participant said that her university did not provide enough equipment for learning and teaching but she never complained. Consequently, the sample

of Thai lecturers showed all five dimensions of Organ's OCB, however, they considered that the behaviours are more in-role than extra-role.

9.3 Contributions of the research

The work reported in this thesis has resulted in the following contributions:

- 9.3.1 These research findings supported Morrison's argument (1994) that the boundary between OCB, or extra role behaviour, and in-role behaviour varies across employees. Employees and their supervisors will also see behaviours differently.
- 9.3.2 Data-collecting instrument, namely pictorial representation, has been developed by using Merton's role-set theory (1957).
- 9.3.3 Findings suggested that there is a grey area between in-role and extra-role behaviour. To cover such instances, a new category of behaviour and definition has been given, fuzzy area or semi-extra role behaviour.
- 9.3.4 A review of earlier literature reveals that there are no previous studies of OCB carried out in Thailand. This research has also added to the knowledge on cultural issues.
- 9.3.5 Comparison of lecturer's role between UK and Thai shows some similarities but also some differences.

9.4 Discussions and Implications

The results from both studies provide evidence regarding different perception of role behaviour causing fuzzy area. The respondents revealed that they learned of their job duties and responsibilities from many sources including immediate supervisor, job description, by themselves, and so forth. However, in case of helping take other lecturers' class when he/she is ill or absent, all participants in the research regard this behaviour as in-role behaviour. According to Organ (1988), helping others who has been absent is OCB or an extra role behaviour, yet many employee have the opinion that it is in-role behaviour because it is traditional behaviour, in other word, this is perceived an performed through out the organisation for a long time, the lecturers act like this as usual, it is viewed as in-role behaviour accordingly. As discussed in the literature review, there are gaps between the concept of OCB or extra-role and in-role behaviour, and the findings reviewed the gaps because of different role perception and expectation resulting from different value, interests, and moral expectation according to Merton's role set theory (1957).

Considering the case of the participants in the main study, their role set comprises Students, Head of Department, Dean, Colleagues, and Deputy Dean respectively. Merton suggested that the role set is concerned with social arrangements integrating the expectations of those in the role set. That is, they have expectation of the focal person or lecturer or status-occupant that there is often a potential for differing and sometimes conflicting expectation of the conduct appropriate to a lecturer among those in the role set. However, according to role set theory, the impact upon the role occupant of diverse

expectations among those in their role set is mitigated by the basic structural fact of differentials of involvement in the relationship among those comprising their role set. That is, Member of Executive, Head of School, Divisional Leader, and Course Leader pay attention to administrative tasks of school and division rather than supervise teaching task (despite most participants stating that the primary duty is teaching).

One implication of this study is that the gap between in-role and extra-role behaviour or OCB appears because a status or position each employee holds comprises the set of complex role relating to expected behaviour from various people, therefore, they define the boundary of role behaviour differently possibly resulting in ambiguity. To fill the gap, definition of in-role and extra-role behaviour would come from all members of the role set giving rise to the members coming to a compromise about role behaviour because the definition of OCB will be integrated from different views into one view. Consequently, research on OCB could be directed to collect data not only from employees and supervisors, but also from the other members of the role set in order to obtain the most valid and reliable research.

With regards to the concept of OCB, the findings showed that most respondents from both studies engaged in an extra-role behaviour (OCB) because it is discretionary behaviour on the part of the lecturer or employee, which is neither expected nor required, and therefore cannot be formally rewarded or punished for the presence of or lack of, by the university. Even subordinates perform extra-role behaviours as part of their work more often than supervisors see. Universities are service organisations; lecturer professionals are generally committed to doing what is best for their students. The clients

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(students) are the prime beneficiaries of the organisation. Thus, in service organisations like universities, both the professional lecturers and the organisation are committed to what is in the best interests of the students. Consequently, there is a high degree of congruence between professional goals and organisational goals. For example, one Thai universities in the thesis, published its policy as “to produce graduates endowed with: professional and moral competence, knowledge and learning” (APHEIT, 1997: 14). The distinction between helping individuals and furthering the organisational mission is blurred because in schools the mission is synonymous with helping people. Further, lecturers who voluntarily help their new colleagues and go out of their way to introduce themselves to others define OCBs in universities. Lecturers in such universities take it upon themselves to make innovative suggestions, to volunteer to sponsor extra-role curricular activities, and to volunteer to serve on new committees. In an aspect of giving extra help to students, lecturers help students in their own time and stay after school to help if necessary. OCB in universities connotes a serious educational context in which lecturers are rarely absent, make efficient use of their time while at university, work productively with their colleagues, and give high priority to professional activities over personal ones while in school. They use their talents and efforts to help both students and the school to achieve.

In Thai value (see Chapter 4), it is believed that lecturers (or teachers) should exert extra effort and be willing to try innovative approaches; administrators should be able to devote more resources and energy to teaching-related issues rather than routine management and monitoring; lecturers and administrators should be more likely to engage in cooperative activities like helping colleagues and promoting behaviour that is

good for the collective and lecturers should be more likely to remain in such universities and thus minimise the costs of recruitment, selection, and socialisation of new faculty.

In addition, the results implied that strong OCB results from universities' culture that encourage and support behaviour that goes far beyond routine and formal expectations. Lecturers who find themselves in such universities are likely to discover that citizenship behaviours are the norm rather than the exception; consequently, individuals will feel the subtle pressure of their colleagues to follow that norm. The theoretical and practical implications for this issue, especially for Thai universities, are that universities should be supportive and flexible in dealing with lecturers; managements who focus on enforcing the rules and regulations will not be successful in motivating lecturers to hold extra-role behaviours. For this reason, universities should have as few formal rules as possible. In addition, universities should protect lecturers from administrative trivia such as unnecessary meetings, too much paper work, silly rules, busy work, and so on. Also, universities, especially Thai ones, should nurture the informal organisation because the principle values of the Thais concern the cultivation of smooth interpersonal relationships that are based on trust, kindness, respect, and consideration. This is true for working relationships between superiors and subordinates and among peers.

With reference to the findings, the lecturers exhibited the extra-role behaviours, particularly, as an advisor to his/her students because of the influence of Thai value on the close relationship between a lecturer (teacher) and his/her students. From the Thai value, a lecturer is the parent who educates students. Both Thai lecturers and students owe a

dept of responsibility to each other that can never be paid resulting from the spiritual background of the Thai people that is rooted in Buddhism. That is, a lecturer never tires of teaching or advising, can teach or advise anywhere, anytime, and is always ready to answer questions. Also, a lecturer has to set a good example for his/her students and never attempt to defraud them. Once a lecturer becomes concerned with materialism, he/she will lose the respect of his/her students. Due to Thai value mentioned earlier, most participants went far beyond his/her normal responsibilities.

9.5 Limitations of this research

There are limitations that need to be pointed out in this research. The first limitation relates to the sample. Participants involved in the pilot study were British academic staff in the Business School of one 'modern' university. While participants involved in the main study were Thai academic staff in four Universities in Thailand. Therefore the results based on those participants may not reflect the entire situation in academic profession.

Secondly, this research adopted case study as the main method for gathering data. Hence this research inevitably inherits the limitations of the case study research methodology that this strategy is commonly believed to provide little basis for scientific generalisation. This is a common problem in case study research, or arguably in other business research methods (Yin, 1994).

Even with the above limitations, the researcher believes that this research provides sufficient insights that provide academics with useful guidelines for future studies in the area of OCB.

9.6 Future research

Every organisation's success is built on its employees who go beyond their formal job responsibility and freely give of their time and energy to success. Organ was the first to use the phrase "organisational citizenship behaviour" (OCB) to denote organisationally beneficial behaviour of workers that was not prescribed but occurred freely to help others achieve the task at hand (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Although Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is recognised as supportive behaviour to the organisation, some OCB behaviours need to consider the following impact. One interesting example in the research reported in the thesis is that the Pastoral Care role of Thai lecturers has impact on their daily responsibilities as they must spend most of their time to play this role. An alternative, more typical of UK university is for this role to be carried out by people who are specially trained, properly qualified and specifically appointed to the task. Moreover, lecturers in higher education are likely to have at least as many problems themselves as many of their students. Some lecturers may have own personal lives in chaos, emotions in turmoil and finances in ruins. Thus, the Pastoral Care role of Thai lectures, which is seen as OCB may in fact not gain benefit to the organisation and/or may even cause disadvantage. Further research could be directed towards such apparently beneficial behaviours.

In terms of methodology in the investigation of OCB, most research to date has used questionnaire as the research instrument. However, this study used semi-structured interview as the research instrument because the researcher believes that observation of human behaviour needs to have rich data to analyse, especially for a study in two different cultures. Further, the results of this study have shown that rich data benefit the research. Observation of various behaviours of respondents during the interview can be used as further aspect of the analysis. Probing during the interviews can also help the analysis to be more accurate. One example comes from the respondent who said that he runs some spreadsheet classes on weekend sometimes for students who are struggling with spreadsheet. From this information, it could be seen as if he expressed OCB, however, when the researcher, as interviewer, asked for the reason why he ran weekend classes, he replied that he was getting overtime pay to do it. As a result, this behaviour was not counted as OCB. Thus, the emphasis in future study on OCB and organisational behaviour should be to at least to include qualitative approaches.

This research did not examine the UK supervisor's view on his/her subordinates' role behaviour. So, the researcher would recommend the further research could be targeted at this area by for example including a wider range of UK universities.

Moreover, future research could be directed towards carrying out similar research in new populations such as other industries in Thailand, other Western populations and other Asian populations in order to investigate the impact of similar work roles in different cultures on the nature and perception of OCB.

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Appendix A

Research Instruments

Appendix A1: Questions for the semi-structured interview

General information

1. How old are you?
2. How many years have you been employed by University?
3. What is your highest academic qualification?
4. What is your job title in the university?

Work – central aspect of your work

5. What are your responsibilities within the university?
6. How do you know what your responsibility are?
7. What do you have to do within these responsibilities?

Role expectation – impact in particular

8. As the member of University, could you tell me who are the key people?
9. Which of those people have a greater influence on your work?
10. Are there any persons / organisations who monitor your performance?
11. What do these people expect from you?
12. Do you think these people's expectations are reasonable?
13. What do you, in turn, expect of your key people?

Role perception

14. Could you tell me what you do on a typical day?
15. What did you do mainly on last..(day)..?
16. Have you met your key people on that day?
17. Do you think what you did on last..(day)..
 - 17.1 Which of the expectations did you intend to meet?
 - 17.2 Which of the expectations did you perhaps not meet?
 - 17.3 Which of the expectation did you exceed?

18. Can you give me examples of when you think you do something beyond what the requirement?
19. Why did you do this?
20. Would you like to add anything else?

Appendix A2: Questions for the semi-structured interview (Thai version)

คำถามทั่วไป

1. อาจารย์อายุเท่าไร
2. อาจารย์ทำงานที่มหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้มานานเท่าไร
3. ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุดคืออะไร
4. อาจารย์มีตำแหน่งอะไรในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้

คำถามเกี่ยวกับลักษณะของงาน

5. อาจารย์มีหน้าที่และความรับผิดชอบอะไรบ้าง
6. อาจารย์ทราบว่าหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบนั้นได้อย่างไรบ้าง
7. อาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้างในบทบาทเหล่านั้น

ความคาดหวังในบทบาท

8. ในฐานะที่เป็นอาจารย์ในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้ อาจารย์คิดว่าใครเป็นบุคคลที่เกี่ยวข้องโดยตรงในการปฏิบัติงานบ้าง
9. บุคคลเหล่านั้น ใครมีอิทธิพลต่อการปฏิบัติงานของอาจารย์มากที่สุด
10. มีบุคคลหรือหน่วยงานใดที่ตรวจสอบการทำงานของอาจารย์บ้าง
11. อาจารย์คิดว่าบุคคลเหล่านี้คาดหวังอะไรจากอาจารย์บ้าง กรุณายกตัวอย่างประกอบ
12. อาจารย์คิดว่าความคาดหวังเหล่านั้นสมเหตุสมผลหรือไม่
13. ในทางกลับกันอาจารย์คาดหวังอะไรจากบุคคลเหล่านั้น กรุณายกตัวอย่างประกอบ

ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับบทบาท

14. อาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้างในแต่ละวัน
15. อาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้างในวัน.....ที่แล้ว
16. อาจารย์ได้พบกับบุคคลในข้อ 8 หรือไม่
17. อาจารย์คิดว่าสิ่งที่ทำในวัน.....ที่แล้ว สิ่งใดที่
 - 17.1 อาจารย์ตั้งใจว่าจะทำและได้ทำตามที่ตั้งใจ
 - 17.2 อาจารย์ตั้งใจว่าจะทำแต่ไม่ได้ทำ
 - 17.3 อาจารย์ตั้งใจว่าจะทำและได้ทำเกินกว่าที่คาดไว้
18. ในวัน.....ที่แล้ว อาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้างที่เกินกว่าหน้าที่ตามปกติ
19. กรุณายกตัวอย่างสิ่งที่คิดว่าเคยทำนอกเหนือจากหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบตามปกติและเป็นประโยชน์ต่อมหาวิทยาลัย
20. อาจารย์ต้องการให้ข้อมูลอื่นเพิ่มเติมหรือไม่

Appendix A3: Questionnaire for the opinions survey in pilot study

Which of the following do you perform in your day to day work? (tick all that apply)

- 1. Train or help others to perform their jobs better.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?
- 2. Co-operate well with those around you.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?
- 3. Make positive statements about the department.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?
- 4. Protect university property.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?
- 5. Help others who have been absent.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?
- 6. Help others who have heavy workloads.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?
- 7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?
- 8. Does not take unnecessary time off work.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?
- 9. Assist supervisor with his or her work.
 - Could you give me for example?
 - How often do you perform it?

- 10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.
 Could you give me for example?
- How often do you perform it?
- 11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.
 Could you give me for example?
- How often do you perform it?
- 12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.
 Could you give me for example?
- How often do you perform it?
- 13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.
 Could you give me for example?
- How often do you perform it?
- 14. Assist others with their duties.
 Could you give me for example?
- How often do you perform it?
- 15. Actively attend university meetings.
 Could you give me for example?
- How often do you perform it?
- 16. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.
 Could you give me for example?
- How often do you perform it?
- 17. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.
 Could you give me for example?
- How often do you perform it?

18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.

Could you give me for example?

How often do you perform it?

19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.

Could you give me for example?

How often do you perform it?

20. You think you come to work more often than most of the people?

Could you give me for example?

How often do you perform it?

Appendix A4: Questionnaire for the opinions survey in main study

Which of the following do you perform in your day-to-day work? (Tick all that apply)

1. Help my colleagues to perform their job better.
 my job beyond my job
2. Co-operate well with those around him.
 my job beyond my job
3. Make positive statements about the department.
 my job beyond my job
4. Protect university property.
 my job beyond my job
5. Help others who have been absent.
 my job beyond my job
6. Help others who have heavy workloads.
 my job beyond my job
7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.
 my job beyond my job
8. Not to take unnecessary time off work.
 my job beyond my job
9. Assist supervisor with her work.
 my job beyond my job
10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.
 my job beyond my job
11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.
 my job beyond my job
12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.
 my job beyond my job

- 13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.
 - my job
 - beyond my job
- 14. Assist others with their duties.
 - my job
 - beyond my job
- 15. Attend school meetings actively.
 - my job
 - beyond my job
- 16. Be willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.
 - my job
 - beyond my job
- 17. Be eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.
 - my job
 - beyond my job
- 18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.
 - my job
 - beyond my job
- 19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.
 - my job
 - beyond my job
- 20. Come to work more often than most of the people.
 - my job
 - beyond my job

Appendix A5: Questionnaire for the opinions survey (for supervisor)

Which of the following do (subordinate's name) perform in his/her day-to-day work?

....1. Help his/her colleagues to perform their job better.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....2. Co-operate well with those around him.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....3. Make positive statements about the department.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....4. Protect university property.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....5. Help others who have been absent.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....6. Help others who have heavy workloads.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....7. Give advance notice if unable to come to work.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....8. Not to take unnecessary time off work.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....9. Assist supervisor with her work.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....10. Volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....11. Exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, taking less days off than most individuals or less than allowed.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....12. Make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....13. Willingly attend functions not required by the university, but that help in its overall image.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....14. Assist others with their duties.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....15. Attend school meetings actively.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....16. Be willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....17. Be eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....18. Comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....19. Often arrive early and start working immediately.

his/her job beyond his/her job

....20. Come to work more often than most of the people.

his/her job beyond his/her job

Appendix A6: Questionnaire for the opinions survey (Thai version)

I. กรุณาทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ หน้าข้อที่ท่านคิดว่าท่านได้แสดงพฤติกรรมเหล่านั้น

II. ท่านคิดว่าพฤติกรรมในแต่ละข้อเป็นพฤติกรรมที่อยู่ในขอบเขตของงานตามปกติของท่านหรือนอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ใน

- | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
|1. ช่วยเหลือเพื่อนร่วมงานให้สามารถปฏิบัติงานดียิ่งขึ้น | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|2. ให้ความร่วมมืออย่างดีกับเพื่อนร่วมงาน | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|3. สร้างภาพพจน์ที่ดีให้กับหน่วยงาน | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|4. รักษาทรัพย์สินของมหาวิทยาลัย | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|5. ช่วยงานคนที่ขาดงาน | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|6. ช่วยงานคนที่มีภาระงานมาก | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|7. แจ้งล่วงหน้าหากไม่สามารถมาทำงานได้ | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|8. ไม่ขาดงานโดยไม่มีควมจำเป็น | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|9. ช่วยเหลืองานของผู้บังคับบัญชา | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|10. อุทิศตนให้กับงานที่ไม่ใช่งานตามหน้าที่ | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|11. ทำงานมากกว่าปกติ เช่น ลาหรือหยุดงานน้อยกว่าอาจารย์ท่านอื่นหรือน้อยกว่าที่มหาวิทยาลัยอนุญาต | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|12. ให้คำแนะนำที่สร้างสรรค์เพื่อพัฒนาคุณภาพโดยรวมของมหาวิทยาลัย | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|13. เต็มใจทำงานที่ไม่ได้มอบหมาย เพราะเห็นว่างานนั้นช่วยทำให้ภาพพจน์ของมหาวิทยาลัยดีขึ้น | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |
|14. ช่วยเหลืองานของเพื่อนร่วมงาน | <input type="checkbox"/> | งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน | <input type="checkbox"/> | นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน |

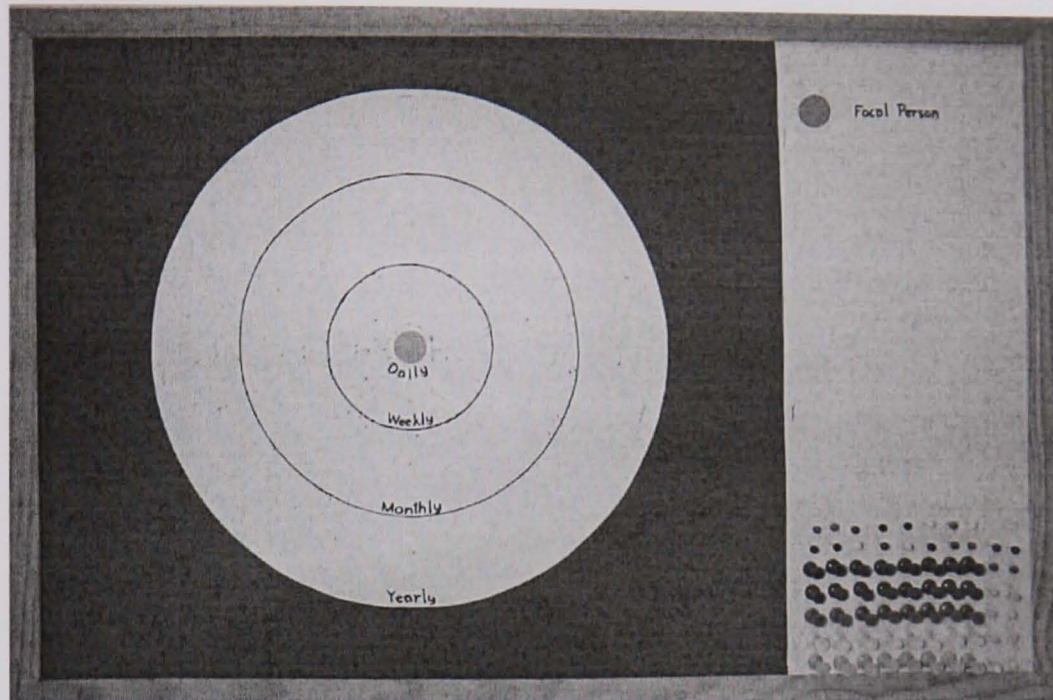
-15. เข้าร่วมประชุมด้วยความกระตือรือร้น
- งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน
-16. เต็มใจช่วยเหลือเพื่อนร่วมงานในการแก้ปัญหาที่เกี่ยวข้องกับงาน
- งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน
-17. กระตือรือร้นที่จะพูดถึงสิ่งที่ดีของมหาวิทยาลัยแก่บุคคลภายนอกและให้ความกระจ่างในสิ่งที่เข้าใจผิด
- งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน
-18. ปฏิบัติตามระเบียบของมหาวิทยาลัย แม้ว่าจะไม่มีใครเห็นหรือหลักฐานพิสูจน์
- งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน
-19. มาทำงานแต่เช้าและเริ่มงานทันที
- งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน
-20. มาทำงานสม่ำเสมอมากกว่าคนอื่น
- งานในหน้าที่ของท่าน นอกเหนือจากงานปกติของท่าน

ขอขอบพระคุณท่านที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการสัมภาษณ์

คำตอบของท่านจะถูกเก็บไว้เป็นความลับและใช้สำหรับงานวิจัยนี้เท่านั้น

Appendix A7: Pictorial Representation (both English and Thai version)

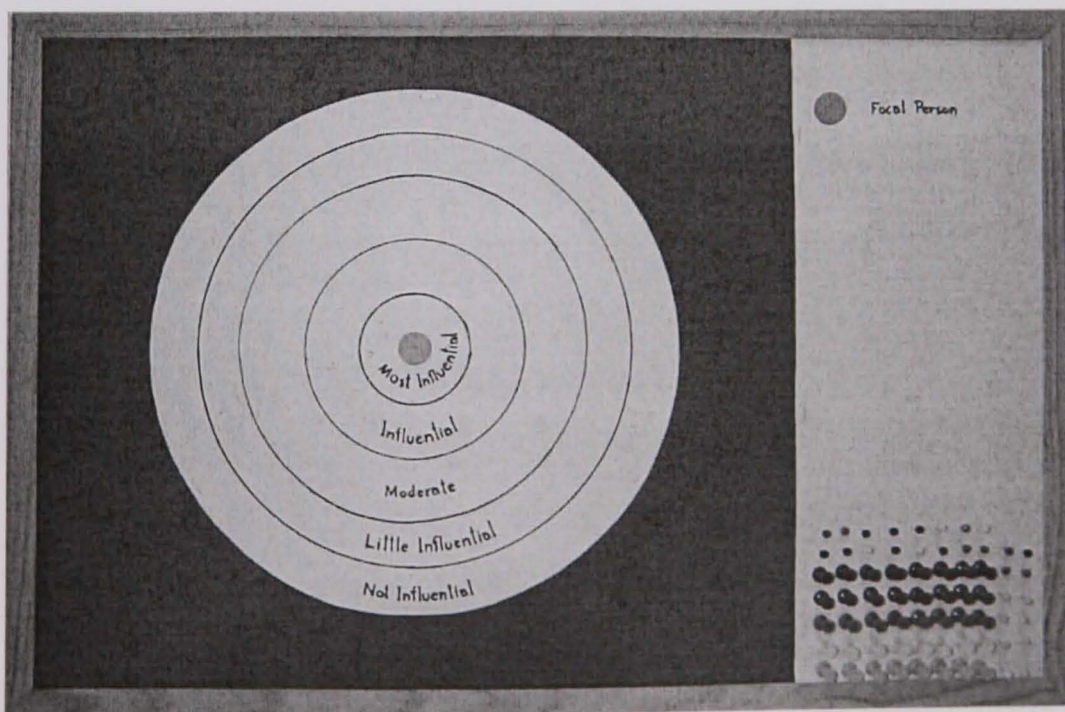
The first board



From your point of view, who does influence your work role?

อาจารย์คิดว่าใครมีความสำคัญต่องานของอาจารย์บ้าง?

The second board



To what extent do these people influence your work?

บุคคลเหล่านี้มีความสำคัญกับงานของอาจารย์ในระดับใด?

Appendix B

Letters of correspondence

Appendix B1: A verification letter of English-Thai translation



มหาวิทยาลัยศรีปทุม
SRIPATUM UNIVERSITY


20 February 2003

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that the questionnaire and transcripts of interview to be used for a research project on “A Study of an extra behaviour benefiting organisation performance: organisational citizenship behaviour in a Thai university setting” have been translated from English into Thai and Thai into English respectively.

The translations have been reviewed and verified to be accurate.

Sincerely,

Dr. Amorn Phoonngsulan

Director of Master of Arts (Organisation Management) programme

Sripatum University

(+662) 5799120-39 Ext.1157

amorn@spu.ac.th

บางเขน 61 ถนนพหลโยธิน เขตจตุจักร กรุงเทพฯ 10900 โทร. (อัตโนมัติ) 0-2579-9120. 0-2561-1036 โทรสาร 0-2561-1721
วิทยาเขตชลบุรี 79 ถนนบางนา - ตราด อำเภอเมือง จังหวัดชลบุรี 20000 โทร. 0-3874-3690-703 โทรสาร 0-3827-6590
BANGKHEN 61 PHAHONYOTIN RD., JATUJAK, BANGKOK 10900 TEL. 0-2579-9120. 0-2561-1036 FAX 0-2561-1721
CHONBURI 79 BANGNA-TRAD RD., MUANG, CHONBURI 20000 TEL. 0-3874-3690-703 FAX 0-3827-6590

Appendix B2: Request cooperative letter from Association of Private Higher Education Institutions of Thailand (APHEIT) to the universities (Thai version)



สมาคมสถาบันอุดมศึกษาเอกชนแห่งประเทศไทย ASSOCIATION OF PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS OF THAILAND

๗๓ ถนนพระราม ๖ กรุงเทพฯ ๑๐๕๐๐ โทร. ๐-๒๒๕๔-๘๕๔๘, ๐-๒๒๕๔-๙๓๒๗, โทรสาร. ๐-๒๒๕๔-๘๕๔๘
73 Rama 6 Road, Bangkok 10400, Thailand Tel. 0-2245-8548, 0-2245-9327. FAX. 0-2245-8548 http://www.apheit.co

ที่ สสอท. 110/2545

ปรึกษา

ทพณา ศ.นพ.เกษม วัฒนชัย
ภรรคา ดร.ประทีป ม.โกลมภค
ดร.ธนู กุศล
อาจารย์พรชัย มงคลวนิช
ศ.ดร.ปกรณ์ อุดมพันธ์
ดร.อาทิตย์ อุไรรัตน์
รศ.ประสิทธิ์ โฆวิไลกุล

นายกสมาคม

ดร.บุญทอง ภูเจริญ
นายกแพ่งพันวาระ
ดร.วัลลภ สุวรรณดี

ปณายก (๑)

อาจารย์วิรินทร์ พ.ทุกกะมน

ปณายก (๒)

อาจารย์ปรานี วงษ์สวัสดิกุล

นายกบริหารเลือก

ดร.จันทร์จิรา วงษ์ชมทอง

ชาธิการ

ดร.ชาลิต หมั่นนุช

กุม

รศ.ดร.ศิระศิษย์ ชำของ

ยทะเบียน

ผศ.ดร.นิมิตล ศรีจาด

รียนฎีกนและประธานฝ่ายพัฒนา

ดร.มณิต บุญประเสริฐ

ระธานฝ่ายวิชาการ

ศ.ดร.สมิทธิ์ คำเพิ่มพูล

ระธานฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา

ผศ.ดร. ประดิษฐ์ เกกิงรังสฤษดิ์

ระธานฝ่ายประกันคุณภาพการศึกษา

ดร.ศิริพร คันทิพุลวินัย

ระธานฝ่ายหาทุน

อาจารย์วิภา พาสพัฒนาพันธ์

ระธานฝ่ายประชาสัมพันธ์

ดร.พรพรรณ วรสิทธิ์ รัตนอมร

ระธานฝ่ายจัดโปรแกรม

อาจารย์สุรี บูรณนิต

รมการ

ภรรคา ดร.ปัญญา แสงหิรัญ

ผศ.ดร.จิรศักดิ์ จิยะจันทร์

ดร.สุวิภากร ชินะผา

ดร.เสนีย์ สุวรรณดี

ดร.เลิศลักษณ์ ส.บุษพัฒน์

ดร.เสาวนีย์ กานต์เคธาวัฑ์

ดร.ภาใจ ฐูริธา

อาจารย์กนกวรรณ ฉันทนงมงคล

อาจารย์ภา ทศพระรินทร์

อาจารย์สุรีย์ ส.สุภาพันธ์

๑3 มิถุนายน 2545

เรื่อง ขอความร่วมมือในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล

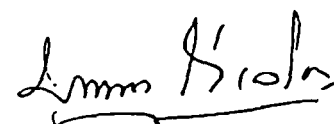
เรียน อธิการบดีมหาวิทยาลัยธุรกิจบัณฑิต

ด้วยนายประเสริฐ สิทธิจิรพัฒน์ ปัจจุบันกำลังศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอก สาขา Human Resource Management ที่ University of Northumbria at Newcastle ประเทศอังกฤษ ขณะนี้อยู่ระหว่างดำเนินการวิจัยเพื่อทำวิทยานิพนธ์เรื่อง "A Study of an extra behaviour benefiting organisation performance : organisational citizenship behaviour in a The university setting" ผู้ทำวิจัยจำเป็นต้องเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลโดยการสัมภาษณ์อาจารย์ประจำคณะบริหารธุรกิจ ในสถาบันอุดมศึกษาเอกชน จำนวน 4 สถาบัน ได้แก่

1. มหาวิทยาลัยกรุงเทพ
2. มหาวิทยาลัยธุรกิจบัณฑิต
3. มหาวิทยาลัยศรีปทุม
4. มหาวิทยาลัยสยาม

สมาคมสถาบันอุดมศึกษาเอกชนฯ จึงเรียนมาเพื่อขอความอนุเคราะห์จากท่าน ได้โปรดพิจารณาอนุญาตให้ผู้ทำวิจัยดังกล่าว ได้มีโอกาสเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลในสถาบันของท่านได้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ



(ดร.บุญทอง ภูเจริญ)

นายกสมาคมสถาบันอุดมศึกษาเอกชนแห่งประเทศไทย

ศูนย์ประสานงานสมาคม

โทร. 245-8548, 245-9327

โทรสาร 245-8548

Appendix B3: Request cooperative letter from Association of Private Higher Education Institutions of Thailand (APHEIT) to the universities (English version)

Ref. 110/2545

23 June 2545 (2002)

Subject: Cooperation for data gathering

Dear President of Dhurakijpundit University

Mr Prasert Sitthijirapat, a PhD student in Human Resource Management at University of Northumbria at Newcastle, England. He is conducting a research under the title of “A Study of an extra behaviour benefiting organisation performance: Organisational citizenship behaviour in Thai university setting”. He needs to collect data by interviewing lecturers in Faculty of Business Administration of 4 Private Higher Education Institutes, which are;

1. Bangkok University
2. Dhurakijpundit University
3. Sripatum University
4. Siam University

APHEIT would ask for your consideration in allowing the researcher to collect data in your institution.

Sincerely yours,

(Dr.Boonthong Phucharoen)

President

Cooperative Office:

Tel. 245-8548, 245-9327

Fax. 245-8548

Appendix B4: Letter of permission (1)



มหาวิทยาลัยศรีปทุม
SRIPATUM UNIVERSITY

BA.844 /2002

Faculty of Business Administration

Sripatum University

61 Paholyothin Road,

Ladyao Bangkaen,

Bangkok 10900

Tel: (0066) (2) 5799120 – 39 Ext. 2354

Fax: (0066) (2) 5799120 – 39 Ext. 2360

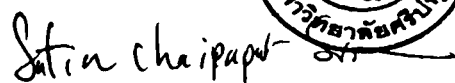
October 10, 2002

Dear Mr.Prasert Sitthijirapat

I have received your letter requesting for data collection from lecturers of Faculty of Business Administration I have taken charge of, and have pleasure in acceding to your request.

I see how necessary it is for you, according to your topic of study, in collecting data from the faculty to fulfil the requirements of PhD programe. Beside, I have found your research very interesting, and believed that the result of your research will give suggestions benefiting the Thai Private Universities.

Regards,



(Asst.Prof. Dr.Satien-chaiyapat Sriwarom)

Dean of Faculty of Business Administration

Sripatum University

บางเขน 61 ถนนพหลโยธิน เขตจตุจักร กรุงเทพฯ 10900 โทร. (อัตโนมัติ) 0-2579-9120. 0-2561-1036 โทรสาร 0-2561-1721
วิทยาเขตชลบุรี 79 ถนนบางนา - ตราด อำเภอเมือง จังหวัดชลบุรี 20000 โทร. 0-3874-3690-703 โทรสาร 0-3827-6590
BANGKHEN 61 PHAHONYOTIN RD., JATUJAK, BANGKOK 10900 TEL. 0-2579-9120. 0-2561-1036 FAX 0-2561-1721
CHONBURI 79 BANGNA-TRAD RD., MUANG. CHONBURI 20000 TEL. 0-3874-3690-703 FAX 0-3827-6590

Appendix B5: Letter of permission (2) in Thai

บันทึก



มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์

ที่ 0401/1101

วันที่ 1 พฤศจิกายน 2545

จาก ฝ่ายวิจัยและพัฒนาและศูนย์วิจัย

เรียน คณะบดีคณะบริหารธุรกิจ


สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย สำเนา หนังสือที่ สสอท.110/2545

เรื่อง ขอความร่วมมือในการให้สัมภาษณ์

ด้วย นายประเสริฐ สิทธิจิรพัฒน์ นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอก ของ University of Northumbria at Newcastle ซึ่งขณะนี้อยู่ระหว่างการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ ได้ขอความร่วมมือมหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์ในการเก็บข้อมูล โดยการสัมภาษณ์ผู้บริหารและอาจารย์ในคณะบริหารธุรกิจ จำนวน 10 คน ได้แก่ หัวหน้าภาควิชา จำนวน 2 ภาควิชา และ อาจารย์ประจำภาควิชาๆ ละ 4 คน รวมเป็น 10 คน โดยจะใช้เวลาในการสัมภาษณ์ในวันเสาร์ ที่ 9 พฤศจิกายน 2545 ตั้งแต่เวลา 09.00 -16.00 น.

ในการนี้ ศูนย์วิจัยใคร่ขอความร่วมมือคณะบริหารธุรกิจให้ความอนุเคราะห์แก่ผู้วิจัย ซึ่งการวิจัยครั้งนี้ สมาคมสถาบันอุดมศึกษาเอกชนฯ ได้ให้ความเห็นชอบตามข้อตกลงแล้ว (เอกสารแนบ)

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดอนุเคราะห์ ขอขอบคุณมา ณ โอกาสนี้



(นายสินธรวา คามศิษฐ์)
รองผู้อำนวยการศูนย์วิจัย

โทร.152, 528

Appendix B6: Letter of permission (2) in English

Memo

Ref. 041/1101 1 November 2545 (2002)
From Research & Development Department and Research Centre
Dear Dean of Business Administration Faculty
Attached: Copy letter from APHIET110/2545

Subject: Interviews cooperation

Mr Prasert Sitthijirapat, a PhD student from University of Northumbria at Newcastle has asked Dhurakijpundit University a permission to interview executives and lecturers in Faculty of Business Administration for 10 people; which are 2 Head of Department and 4 lecturers each department. The interview will be setting on 9 November 2002 between 9.00 – 16.00 hour.

In this matter, Research Centre would ask you to assist him. To this end, the Association of Private Higher Education Institutions of Thailand has agreed according to the agreement (attached).

Your help in this matter would be appreciated.

(Mr Sindhawa Khamdith)
Associate Director

Extension 152, 528

Prasert Sitthijirapat

Appendix B7: Letter of permission (3) in Thai



ที่ วพ.0303/151

สำนักวิจัยและพัฒนา
มหาวิทยาลัยสยาม
235 ถนนเพชรเกษม
แขวงภาษีเจริญ กรุงเทพฯ 10163

27 กรกฎาคม 2545

เรื่อง การให้ความร่วมมือในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล

เรียน นายกสมาคมสถาบันอุดมศึกษาเอกชนแห่งประเทศไทย (ดร.บุญทอง ภูเจริญ)

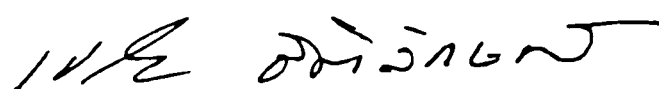
อ้างถึง หนังสือเลขที่ สสอท.110/2545 ลงวันที่ 23 มิถุนายน 2545 เรื่อง “ขอความร่วมมือในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล”

ตามที่ สมาคมสถาบันอุดมศึกษาเอกชนแห่งประเทศไทย (สสอท.) ได้ขอความร่วมมือมายังมหาวิทยาลัยสยาม ในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล โดยการสัมภาษณ์อาจารย์ประจำคณะบริหารธุรกิจ เพื่อเป็นข้อมูลในการทำวิจัยในระดับปริญญาเอกของ นายประเสริฐ สิทธิจิรพัฒน์ นั้น

มหาวิทยาลัยมีความยินดีให้ความร่วมมือ ในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลดังกล่าว จึงขอให้ สสอท. แจ้งนายประเสริฐ สิทธิจิรพัฒน์ทราบ เพื่อบันทึกเวลาในการสัมภาษณ์ โดยติดต่อ คุณพรทิพย์ รอดพันธ์ เลขานุการสำนักวิจัยและพัฒนา โทร.0-2457-0068 ต่อ 327 หรือ โทรสาร.0-2868-6885

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อทราบ

ขอแสดงความนับถือ



(นายเจริญ อิติลักษณะ)

ผู้อำนวยการสำนักวิจัยและพัฒนา

Appendix B8: Letter of permission (3) in English

Ref. 0303/151

Siam University
235 Petchkasem Road
Pasicharoen, Bangkok 10163

27 July 2545 (2002)

Dear President of Association of Private Higher Education Institutions of Thailand (Dr Boonthong Phucharoen)

Subject: Cooperation for data gathering

Referred to Letter No. 110/2545 dated 23 June 2545 (2002) on subject: Cooperation for data gathering

According to the proposal for a cooperation from the Association of Private Higher Education Institutions of Thailand (APHEIT) to Siam University in collecting data via interview lecturers in Faculty of Business Administration for PhD research of Mr Prasert Sitthijirapat.

We are pleased to cooperate with APHEIT. Could you please inform Mr Prasert Sitthijirapat in order to arrange the interviews by contacting Ms Pornpip Rodpetch, Secretary for Institute for Research and Development, Tel: 0-2457-0068 Ext 327 or Fax: 0-2868-6885.

Yours sincerely,

(Mr. Charoen Thitilak)

Director for Research and Development Institute

Appendix B9: Correspondence according to the problem on NUD*IST programme when using non-English version

Message Sent from Sue Bullen

Hello Prasert

Languages other than English are not a problem in N4 per se. Rather it is the font that will restrict what you can do. Depending on your version of Windows you will find that as N4 uses the system font, this is what all text will display in - usually this is simple plain text.

For languages that use a modified English font, the accents and special characters may have to be displayed without or as standard characters which can make the text less easy to read but usable.

Characters such as those used in Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Thai, Hindi, Arabic, Cyrillic etc. are more restrictive but a non-English version of windows MAY allow you to see a sensible approximation of this text in N4.

We have not performed extensive testing for different fonts across different systems because of the sheer number of combinations involved, however, if you do not yet have the software, importing a few files (saved as .txt) into the free demo download from our website (www.qsrinternational.com) should allow you to ascertain what works and what doesn't. The demo is fully functional but non-save version.

The above advice is based on reports from other users regarding their experiences - of course, any feedback you can give us will add to this and would be greatly appreciated.

Regards

Sue

Sue Bullen

Support and Systems Officer

QSR International Pty Ltd

Box 171, La Trobe University PO, Vic 3083, Australia.

(Ph) +61 3 9459 1699 (Fax) +61 3 9459 0435

Email: sue@qsr.com.au

Appendix C

Examples of Interview Transcript

and

Translation

1st participant

Q1: อาจารย์อายุเท่าไร

A: 27 ปี

Q2: อาจารย์ทำงานที่มหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้นานเท่าไร

A: 2 ปีเศษ

Q3: ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุดคืออะไร

A: MBA ทางการเงิน

Q4: อาจารย์มีตำแหน่งอะไรในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้

A: อาจารย์ประจำภาควิชาการเงิน คณะบริหารธุรกิจ

Q5: อาจารย์มีหน้าที่และความรับผิดชอบอะไรบ้าง

A: งานสอน เป็นที่ปรึกษาให้นักศึกษาเกี่ยวกับการลงทะเบียนการเรียน (เป็นหน้าที่โดยทั่วไป) หน้าที่อื่น ๆ เป็นคณะกรรมการที่คณะฯ แต่งตั้ง ซึ่งปัจจุบันก็เป็นอนุกรรมการพัฒนานักศึกษาเกี่ยวข้องกับกิจกรรมของนักศึกษา

งานด้านบริหารหรืองาน Admin ทั่วไป คือ เข้าไปดูแลเป็นที่ปรึกษากิจกรรมของนักศึกษา โครงการที่เกี่ยวกับนักศึกษามีทั้งที่เป็นโครงการที่อาจารย์เป็นคนจัด เช่น ปีฉิมนิเทศ ปฐมนิเทศ กิจกรรมที่เกี่ยวกับการพัฒนาบุคลิกภาพ คล้ายๆ กับเป็นกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตร อีกส่วนหนึ่งนักศึกษาทำแต่เราเป็นผู้ควบคุมดูแล เป็นที่ปรึกษา เช่น กีฬา งานชมรมต่างๆ ไปปลูกป่า

ก่อนหน้านี้มีงานเขียนบทความลงวารสาร ตอนนี้มีเอกสารประกอบการสอนซึ่งยังไม่ได้ตีพิมพ์ เพียงแต่ใช้ประกอบการสอน ซึ่งไม่ได้เป็น Assignment ไม่ได้เป็นข้อบังคับ แต่ว่าเป็นการแนะนำว่าอาจารย์จะต้อง ควรจะมี ที่คณะฯ ไม่ได้ Assign ให้ทำวิจัยอะไร ไม่ได้บังคับให้ทำ

Q6: อาจารย์ทราบว่ามีหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบนั้นได้อย่างไรบ้าง

A: อย่างแรกตั้งแต่ต้นที่เข้ามาทำงานก็จะมีเอกสารบอกเรา และในขณะที่เริ่มต้นทำงานหัวหน้างานก็จะบอกเรา คือ หัวหน้างานสอนงาน เพื่อนร่วมงานก็มีการแนะนำ เช่น เวลานั้นจะต้องทำอะไรบ้าง ก่อนจะสอนต้องเตรียมอะไรบ้าง สอบเสร็จแล้วต้องตรวจข้อสอบ รับข้อสอบ ตัดเกรดต้องทำอย่างไร

Q7: อาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้างในบทบาทเหล่านั้น

A: ถ้าจะสรุปคร่าว ๆ โดยทั่วไป คือ งานสอนและงานเป็นที่ปรึกษา ควบคุมดูแลกิจกรรมของนักศึกษา

Q8: ในฐานะที่เป็นอาจารย์ในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้ อาจารย์คิดว่าใครเป็นบุคคลที่เกี่ยวข้องโดยตรงในการปฏิบัติงานบ้าง

A: บุคคลแรก คือ หัวหน้างาน เพราะว่างานที่เขาก็ Assign มาจากหัวหน้างาน หมายถึง หัวหน้าภาควิชา ส่วนที่รองลงมา คือ นักศึกษา แล้วจึงกลับมาหาเพื่อนร่วมงานหรืออาจารย์ที่ร่วมสอน

หรืออาจารย์ในภาควิชาเดียวกัน เพราะว่า Assign สิ่งที่เราทำก่อน คือ เราต้อง Action ก่อน ซึ่ง Action ส่วนมากจะไปกับนักศึกษาส่วนใหญ่ เพื่อนร่วมงานก็แค่เข้ามา Contact

Q9: บุคคลเหล่านั้น ใครมีอิทธิพลต่อการปฏิบัติงานของอาจารย์มากที่สุด

A: หัวหน้าภาควิชา หรือผู้บริหารระดับสูง แต่สำหรับตัวเองหัวหน้าภาควิชา มีความสำคัญที่สุด เพราะว่าลำดับที่ใกล้เคียงที่สุด

Q10: มีบุคคลหรือหน่วยงานใดที่ตรวจสอบการทำงานของอาจารย์บ้าง

A: เท่าที่สอนมาเทอมนี้เทอมที่ 8 แล้ว ทุกเทอมจะมีการประเมินผลโดยนักศึกษา ประเมินในชั้นเรียนก็คือปลายภาค เริ่มต้นเลยเราก็ประเมิน แต่ปัจจุบันนี้ทางมหาวิทยาลัยมี การประเมินผลผ่าน Internet ให้นักศึกษาไปประเมินผลอาจารย์แต่ละ Class แล้วพอหมดภาค ทางมหาวิทยาลัยก็จะแจ้งให้เราทราบ และเท่าที่ทราบในแต่ละปีพอครบรอบปีหัวหน้าภาควิชา ผู้ช่วยคณบดี ก็จะประเมินผลงานพิจารณาใหม่ประจำปี ผลงานของเราประจำปีจะโยงไปถึงพวกคำตอบแทน เงินเดือนต่างๆ มันก็เหมือนมี 2 ส่วน อย่างหนึ่งที่ผมบอกตรง ๆ คนที่เกี่ยวข้องกันเรา คือ หัวหน้างานเกี่ยวข้องกับเรา ส่งงานและก็ประเมินเราด้วย นักศึกษาก็เกี่ยวข้องกับเรา เราต้องทำงานกับเขา และเขาก็ประเมินเราด้วย

Q11: อาจารย์คิดว่าบุคคลเหล่านี้คาดหวังอะไรจากอาจารย์บ้าง กรุณายกตัวอย่างประกอบ

A: อย่างแรกถ้าเป็นหัวหน้างานก็คาดหวังให้เราทำหน้าที่ที่เขา Assign ได้ คือ เรื่องงานสอนหรืองานอื่น ๆ กิจกรรมอื่น ๆ ในคณะ ส่วนนักศึกษาผมว่ามันบอกยากว่าเขาหวังอะไรจากเรา เนื่องจากว่ามีหัวหน้างานหรือหัวหน้าภาควิชา เรารู้ว่าใน 1 คนไม่ว่าจะเปลี่ยนหัวหน้าภาควิชา ไปกี่ครั้งมันก็มีแค่ 1 คน แต่ในขณะที่ นักศึกษาจำนวนเป็นร้อย ถ้าจะบอกว่าเขาคาดหวังอะไรคงตอบยาก แต่ถ้าจะตอบโดยภาพรวมแล้ว ผมคิดว่าเขาคงคาดหวังทั้งอยากจะให้เราถ่ายทอดให้เขาเข้าใจได้ง่ายถ่ายทอดเนื้อหาวิชาให้เข้าใจได้ง่ายขึ้นและอยากจะได้เกรดดี ๆ

ส่วนเพื่อนร่วมงานน่าจะหวังให้เราทำงานของตัวเองได้ และสามารถช่วยเหลือเค้าได้บ้างในบางโอกาส

Q12: อาจารย์คิดว่าความคาดหวังเหล่านั้นสมเหตุสมผลหรือไม่

A: ผมว่ามันน่าจะประมาณ

Q13: ในทางกลับกันอาจารย์คาดหวังอะไรจากบุคคลเหล่านั้น กรุณายกตัวอย่างประกอบ

A: อย่างหัวหน้างานก็คือ อยากให้เขารับรู้และเข้าใจในสิ่งที่เราถาม บางอย่างส่วนมากวัดกันที่ผลงาน แต่บางครั้งผลงานนั้นบางที่มันอาจไม่ได้สะท้อนถึงความตั้งใจจริง ๆ ก็ได้ เพราะฉะนั้นบางอย่างก็อยากให้เข้าใจถึงความตั้งใจของเรา เพราะบางครั้งผลที่ออกมามันไม่ใช่เครื่องวัด

เพื่อนร่วมงานก็หวังให้เค้าทำงานในหน้าที่ของเค้าได้ เพราะถ้าเค้าทำไม่ได้เราก็ต้องช่วยเค้า ถ้าเค้าทำได้ดีในบางโอกาสเค้าอาจช่วยเหลือเราได้

ส่วนนักศึกษาก็คาดหวังว่าเขาจะสามารถรับในสิ่งที่เราถ่ายทอดได้ดีที่สุด

Q14: อาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้างในแต่ละวัน

A: ในส่วนแรกที่เป็นงานประจำก็คือ ในแต่ละวันก็เตรียมการสอนในแต่ละสัปดาห์ และจะมีเวลาอีกส่วนหนึ่งก็คือ พยายาม update ตัวเอง คือ จะต้องอ่านหนังสือพิมพ์ทุกวัน วันละประมาณ 4-5 ฉบับ แล้วจะต้องไป search หาข้อมูลใหม่ๆ ใน net ที่เกี่ยวข้อง เช่น เบงค์ชาติ ธนาคารสถาบันการเงินต่างๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับเรา เพื่อที่จะ update ข้อมูลให้ตัวเองตลอดเวลาและหา ประเด็นใหม่ๆ เก็บไว้ใช้ในอนาคต

Q15: อาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้างในวันจันทร์ที่แล้ว

A: เข้ามาสอนตั้งแต่ 8.30 น. สอนแยะหน่อยถึง 11.30 น. แล้วก็พักผ่อนอาหาร ช่วงบ่ายก็จะขึ้นมาอ่านหนังสือเพื่อเตรียมสอนอีกคาบหนึ่ง แล้วรู้สึกช่วงเย็น ๆ ไปตลาดอัตราแลกเปลี่ยน

Q16: อาจารย์ได้พบกับบุคคลในข้อ 8 หรือไม่

A: พบหัวหน้าภาควิชา นักศึกษา เพื่อนร่วมงาน พบทั้งหมด เพราะว่ามันมีสอน

Q17: อาจารย์คิดว่าสิ่งที่ทำในวันจันทร์ที่แล้ว สิ่งใดที่

Q17.1: อาจารย์ตั้งใจว่าจะทำและได้ทำตามที่ตั้งใจ

ตั้งใจว่าจะอ่านหนังสือให้ได้มากกว่านี้ แต่ทำไม่ได้มากเท่าที่ต้องการ

Q17.2: อาจารย์ตั้งใจว่าจะทำแต่ไม่ได้ทำ

ไม่มี เพราะว่ามันวันจันทร์ก็กะว่าช่วงบ่าย คือมันไม่ได้ตั้งใจทำ แต่มันเป็นการคาดหวังมากกว่า แต่มันไม่เกิดอยากให้นักศึกษาเข้ามาพบแต่เขาก็ไม่มา คือพอดีว่ามันเป็นชั่วโมงสุดท้ายที่เราจะเจอนักศึกษาสอนไปแยะมาก แล้วเรามีความรู้สึกว่าถ้าเขาได้ไปอ่านหรือไปทำมา เขาต้องเจอปัญหาแน่ๆ เลย และคาดหวังว่าเขาจะเข้ามา ก็อ่านหนังสือไปพลางๆ ก็คือกะว่าถ้าเขาไม่มาผมก็อ่านหนังสือ

Q17.3: อาจารย์ตั้งใจว่าจะทำและได้ทำเกินกว่าที่คาดไว้

ไม่มี เพราะว่ามันคิดว่าอ่านหนังสือได้บทหนึ่งก็ไปไม่ถึงมันก็เลยไม่เกินคาด

Q18: ในวันจันทร์ที่แล้ว อาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้างที่เกินกว่าหน้าที่ตามปกติ

A: ก็ไปช่วยเจ้าหน้าที่คอมพิวเตอร์มีปัญหา คือ Print ไม่ได้ เปิด File ไม่ได้ ติดไวรัสอะไรทำนองนี้ ผมมี Skill ทางด้านคอมพิวเตอร์พอสมควรก็เลยไปช่วยแก้ไข ก็อย่างที่บอกคือ เราคาดหวังว่าเขาช่วยตัวเองได้หรือช่วยเราได้นิดหน่อย เราก็เดาว่าเขาก็คาดหวัง ว่าเราช่วยตัวเองได้และช่วยเขาได้นิดหน่อย

Q19: กรุณายกตัวอย่างสิ่งที่อาจารย์คิดว่าเคยทำนอกเหนือจากหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบตามปกติและเป็นประโยชน์ต่อมหาวิทยาลัย

A: ช่วงที่ผ่านมาก็มีกิจกรรม มันเป็นเรื่องที่เราต้องใช้เวลา跟他มาก สิ่งที่ผ่านมาผมไปดูแลนักเรียนที่เล่นวอลเลย์บอล เขาก็มีทีมเป็นกิจกรรมของเขา เราแค่ไปควบคุมไม่ให้เขาบาดเจ็บไม่ให้เขาไปตีกัน ไม่ให้เขาไปทำความเสียหาย แต่บางทีอย่างปีที่ผ่านมาก็เสาร์-อาทิตย์ก็ไปซ้อม

เราก็ต้องไปดูเขา เขาไปซ่อมกันก็ต้องหาน้ำ คิวเงินค่าน้ำ หายาให้เขา ก็ช่วยเขาหาสปอนเซอร์ให้ นั่นคือส่วนหนึ่ง แล้วก็อย่างเร็ว ๆ นี้ ทางมหาวิทยาลัยก็จะมีกีฬาสิ ผมก็เป็นกรรมการในฝ่ายสื่อสารกับเขาเหมือนกัน ซึ่งจริง ๆ เขาก็ระงับหน้าที่ของเราไปแล้วว่าอยู่ในจุดหนึ่ง แต่เราคิดว่าถ้าเป็นไปตามแผนของมหาวิทยาลัยแล้วอาจจะเกิดข้อผิดพลาดในอนาคต ซึ่งคงไม่มีใครยอมรับข้อผิดพลาดอันนั้นแน่ ๆ ก็บอกตรง ๆ ผมก็ดำเนินแผนได้ดิน นั่นคือผมก็ทำงานอื่นเพื่อ Support เพียงแต่ว่าก็คือพูดง่าย ๆ เขาไม่ได้รับทราบ แต่เราคิดว่ามันเป็นประโยชน์

Q20: ทำไมอาจารย์ถึงทำสิ่งนั้น

A: โดยภาพรวมแล้วเราอยู่ในองค์กร ถ้าใครว่าองค์กรนี้ไม่ดีเราก็ไม่ดี มันคงไปบอกเขาไม่ได้หรอกว่าองค์กรนี้ไม่ดีแต่ฉันดีพูดไม่ได้ เพราะฉะนั้นทราบใดที่เรายังอยู่ ไม่ว่าพรุ่งนี้เราจะอยู่หรือไม่ แต่วันนี้เรายังอยู่ผมคิดว่าอะไรที่ทำได้ก็ทำ และอีกอย่างผมบอกแล้วครับว่าผมไม่เคยคิดว่าสิ่งที่ต้องทำมากขึ้นคือความลำบากหรืออะไรที่มันเกินไป ผมบอกแล้วถ้ามันไม่ใช่อะไรที่มันไม่มีเหตุผลซะเลย ผมคิดว่านั้นเป็นโอกาส ถึงมันจะเกินหน้าที่มันก็เป็นโอกาส คือคนอาจจะไม่รู้เลยว่าผมทำงานนี้ได้ เพราะเขาคิดว่าผมทำไม่ได้ เมื่อมีโอกาสมาผมทำได้ ตอนนี้อย่างไรแล้วผมทำงานนี้ได้เหมือนงานสอน ผมก็สอนไป ทุกคนคิดว่าเป็นอาจารย์ก็สอนได้ อย่างไม่ไปซ่อมคอมพิวเตอร์ถ้าผมไม่อาสาไปช่วยเขาซ่อมเขาก็ไม่รู้ว่าผมซ่อมคอมพิวเตอร์ได้ มันเป็นวิธีการคิดของผม เป็นสาเหตุที่ทำไมเราถึงทำเกินงาน สิ่งที่เราทำทุกอย่างมันเป็นโอกาสแต่ตัวเราเองที่จะบอกตัวเองได้ว่า บางทีเราอาจจะเพิ่งรู้ก็ได้ว่าเราทำได้ไม่ใช่คนอื่นรู้ บางทีเราอาจเพิ่งรู้ก็ได้ แต่ถ้าถามว่าถ้าเพื่อองค์กรแล้วก็ทำในลักษณะนี้ วันนี้ใครจะว่าองค์กรนั้นไม่ดีผมบอกไม่รู้ แต่เวลาที่ผมอยู่องค์กร ถ้าองค์กรนี้ไม่ดีผมก็ไม่ดีด้วย แม้ผมคนเดียวทำให้องค์กรนี้ดีขึ้นไม่ได้ แต่อย่างน้อยเรารู้ว่าเราทำแล้ว

Q21: อาจารย์ต้องการให้ข้อมูลอื่นเพิ่มเติมหรือไม่

A: ปัญหา ณ ปัจจุบันอาจารย์หลาย ๆ ท่านและตัวผมเองก็คิดด้วยตั้งแต่ก่อนมาทำงาน เพราะเวลาสอนอาจารย์ลงมาสอน สิ่งทีทุกคนคาดหวังกับอาชีพนี้คือตัวเองจะได้สอนหนังสือ แล้วเวลาที่เหลือจะได้ไปพัฒนาอะไรใหม่ ๆ มาสอน มาเพิ่มเติม ทีนี้เมื่อเราเข้ามาทำงานเราพบมีภาระกิจอื่นนอกจากการสอนเข้ามาแทรกในเวลาสอนของเรา ความคิดเดิมที่จะพัฒนาคุณภาพในการสอน เนื้อหาในวิชาการ หรือความทันสมัยในวิชาการมันก็เลยหมดไป ตัวผมเองก็มีเหมือนกันในบางครั้งที่มีความรู้สึกที่เราใช้เวลาไปกับกิจกรรมอื่นนอกเหนือจากภารกิจประจำกับอย่างอื่น ซึ่งมันทำให้ลดความสามารถหรือความตั้งใจที่จะพัฒนาในการสอนออกไป ยกตัวอย่าง ถ้ามว่าผมชอบทำกิจกรรมนักศึกษาใหม่ ผมไม่ชอบ ถ้าเขาให้ผมทำ ผมก็ต้องทำ ใจจริงผมอยากทำเกี่ยวกับวิจัย แต่เมื่อผมต้องใช้เวลาส่วนหนึ่งไปอยู่กับงานกิจกรรม ผมไม่สามารถทำวิจัยได้ แต่ถ้าวันนี้เขา Assign ให้ผมทำวิจัย ผมทำได้ แล้วผมจะบอกว่าสิ่งที่มีผลต่อการทำงานคือ การกำหนดชิ้นงานที่ให้ทำคือ ถ้าผู้บริหารมั่นใจว่าอาจารย์ของตัวเองเป็นพวกที่เลยระดับความต้องการทางด้านร่างกาย ความต้องการปลอดภัยมาแล้ว ถ้าเขาเชื่อว่าเป็นคนเช่นนั้นแล้ว เขาก็จะไม่วางกรอบให้เรา แล้วเมื่อนั้นแต่ละ

คนก็จะแสดงความสามารถของแต่ละคนออกมาเอง ผมเชื่อว่าตัวผมเองก็เป็นอย่างนี้เหมือนกัน เชื่อว่าทุกคนอยากแสดงออก อยากทำงานเพียงแต่ว่า ถ้าไปถูกจำกัดต้องทำงานนั้นงานนี้ สิ่งที่ตัวเองอยากทำมันก็เลยพลอยไม่ได้ทำ ในตัวผมเองโชคดีที่ผมไม่รู้ว่าจะอยากทำอะไรอยากทำ ผมทำหมดถึงบอกว่างานอื่น ๆ ที่นอกเหนือไปจากงานที่ Assign ผมแทบไม่รู้เลยว่างานไหน Assign งานไหนไม่ Assign เพราะว่าผมทำด้วยความรู้สึกเท่านั้น ไม่ว่าจะช่วยเพื่อนทำหรือทำเพราะเป็นงานที่ตัวเองต้องรับผิดชอบ ผมทำด้วยความตั้งใจเท่านั้น งานเหมือนกัน มันกลายเป็นว่าสิ่งที่เป็นงานหลัก งานรองหรืองานอื่น ๆ เข้ามาจนเราคิดว่ากลายเป็นงานที่เราต้องทำ เพราะว่าบางทีผมคิดเอาเองว่า ถ้าเราทำแบบนี้เพื่อจะโชว์ให้เห็นว่า เห็นมัยไม่ต้องบังคับฉัน ฉันก็ทำได้ ไม่ต้องบังคับ ฉันก็ทำให้เพราะฉันตั้งใจจะทำ แล้วก็หวังว่าวันหนึ่งมันจะทำให้คนที่มีอำนาจ หรือผู้บริหารเห็นว่าจริงๆ แล้วไม่ต้องตั้งกฎเกณฑ์ก็ได้ เพราะทุกคนมีความคิดอย่างนี้ ฉันเพียงแต่หยิบคนไปใช้ให้ถูกทางเท่านั้นเอง

1st participant

Q1: How old are you?

A: 27 Years old.

Q2: How many years have you been employed by this university?

A: 2 years.

Q3: What is your highest academic qualification?

A: MBA in Finance

Q4: What is your job title in the university?

A: A lecturer, Financial and Banking Department, Faculty of Business Administration.

Q5: What are your responsibilities within the university?

A: Teaching. Student advisor (in general). Another is department committee, which is subcommittee of student development.

Administration: Monitoring and advising students' project which concern to my projects, for example, commencement and induction about developing personality. Another example is an advisor for student activity such as sport activity.

Before that I wrote articles for magazine, now I got some teaching material, which are not public yet, but use in the class. This is not an assignment but the faculty recommend to do as same as research.

Q6: How do you know what your responsibilities are?

A: There were documents shown me when I first jointed. My supervisor guided me what to do and also my colleagues recommended me what should I do such as how should I prepare before class, how to do grading, and so on.

Q7: What have done in these roles?

A: In general are teaching, advisory and in charging student activity.

Q8: As the member of the university, could you tell me who are the key people?

A: First person is my supervisor because most of my assignments were assigned from him. Second is student, which is more concern in priority. First comes a first act.

Q9: Which of those people have a greater influence on your work?

A: Head of department or executive. Personally, head of department is most important because I am working closely to her.

Q10: Are there any persons/organisations taking account on your performance?

A: This is my 8th semester, every semester evaluated by students. Mostly in the end of semester, sometimes in the beginning of semester. At present, evaluation went through internet. Students will evaluate each class that I taught and, in the end of semester, university will let me know the evaluation. As far as I know, each academic year round, head of department and assistant dean have to evaluate my performance. My performance appraisal is base on two groups of people: my head of department and students.

Q11: What are these people expected from you?

A: My head depart is expected me to do whatever he assign me to do. This position is managed by one man, it does not matter how many times university changes this person he/she is still my boss. This is totally different expectation from students because I taught hundreds of them. In general, I think they expect me to contribute knowledge which easy for them to understand and they're able to get a good grade. For colleagues, I think they expected me to do my job and able to assist them in occasion.

Q12: Do you think it was reasonable to their expectation?

A: It's reasonable expectations.

Q13: What do you, in tern, expect of your key people?

A: Head of department: I would like her to realise and understand what my questions are. Sometimes performance is intangible and it's not absolutely what I intend to do. Therefore, I would like her to realise that what I am doing.

Colleagues, I expect them to do their jobs. Because if they can't do, then I might help them. If they did a good job sometimes they can help me too.

Q14: Can I ask you what you do on a typical day?

A: As a full time lecturer, I have to prepare teaching material each week. And I also try to update myself by reading newspaper daily at least 4-5 newspaper. Then I have to search more information from internet from Bank of Thailand and financial institutions. This will help to update myself and in further use.

Q15: What did you do mainly on last Monday?

A: Taught from 8:30 – 11:30 am and lunch break. In the afternoon, read textbook to prepare for next class. I was free in the evening, so I went to Stock Exchange of Thailand (SET).

Q16: Have you met your key people on that day?

A: I met head of department, students, and colleagues because I had class on that day.

Q17: Do you think what you did on last Monday;

17.1 Which of the expectations did you intend to meet?

I planed to read a lot of books but I didn't read much.

17.2 Which of the expectation did you perhaps don't meet?

None. Because I had no expected anything on Monday afternoon. I would like students come to see me but they have not. This is the last advising hour and expecting to see many students. Because I feel that they will be facing some questions when they study. During that time, I was read some book. Unfortunately, no one came up.

17.3 Which of the expectation did you exceed?

None. Because I expected to finish my reading for 1 chapter but I couldn't.

Q18: On last Monday, would you say that you would do anything beyond the normal of your key people expectation?

A: Once, computers had some problem on printing. The admin staffs cannot open file because of virus infection. I have some computer knowledge. So I gave them a hand to sort that problem out. By the way, I expected them to dependent or able to assist me.

Q19: Can you give me examples of when you think you do something beyond requirements?

A: In the past, I had a lot of activities with students and mostly I just monitoring them. They already had volleyball team, I just be there in order to prevent injure or fight. Last year they had practiced, I'd been with them and provide some assistant. I also recruit some sponsor for these activities too.

Q20: why did you do this?

A: In general, if someone mentions that this is not a good institution. So they imply that I am not good either. Whatever it takes me to improve university's reputation, I will glad to do it. Sometimes, people though that I may not do it such as fixing computer.

Who knows, if I did not fixed it last week. When people knew that I'm capable of then I gain more trust from them. I took this opportunity to prove that I am capable to do things that sometimes they are not expecting I capable of. Today I am working for this institution and I proud of. Now anyone said that this is not quite good reputation but I am proud of. Even myself really can't change outsider image but at least I have done my parts.

Q21: Would you like to add anything else?

A: Current problem is unclear job description. Most fully expected to teach, and the rest of work time for studying and doing research. However, becoming engaged as lecturers, besides teaching they received other assignments. In the beginning they intended to improve the quality of teaching, but later he/ she learned that he/she could not to do it because there were too many work assignments. If you ask me, do I like to do student's activities? In fact, I don't. If they want me to do, I will. Actually I would like to do research but I have to spend sometimes to do student's activities. The bottom line is I have no time to do my research. If my superior assigns me to do, I am capable. You can evaluate people performance if you let them express their potential. Let's said, head of department confidents that her lecturers are capable of and assign them without boundary. So this quite freely assignment will improve research quality and lecturer confident as well. Because she do not tell us what to do or what are not do to. I think everybody wants to express their opinion or ideas but head of department wants them to express in boundary. This will not help in term of improvement and quality. Personally, I don't feel like or don't like it. I do everything evenly and I've done so many activities besides teaching and no one ask to do so. I hope some days, someone who is decision maker will have this type of vision. Then we don't have to set any boundary or regulations to do the job. Because everybody knows what to do, the boss just knows how to utilise his human resource, that's all.

4th participant

Q1: อาจารย์อายุเท่าไร

A: 30 ปี

Q2: อาจารย์ทำงานที่มหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้มานานเท่าไร

A: 2 ปีครึ่งค่ะ

Q3: ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุดของอาจารย์คืออะไร

A: ปริญญาโท MBA ด้านการเงินค่ะ

Q4: อาจารย์มีตำแหน่งอะไรในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้

A: อาจารย์ประจำภาควิชาการเงินและการธนาคาร

Q5: อาจารย์มีหน้าที่และความรับผิดชอบอะไรบ้างครับ

A: สอนและก็มีพันธกิจตามที่มหาวิทยาลัยกำหนด แล้วก็คุมสอบ เป็นคณะกรรมการคุมสอบ เป็นอนุกรรมการทำโครงการกิจกรรมของคณะ รวมถึงกิจกรรมของอาจารย์ด้วย เป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา แต่ส่วนมากเป็นกิจกรรมของนักศึกษาเป็นส่วนใหญ่

- คือเป็นโครงการของคณะ หรือภาควิชา

เป็นทั้งของคณะและภาควิชา เช่น กิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตรก็เป็นแต่ละภาครับผิดชอบไปกันเอง เช่น ตัวเองสอนวิชาอะไรก็จัดกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตรให้เด็กอาจจะเชิญวิทยากรภายนอกเข้ามา หรือพาไปทัศนศึกษาดูงาน แต่ถ้าเกิดเป็นกิจกรรมของคณะก็ เช่น ปีจฉิมนิเทศ รับปริญญา นี่คือรวมของคณะที่รวมของ มหาวิทยาลัยก็มี ซึ่งอย่างปีหน้าก็เป็นกีฬามหาวิทยาลัย ซึ่งต้องร่วมรับผิดชอบกันทั้งมหาวิทยาลัยเลย

Q6: อาจารย์ทราบว่ามีหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบนั้นจากที่ไหนครับ

A: ก็มีการประชุมนิเทศอาจารย์ใหม่หรือว่าแจกแจง หรือว่าเราก็ตราบจากเพื่อนร่วมงาน หัวหน้างาน เขาก็จะมอบหมายงาน ก็คือเป็นที่ว่าเราจะต้องทำตรงนี้

- ถ้ามองในแง่ของพิเศษหน่อยก็คือ ทางหัวหน้างานหรือหัวหน้าภาค ผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา ผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายวิชาการ รวมถึงเพื่อนร่วมงานด้วยค่ะ เพื่อนร่วมงานด้วย

- นอกจากนี้ยังมีอะไรอีกไหมครับ

ถ้าอย่างนั้นก็ไม่มีค่ะ

- ตรงนี้เป็นการอบรมอาจารย์ใหม่

ค่ะ อบรมอาจารย์ใหม่ อบรมการตรวจสอบ ออกข้อสอบก็จะมี

- หมายถึงจะเป็นโครงการอบรมเป็นระยะหรือป่าว หรืออบรมเฉพาะช่วงที่อาจารย์เข้ามาเลย เป็นระยะค่ะ คือเขาจะจัดเป็นรุ่นๆ สมมติรุ่นละ 40 คน เมื่อครบ 40 คนเขาก็จะจัดอบรม แต่ถ้าเผอิญเข้ามาเป็นคนที่ 41 ก็ต้องรอจนครบ 80 คน ถึงจะมีการอบรมอีกรุ่นหนึ่ง

- อาจารย์ได้ JD หรือไม่

จริงๆแล้วเป็นคู่มือเหมือนกันแต่ไม่เชิงเป็น JD ว่าอาจารย์จะต้องปฏิบัติเช่นนี้ มันเป็นเท่าที่จำได้ มันเป็น Step มาเช่น ช่วงนี้อบรมออกข้อสอบก็บอกว่าต้องทำอย่างนี้ ช่วงคุมสอบก็ต้องทำอย่างนี้ แต่ถ้าเป็น JD โดยเป็นทางการเลยนะ คิดว่ายังไม่เห็น

- ไม่ได้ตัวนี้เลย ในช่วงที่เข้ามาทำงาน ตอนเข้ายังไม่มีคู่มือนี้ ต้องเข้ามาในองค์กรก่อน เขาก็จะอบรมเป็นช่วงๆ เป็นเรื่องๆไป

- ก็คือไม่ได้เห็น JD แต่เรียนรู้จากเพื่อนร่วมงานกับผู้บังคับบัญชาใช่หรือไม่

ใช่ค่ะ แต่ว่าขอบอกไว้นิดหนึ่งว่า เวลาอบรมเรื่องใดเรื่องหนึ่งก็อาจจะมี JD เป็นเรื่องๆเฉพาะไป แต่ไม่ใช่ทั้งหมดว่า อาจารย์ต้องมีหน้าที่อะไรบ้าง อันนี้ไม่มี อันนี้บางทีเราก็ถามเพื่อนร่วมงาน ทำตามที่เขาเคยปฏิบัติกันมา

Q7: แล้วอาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้างในบทบาทเหล่านั้น

A: ก็สอนหนังสือ เป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาที่แบ่งตามรหัสนักศึกษา ที่เป็นอยู่ก็คือ รหัส 41 กับ 45 ที่เข้าใหม่ ถ้ามีปัญหาหรือเรื่องการลงทะเบียนอะไรประเภทนี้ก็จะรับผิดชอบเด็กพวกนี้

- มีงานด้านบริหารด้วยหรือไม่

ส่วนมากจะเป็นงานโครงการมากกว่า ถ้านอกเหนือจากงานสอนแล้วนะค่ะ

- โครงการเสริมหลักสูตร

ค่ะ หรือไม่ก็ คืออาจารย์ทุกคนจะได้รับแต่งตั้ง ก็คือได้รับแต่งตั้งเป็นคณะอนุกรรมการ เช่น ฝ่ายกิจกรรมนักศึกษา ฝ่ายศิลปวัฒนธรรม ฝ่ายงบประมาณ ที่เขาจะแบ่งกันเป็นประมาณ 7-8 องค์กรประกอบ แล้วถ้ามีงานเข้ามาแล้ว จัดอยู่ในองค์กรประกอบไหน อาจารย์ที่อยู่ในฝ่ายนั้นก็รับผิดชอบไป

- งานเกี่ยวกับงานด้านวิชาการ เช่น การเขียนตำรา ทำวิจัย มีหรือไม่

ยังไม่มีค่ะ นอกจากเขียนลงใน BA NEWS Letter ไม่เป็นทางการมากนัก แล้วก็เตรียมเอกสารประกอบการสอน แต่ว่าถ้าตำรา งานวิจัย แบบเต็มตัวนี้ยังไม่ได้ทำ

- ไม่ได้มี Requirement ว่าต้องทำ หรือไม่ได้แต่งตั้งให้ต้องทำ มีคำสั่งให้ต้องทำหรือไม่
ยังค่ะ

- ถ้าจะทำคือเราอยากทำเองใช่หรือไม่

ก็ว่าได้ ถ้าแต่งตำราบางคนก็อาจจะค่อยๆ เขียน อย่างสอนครบ 5 ปีหรือ 3 ปี แล้วก็เขียนเสนอเป็นขอตำแหน่งเป็น ผศ. ได้ อาจจะเริ่มเขียนไปในลักษณะแรก แต่ไม่ได้บังคับว่าภายในช่วงปีนี้จะต้องเป็นอย่างนั้น

Q8: ในฐานะที่เป็นอาจารย์ที่นี่ อาจารย์คิดว่าใครเป็นบุคคลที่เกี่ยวข้องโดยตรงกับการปฏิบัติงานของอาจารย์บ้าง

A: คนที่เรารับผิดชอบด้วยก็คือ นักศึกษาเพราะว่านักศึกษาคืองานของเรา คือเราเตรียมงานไว้เพื่อใคร ไม่ได้เตรียมไว้เพื่อหัวหน้า แต่เตรียมไว้เพื่อนักศึกษา เช่น เอกสารประกอบการสอน ตำรา

การทำ ความรู้ การหากิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตรทุกอย่างให้กับพวกเขา ก็เลยคิดว่าน่าจะเป็นนักศึกษา แต่ทั้งนี้ทั้ง นั้น ก็ไม่สามารถจะละเลยเพื่อนร่วมงาน หัวหน้างานของเราด้วยเป็นส่วนประกอบ

- ก็คือนักศึกษา กับเพื่อนร่วมงาน

แล้วก็หัวหน้างาน

- เพื่อนร่วมงานจะไปถึงระดับไหน

คิดว่าอาจจะคนบดี

- คนบดี รวมทั้งผู้บังคับบัญชา ในความหมายของอาจารย์นี่จะเป็นตำแหน่งไหนบ้าง ตั้งแต่หัวหน้าภาคเลย

- ที่อาจารย์ คิดว่าเขามีความสำคัญกับงานของอาจารย์อย่างไร

ก็คิดว่า นอกจากนักศึกษาที่มีความสำคัญมาเป็นอันดับหนึ่งอยู่แล้ว ก็จะมีเพื่อนร่วมงาน แล้ว ก็หัวหน้างานภายในคณะ คือมองใกล้ตัวก่อน อาจจะเพื่อนร่วมงาน แล้วก็หัวหน้าภาค ผู้ช่วยคน บดีฝ่ายวิชาการ ผู้ช่วยคนบดีฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษาและท่านคนบดี

Q9: คิดว่าใครสำคัญที่สุด

A: นักศึกษา

Q10: มีบุคคลหรือหน่วยงานใดที่เข้ามาตรวจสอบการทำงานของอาจารย์บ้าง

A: ถ้าเป็นช่วงที่ผ่านมาก็น่าจะเป็นระบบ ISO ซึ่งเป็นหน่วยงานภายนอกที่เขาจะเข้ามาประเมิน การสอน แต่ก่อนอื่น ISO เป็นการประเมินจากภายนอก ภายในก็เหมือนกันจะมีอาจารย์ คณะกรรมการ ภายในคณะ คณะอื่นในมหาวิทยาลัย มาประเมินประสิทธิภาพภายในมหาวิทยาลัย มาประเมิน ภายในก่อนที่ภายนอกจะเข้ามา

- เขามาประเมินอะไร

ก็ประเมิน หมายถึงว่าดูลักษณะการจัดการระบบมากกว่า เป็นระบบกว้างๆ ว่าระบบการจัดการ ของคณะนี้เป็นการจัดระบบอย่างไร กว้างๆ แต่ถ้าเกิดภายนอกเราก็จะกำหนด มาตรฐานเอาไว้เป็น จุดๆ ไป

Q11: อาจารย์คิดว่าบุคคลที่อาจารย์บอกว่าเขามีความสำคัญกับงานของอาจารย์ เขาหวังอะไรบ้าง

A: เริ่มต้นจากนักศึกษา เขาก็หวังที่จะได้รับความรู้ ความชำนาญในวิชาก่อน แล้วจะนำไปต่อ เนื่องในสาขาวิชาชีพได้ อย่างเช่นนำไปประกอบอาชีพในอนาคต ส่วนเพื่อนร่วมงานก็คาดหวังจะให้ ทำงานร่วมกันอย่างราบรื่นมากกว่า ส่วนหัวหน้างานก็เหมือนกันเหมือนเพื่อนร่วมงาน แต่อาจจะ เป็นคนละระดับกัน

- แล้วอาจารย์คิดว่าหัวหน้าภาคหวังอะไรจากอาจารย์

ก็หวังให้เรารับผิดชอบงานให้ดีที่สุด ให้ตรงตามพันธกิจไม่ขาดตกบกพร่อง

- แล้วในแง่ของผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายวิชาการ ผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษาและคณบดี คิดว่าท่านอยู่ในระดับสูงกว่าเรา คงจะคาดหวังให้เราทำงานเต็มความสามารถในระดับมาตรฐาน นี่คือขั้นต่ำ แต่ให้เหนือกว่ามาตรฐานแต่อย่าให้ต่ำกว่ามาตรฐาน

Q12: อาจารย์คิดว่าความคาดหวังเหล่านั้นสมเหตุสมผลหรือไม่

A: ก็คิดว่าตอนนี้เป็นเรื่องที่ยอมรับได้ ไม่ได้มากหรือน้อยเกินไปโดยทำให้เราเฉื่อย คงสมเหตุสมผล

Q13: แล้วในทางกลับกันอาจารย์คาดหวังอะไรจากบุคคลเหล่านั้นบ้าง

A: นักศึกษาก็หวังให้เขารับผิดชอบในตัวเอง เหมือนกับถ้าเกิดเป็นองค์กรในการทำงาน เราก็เหมือนระดับสูงกว่าเขาอย่างนั้นแล้วกัน เขาก็เป็นระดับลูกน้อง เราก็เหมือนหัวหน้างาน เราก็อยากให้เขารับผิดชอบตัวเอง ซึ่งถ้าเขารับผิดชอบตัวเองได้ในแต่ละคน แล้วงานมันก็จะออกมาอย่างสมบูรณ์แบบ สมมุติเราอยากจะทำเรื่องนี้ให้กับพวกเขา แต่ถ้าเขาไม่มีความรับผิดชอบ มีความพร้อมเพียงกัน มันก็น่าจะผ่านไปได้ด้วยดี จริงๆความรับผิดชอบมันมีความสำคัญมากกว่าสติปัญญา เพราะบางที่เราอาจจะมอง เมื่อ เปรียบเทียบมหาวิทยาลัยเอกชนกับมหาวิทยาลัยของรัฐ สมมุติบอกว่านักศึกษาของรัฐบาลเก่งกว่า ที่เขา เก่งกว่าเพราะว่าเขาไม่มีความรับผิดชอบมากกว่า แต่มุมมองของคนอื่นหรือองค์กรอื่นไม่รู้ว่าจะเหมือนกัน หรือไม่

- หัวหน้าภาค บางทีเรามองเป็นว่าเขาจะคาดหวังอะไรจากเรามากกว่าที่จะมองว่าเราคาดหวังอะไรจากเขา เท่าที่ทำงานด้วยกันมาก็ไม่มีสิ่งใดเจาะจงที่จะคาดหวัง เพราะว่าทุกวันนี้ก็พอใจในระดับหนึ่ง ก็คิดว่าไม่ มีอะไรที่รับไม่ได้ ที่คาดหวังก็คือในลักษณะที่ว่ามีอะไรด้วยกันดีกว่า แต่อันนี้มันก็เปิดอยู่แล้ว ในการเสนอความคิดเห็น มีการประชุมปรึกษาหารือ ระดมความคิดที่จะทำให้เกิดโครงการกิจกรรมดีๆ ให้มันมีความเจริญยิ่งขึ้นไป ก็ไม่ได้คาดหวังอะไรพิเศษนอกจากนี้

- เพื่อนร่วมงาน ทำงานด้วยกันอย่างราบรื่น ไม่มีการขัดแย้ง ขัดใจ เพราะฉะนั้นต่างคนก็ต่างทำหน้าที่ของแต่ละคน งานก็ไม่ค่อยเกี่ยวข้องกันอยู่แล้ว คือว่าสมมุติงานเขาเสียงานเราก็ไม่เสียงานเราเสียงานเขาก็ไม่เสีย อะไรอย่างนี้ ก็คือมันต่างกับงานที่งานเราขึ้นอยู่กับเขางานเขาขึ้นอยู่กับเรา แต่อันนี้ไม่คาดหวังแค่ว่าอยู่ ในองค์กรด้วยความราบรื่น ภาคก็ภาคเดียวกัน คณะก็คณะเดียวกัน ทุกคนมีความเป็นอันหนึ่งอันเดียวกัน

Q14: อาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้างในแต่ละวัน

A: ภารกิจการสอน และมีชั่วโมง O.H ก็นั่งเป็นที่ปรึกษาให้นักศึกษา ชั่วโมงว่างก็จะเป็นการเตรียม การสอน ตรวจสอบ สอบ ตรวจการบ้าน นอกจากนั้นอาจจะเป็นการจัดโครงการ เขียนโครงการ ติดต่อให้ โครงการมันออกมาเรียบร้อยดี ก็คือเกี่ยวกับลักษณะงานของการสอนโดยส่วนมาก

Q15: ในสัปดาห์ที่แล้วในวันพฤหัสบดีอาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้าง

A: ช่วงเช้าก็มีประชุมคณะ 8.30–11.00 น. ช่วงบ่ายก็มีสอนหนึ่งคาบ ช่วงบ่ายประชุมเสร็จแล้วก็ทานข้าว แล้วก็ไปสอน สอนเสร็จก็กลับบ้านในเวลาที่สามารถกลับได้ เป็นเวลาที่ได้ระบุไว้ตามตาราง

Q16: อาจารย์ได้พบกับบุคคลที่อาจารย์บอกว่าสำคัญกับงานของอาจารย์บ้างหรือไม่

A: พบ อันดับแรกก็คือนักศึกษา ใหม่นะ คือได้พบ เพราะว่าวันนั้นมีสอนด้วย เพื่อนร่วมงาน และผู้บังคับบัญชาก็ได้พบหมดเลย เพราะว่าช่วงเช้ามีประชุมคณะ

Q17: ในวันนั้นอาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้างที่อาจารย์คิดว่า

17.1 จะทำแล้วได้ทำ

- ก็ได้ทำอะ สิ่งที่ plan ไว้ ไม่ได้นอกเหนือจากภารกิจจะอะ คือ อยู่ในหัวข้อการเรียนการสอนทั้งนั้น เพราะในวันพฤหัสบดี มีประชุมคณะ แต่ไม่ได้ประชุมทุกวันพฤหัสบดี แต่ได้ทราบแล้ว ก่อนหน้าที่จะถึง ก็เตรียมประชุม ตรวจงาน ก่อนที่จะเข้าห้องสอน เพื่อเอาไปสอน เผลอ ก็เป็นไปตามแผน ไม่มีอะไรที่คิดว่าอยากทำแล้วไม่ได้ทำ

17.2 แล้วมีไหมครับที่ตั้งใจไว้แล้วไม่ได้ทำ

- ไม่มีค่ะ

17.3 มีงานที่ตั้งใจจะทำแล้วได้ทำมากกว่าที่ตั้งใจหรือไม่

- ก็คิดว่าเป็นไปตามครรลอง ก็คิดว่าวันนั้นก่อนเข้าสอนก็ได้เช็คงาน เช็คอะไร แต่จำได้ว่าได้เตรียมนักศึกษาที่ปรึกษา เพื่อให้ อป. แบบฟอร์ม อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาไปให้เซ็น ก็คิดว่าได้ทำสิ่งที่เราได้ Plan ก็ได้ทำ ซึ่งมันก็เกี่ยวข้องกับการเรียนการสอน เกี่ยวกับนักศึกษาทั้งนั้น

Q18: กรุณายกตัวอย่างสิ่งที่คุณคิดว่าได้ทำนอกเหนือจากหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบตามปกติ และเป็นประโยชน์กับทางมหาวิทยาลัย

A: หน้าที่ตามปกติ เช่น สอนแทน มันเป็นเรื่องส่วนน้อยมาก แต่ในส่วนเรื่องการให้มหาวิทยาลัยเหมือนกัน นักศึกษามาเป็นอันดับหนึ่ง อยู่ใน Class ก็อย่างน้อยก็ปลุกฝังให้เขามีความศรัทธาในองค์กร บางทีนักศึกษาอาจจะคิดว่าเราอยู่ในมหาวิทยาลัยเอกชน บางทีส่วนมากก็ให้มีความศรัทธาไม่ต้องถึงขนาดกับรัก มีความเชื่อมั่นเป็นอันดับหนึ่ง จะไม่ชอบในลักษณะที่นักศึกษาบอกว่า ทำไมมาเรียนที่นี่ ฮึม..หนูสอบที่อื่นไม่ได้ อะไรประมาณนี้ คิดว่ามันไม่ดีทั้งตัวเขาเองและองค์กร เราก็เลยพยายามที่จะปลุกฝังมากกว่า คือเราต้องมีความเชื่อมั่น แล้วก็ประพฤติปฏิบัติให้ถูกต้อง แล้วเขาก็จะเป็นคน หนึ่งในสังคม สังคมก็จะติดตามไปเอง จากห้องเรียนเล็กๆเลย แล้วไปสังคม ไปประเทศ ไปอะไรก็ว่าไป อย่างน้อยเราก็อยู่ในองค์กรนี้ มีความเชื่อมั่นศรัทธาในระดับหนึ่งมันก็คิดว่ามันจะเป็นผลดีทั้งสองฝ่าย

Q19: ทำไมอาจารย์ถึงทำครับ

A: ก็เหมือนกับว่าเราทำงานในที่นี้แล้ว มามัวหาข้อเสียของที่นี่ มองว่าตรงนี้ตรงนั้นไม่ดี สิ่งเสียก็คือตัวเราเอง แล้วเราจะอยู่ที่นี้ทำไม เพื่ออะไร ประโยชน์ของเราไม่ใช่ ประโยชน์ขององค์กร

ก็ไม่ใช่ เพราะฉะนั้นสิ่งที่เข้ามาแล้วเราต้องตัดสินใจในระดับหนึ่งแล้ว ว่าที่นี้มันอาจเหมาะกับเรา แต่มันอาจจะไม่เต็ม 100% ดีกับเราแต่ไม่เต็ม 100% แต่ก็คือในระดับหนึ่งที่เรายอมรับได้แล้วก็ภูมิใจกับมัน เพราะฉะนั้นเป็นสิ่งที่บางทีไม่ใช่ นอกเหนือจากเรื่องทางการมากเท่าไรนัก มีประสบการณ์อะไรเล่าให้ฟังหรือว่าเป็นลักษณะขององค์กรให้มีความศรัทธา เชื่อมั่น อย่างการแต่งการ ยกตัวอย่างเด็กมหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์ อย่างไม่สม่ำเสมอเพราะตัวเองก็เป็นศิษย์เก่าที่นั่น ก็กลับไปสัมมนาบางที่เห็นรุ่นน้อง บางที่เขายังเป็นวัยรุ่นอยู่ก็หนีไม่พ้นเรื่องแฟชั่น แต่สิ่งหนึ่งที่สังเกตเห็นแล้วเอามาเล่าให้นักศึกษาเราฟัง นักศึกษา หญิงที่นั่นทุกคนเอาเสื้อใส่ในกระโปรงแล้วทุกคนคาดเข็มขัดตราธรรมจักร ก็เกิดความภาคภูมิใจในสิ่งนั้น ของเขา แล้วก็ถามว่าหัวเข็มขัดของนักศึกษาเราไปไหน Logo มหาวิทยาลัยศรีปทุม จะดึงทิ้งไปแล้วไป ใส่สถาบันอื่น เห็นดีเห็นงามไปอย่างไร ก็จะปลุกฝังในทำนองนี้ องค์กรมันก็จะเป็นอย่างนั้นอันเดียวกัน มากขึ้น ไปสู่การปฏิบัติงานได้ดีขึ้น มีความมั่นคงมากขึ้น เล็กๆน้อยๆพวกนี้ ส่วนภารกิจอื่นๆ เช่น สอนแทนหรืออะไรแทนมันก็มีส่วนน้อยมากแต่ก็มีเหมือนกัน แต่มันไม่ใช่ว่าประจำวันที่เราสามารถจะทำได้

Q20: อาจารย์ต้องการให้ข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมอีกหรือไม่

A: ก็อยากจะท้วงติงนิดหน่อย ไม่ใช่สำหรับที่นี่ คือพูดถึงเรื่องโดยทั่วไปนะคะ ว่าอย่างเช่นนโยบายของพวกบริหารหลักสูตร ก็คิดว่าอย่างอื่นก็ต้องมีเสริม Provide ให้ด้วย อย่างเช่น ถ้าเป็นองค์กรการศึกษา อันนี้คงไม่เกี่ยวกับที่ใดที่หนึ่ง สมมติว่าเราจะวางหลักสูตรของเราบน Web เป็น Web ของรายวิชา แต่ถ้าเกิดอุปกรณ์ยังไม่พร้อม คอมพิวเตอร์ยังไม่ครบหรือบางตัวยัง Update ไม่ได้ มันก็ไม่สามารถทำ ให้งานลุล่วงได้ ฉะนั้นบางทีอาจจะตั้งนิดว่า นโยบายกับสิ่งอำนวยความสะดวกน่าจะสอดคล้องกันด้วย มันถึงจะเกิดผล ลักษณะนี้แหละค่ะ ที่อยากจะพูดถึง ไม่เฉพาะแต่ที่นี้นะคะ คือทุกที่เลย

4th participant

Q1: How old are you?

A: 30 years old

Q2: How many years have you been employed by this university?

A: 2 ½ years

Q3: What is your highest academic qualification?

A: Master degree, MBA in finance

Q4: What is your job title in the university?

A: Lecturer of finance and banking department.

Q5: What are your responsibilities within the university?

A: Teaching loads according to job requirement, invigilate, being one of the invigilate committee, arranging projects for the faculty, and being an advisor for students.

- Are these projects for the faculty or department?

Both. These projects are supporting the subjects, which held by the department. The lecturers provide the activities based on what subject they have taught, such as arranging guest speakers or brought the students out for the field trip. Another activity is for the faculty such as farewell induction, graduate ceremony.

Q6: How do you know what are your responsibilities?

A: We know from the induction for new lecturers, colleagues, and head of department.

- Is what you mentioned for the new lecturers?

Yes, the induction for new lecturers such as training on grading.

- Are these long-term projects? Or just the first period of your working?

The induction is conducted for 40 people each time. If you are the forty-first, you have to wait for the next time.

- Have you got JD?

Actually what I have got is a kind of manual, though it is not a really JD. It is like the instruction telling you what you have to do on each matter. I haven't seen what officially like JD. I mean I haven't got JD, what I have got is manual on each job.

- It means you haven't got JD but you learn from colleagues and head, don't you?

Yes, I'd like to add one more thing, when the university arranges any training, there may be JD for that training but these are not for a complete JD. I learn the rest from colleagues.

Q7: What do you have to do within these responsibilities?

A: Teaching and academic advisor.

- Do you have any administrative tasks?

Mostly, there are projects apart from teaching.

- Do you mean projects for supporting subjects?

Yes. Each lecturer would be appointed to responsible in each matter such as student activities, cultural, and budgeting.

- Do you have any academic jobs like academic writing or do research?

No. I do only writing a column in BA Newsletter. It's not officially academic writing. I also prepare teaching materials, but it does not proper to be textbook. In terms of research, I'm not ready to do this yet.

- Does the university require you to do these?

No.

- You mean you would like to start doing these yourself?

You can say so. If you want to write a textbook, you can get start now till you teach for 5 years, then you propose for being assistant professor later. This is not the university's requirement.

Q8: As the member of the university, could you tell me who are the key people?

A: Students are my responsibility. They are my job. I prepare everything for them, not for the head of department – such as teaching materials, text lists, and supporting activities. Colleagues and head of department also should be noted.

- Whom else do you consider as colleagues?

I think, the dean.

- Whom do you consider as heads?

Head of department up to the dean.

- What do you think about how important they are to your jobs?

I think apart from considering students as important factor, there would be the head of department and dean. In addition, they would be my colleagues, head of department, assistant dean, and dean.

Q9: Who is the most important person?

A: Students.

Q10: Are there any persons / organisations who monitor your performance?

A: It would be ISO system, which involve with the external auditor. There would be internal auditor before exposing to external.

- What do they evaluate?

They evaluate system management, how good the faculty can manages. We set standard for each working procedure.

Q11: What are these key people expected from you?

A: For students, they expect knowledge and skills in the subjects so that they could bring these to their future career. For colleagues, I think they expect congruity, ability to work smoothly. And head of department, she expect the same as colleagues.

- What do you think the head of department expect?

She expects us to do our best accordingly to the job requirements.

- What about the assistant dean for academic affairs and the assistant dean for student activities expectation?

I think they are at higher level, they should expect us to work the best to meet the standard, not lower than the standard.

Q12: Do you think it was reasonable on their expectation?

A: They are acceptable, not too much or not too less.

Q13: What do you, in turn, expect of your key people?

A: For students, I expect them to have self-responsibility. When looked as a whole picture, I am in the higher position than they are. I would like them be self-responsible, that would cause to perfect work. If they all know really what they should do, jobs would be run smoothly. I think responsibility is more important than wisdom, when we compare the quality of students between private and public university, we could say that the students from public university are more competitive. I think that's because they have more self-responsibilities.

For the head, she would expect me to work properly. Since I worked here, I have no special expectation from her. I'm satisfied on the way I work, nothing is unbearable. What I really want is to open mind when we talk together which I already have when we have meeting.

For colleagues, I expected that we could work smoothly together, even though most of our jobs are very much independent from each other. I do not expect very much, just only our coherence.

Q14: Can I ask you what you do on a typical day?

A: Teaching and give my students advice. When I have free times, I do preparing lessons, exam marking, homework checking, the other would be preparing some projects which related to the subjects I teach.

Q15: What did you do mainly on last Thursday?

A: I attended the meeting from 8.30-11.00am, then, I had a class, and went home.

Q16: Have you met your key people on that day?

A: Yes I did. Firstly students. I had class on that day. I also met head of department, dean and my colleagues, because we had a meeting that morning.

Q17: Do you think what you did on last Thursday;

17.1 Which of the expectations did you intend to meet?

I did what I had planned to do that is following the teaching schedules, meeting. I had done everything I had planned to do.

17.2 Which of the expectation do you perhaps don't meet?

No.

17.3 Which of the expectations did you exceed?

They mostly ran through what I had planned. I remembered that I checked everything before teaching, had a look my advisees' profiles. I did everything I had planned.

Q18: On last Thursday, would you say that you would do anything beyond the normal of your key people expectation?

A: I talked to students in class about belief in organisation. Sometimes, the students think that because they are in private university, they should not be as proud as people are in public universities. I encourage self-pride in students. I do not like it when I asked

them why they came to study here and they told that just because they couldn't get into public university. I think it's not good for them or the university. I have hard to instill this belief. They would be better if they follow this attitude. They would then grow to be part of strong community.

Q19: What inspire you to exceed it?

A: Once you decided to work here, you couldn't look at the bad points. I had decided to work here because I thought this is a right place for me, even it is not 100 percent perfect. We should be proud of it. When times are available, I would raise this issue to students. This would lead to unity among students.

Q20: Would you like to add anything else?

A: I think the curriculum administrative policy should be concerned. Once you plan to do anything regarding to the lessons, the technology support should be ready. Such as I plan to have a curriculum on webpage. Policy and technology support should be well matched and prepared. These are what I'd like to see.

5th participant

Q1: ปัจจุบันอาจารย์อายุเท่าไรครับ

A: 31 ปี

Q2: อาจารย์ทำงานที่นี้นานเท่าไรแล้วครับ

A: 6 ปี

Q3: อาจารย์จบการศึกษาสูงสุด

A: ปริญญาโท MPA. ทางด้าน บริหารทรัพยากรมนุษย์

Q4: ปัจจุบันมีตำแหน่งอะไรในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้

A: ตำแหน่งตามหน้าที่ คืออาจารย์ประจำ ภาควิชาการจัดการทรัพยากรมนุษย์ คณะบริหารธุรกิจ และมีอีกตำแหน่งคือ เป็นคณะกรรมการสวัสดิการลูกจ้างของมหาวิทยาลัย ตำแหน่งนี้จะต้องเสนอตัวเข้าไปเลือกตั้งและมหาวิทยาลัยแต่งตั้ง ซึ่งเป็นตามกฎหมายกำหนด

Q5: อาจารย์มีหน้าที่รับผิดชอบอะไรบ้างทั้งสองตำแหน่งนี้

- งานทางด้านอาจารย์ งานหลักก็คือสอนกับให้คำปรึกษานักศึกษา แล้วก็มีส่วนด้านสร้างผล งานทางด้านวิชาการ เช่น งานวิจัยและบทความ นอกจากนี้ก็ไปเป็นวิทยากรภายนอกบ้าง

- งานด้านบริหารตอนนี้เป็นเลขานุการในที่ประชุมของภาควิชาอยู่ หน้าที่นี้จะเป็นงานด้านบริหาร เพราะเป็นเลขานุการในที่ประชุม และเป็นคณะกรรมการทางด้านกิจการนักศึกษา เพื่อพัฒนานักศึกษาของคณะด้วย

- ในส่วนของอีกบทบาทหนึ่งเป็นคณะกรรมการ หน้าที่หลักน่าจะเป็นเรื่องการหาข้อมูลแล้วเสนอเรื่องของสวัสดิการที่มหาวิทยาลัยน่าจะจัดเพิ่มหรือปรับปรุง เฉพาะในส่วนการหาข้อมูลและเสนอในที่ประชุมแล้วจึงนำเสนอต่อมหาวิทยาลัย

Q6: อาจารย์ทราบบทบาทหน้าที่เหล่านี้ได้อย่างไรบ้าง

- คือจะมีเป็นเอกสารเป็นพันธกิจมาให้ดู (Job Description) ตอนแรกอย่างเดียว ต่อมาก็คือคำแนะนำจากเพื่อนร่วมงาน และผู้บังคับบัญชาเสริมรายละเอียดเข้ามาภายหลัง

- ส่วนคณะกรรมการสวัสดิการลูกจ้าง จะมีระเบียบของมหาวิทยาลัยมาให้ดู เช่น หน้าที่การประชุมควรทำอย่างไรบ้าง ก็มี Job Description ของคณะ แต่ว่าไม่มีในส่วนของลูกจ้าง เพื่อนร่วมงานในคณะกรรมการจะมาสอนเราหรืออธิบายให้ฟังว่าเราจะต้องทำอะไรบ้าง ก็มีเป็นคณะกรรมการเก่าที่อยู่ชุดเดิม ก็มาเล่าให้ฟังว่าทำอะไรไปแล้วบ้าง แล้วเป็นคณะกรรมการชุดนี้อยู่ในวาระ 2 ปีตามกฎหมาย แล้วจะต้องมีการประชุมทุกๆ 3 เดือน

- งานเลขานุการของภาควิชาก็คือเป็นเลขานุการในที่ประชุม เวลาที่ภาควิชามีการประชุมภายในชั้น จะทำรายงานการประชุม แล้วก็เสนอรายงานการประชุมต่อคณบดี อันนี้คืองานเลขานุการในที่ประชุม

- เป็นอนุกรรมการของการพัฒนานักศึกษา เป็นผู้ปฏิบัติงาน เช่น ประเมินนิเทศ ศึกษานิเทศ งานทางด้านกองทุนกู้ยืมของนักศึกษา แล้วก็งานอื่นๆ เช่น งานกิจกรรมกีฬา ปรับปรุงงานโครงการ

ที่มา จากส่วนกลางที่เกี่ยวข้องกับนักศึกษา ตรงนี้นักศึกษาเป็นคนเสนอโครงการขึ้นมาหรือว่าเป็นคน นำเสนอโครงการเพื่อพัฒนานักศึกษา ส่วนใหญ่ทางคณะจะเป็นคนเสนอให้นักศึกษา

Q7: ทราบได้อย่างไรว่าจะต้องทำอะไรบ้าง

A: ทางมหาวิทยาลัยจะมีการกำหนดโครงสร้างมาให้ หมายถึงทางมหาวิทยาลัยจะบอกว่ามีงานหลักที่เป็นองค์ประกอบตามประกันคุณภาพ หน้าที่ของคณะจะมี 9 องค์ประกอบ องค์ประกอบหนึ่งก็คือการพัฒนานักศึกษา หมายถึงทางมหาวิทยาลัยกำหนดโครงสร้างและกรอบงานกว้างๆ มาให้ แล้วคณะก็มาลงใน Detail ว่าจะต้องทำอะไรบ้าง กำหนดเป็น Job Description แทน ส่วนใหญ่คือคุยกับทางผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา เป็นคนสื่อ รับนโยบาย ประสานงานกันระหว่างอาจารย์กับผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา

Q8: ในฐานะที่เป็นอาจารย์ในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้ อาจารย์คิดว่าใครเป็นคนสำคัญที่จะต้องเกี่ยวข้องโดยตรงกับการปฏิบัติงานของอาจารย์

A: คนแรกก็คือนักศึกษาหรือตัวผู้เรียน อันนี้มองในบทบาทการเป็นอาจารย์ คนที่สองคือผู้บริหารคณะ คือหัวหน้าภาค ผู้ช่วยคณบดีและตัวคณบดี ก็คือในฐานะที่เป็นคนมอบนโยบายหรือมอบแผนมาให้ และเป็นคนประเมินด้วย ก็คือที่โดยตรง ที่โดยอ้อมก็จะมีเป็นหน่วยงานอื่นๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้อง กับที่เราทำงานหลักของเรา เช่น สำนักงานวิชาการ สำนักทะเบียน นอกเหนือจากนี้ก็มีเพื่อนร่วมงานหรืออื่นๆ แม่บ้าน ภารโรง ยาม มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องแต่ไม่ใช่เป็นตัวหลัก แม่บ้านก็เกี่ยวข้องเช่นเวลามีปัญหาการใช้อุปกรณ์ในห้องไม่ถูกหรือว่าต้องการอะไรเพิ่มเติมในห้องเรียน เช่น ต้องการเก้าอี้เพิ่มนักศึกษาเยอะ ก็ต้องบอกแม่บ้าน ต้องการให้เปิดห้องเพิ่มก็ต้องไปติดต่อทางสำนักงานวิชาการ และฝ่ายอาคารสถานที่ด้วย

- ในส่วนของคณะกรรมการสวัสดิการลูกจ้าง ตรงนี้คนที่เกี่ยวข้องก็จะมีเป็นรองอธิการบดีฝ่ายบริหาร เวลาประชุมเสร็จจะเสนอรายงานการประชุมเวลาเราต้องการบริการอะไรเพิ่ม ก็จะเสนอไปที่รองอธิการบดีฝ่ายบริหาร แล้วก็มีข้อมูลจากพนักงาน อาจารย์และเจ้าหน้าที่ และเราได้รับรู้ข้อมูลว่าเขาอยากได้อะไร มีปัญหาอะไร หมายถึงว่าเราไปหาข้อมูลจากพนักงาน เจ้าหน้าที่ อาจารย์ในมหาวิทยาลัย ตรงนี้มันกว้างเหมือนกัน อย่างเช่น เจ้าหน้าที่มีปัญหาทางด้านการประกันสังคมบางอย่าง เช่น เขาทำขั้นตอนในการจ่ายไปก่อนหรือสามารถรับบริการฟรีได้เลย ในบางประเด็น เช่น ถอนฟัน เราก็รับรู้ปัญหาเขามา ขอค่าชี้แจงจากทางระเบียบของมหาวิทยาลัยว่าทางปฏิบัติจริงๆ ตรงนี้คืออะไร

Q9: ใครเป็นคนที่สำคัญที่สุด และที่มีอิทธิพลในการทำงาน

- นักศึกษา แต่ถ้าเป็นตัวงานบริหารก็คือหัวหน้าภาค ก็คือขึ้นอยู่กับว่าเป็นงานลักษณะไหน ถ้าเป็นการสอนก็คือนักศึกษา ถ้าเป็นงานทางด้านบริหารก็คือผู้บริหาร

- ในส่วนของคณะกรรมการ คือ ประธานของคณะกรรมการกับรองอธิการบดีฝ่ายบริหาร สำคัญที่สุดน่าจะเป็นรองอธิการบดี เพราะเขาเป็นคนตัดสินใจในเบื้องต้นก่อนนำเสนออธิการบดีและเสนอสภามหาวิทยาลัยว่าควรเพิ่มสวัสดิการหรือทำอะไรเพิ่มเติม

Q10: มีบุคคลหรือองค์การอะไรที่จะมาตรวจสอบการทำงานของอาจารย์หรือไม่

A: มี ตอนนี้มีทั้งภายในและภายนอก ภายนอกคือก็บริษัทที่ให้ค่าปรึกษาเรื่อง ISO ส่วนภายใน ก็จะเป็นระเบียบเรื่องการประกันคุณภาพการศึกษา จะมีเป็นคณะกรรมการซึ่งมาจาก หน่วยงานต่างๆ จากภายใน ก็คือแต่ละคณะแล้วก็มาตรวจ รวมทั้งมีการตรวจจากสำนักงานวิชาการ หมายถึงส่งคนมาดูการสอน นอกจากนี้ก็มีการตรวจสอบความพึงพอใจจากนักศึกษาด้วย

Q11: อาจารย์คิดว่าคนพวกนี้เขาคาดหวังอะไรจากอาจารย์บ้าง

- นักศึกษาคาดหวัง ถ้าจะเป็นแบ่งก็จะแบ่งได้เป็นสองกลุ่ม กลุ่มหนึ่งก็คือต้องการแค่มาเรียน เขาคาดหวังพื้นฐานว่าอาจารย์ให้ความรู้ตามหลักสูตรที่กำหนด ส่วนอีกกลุ่มคาดหวังสูงในเรื่องของความรู้ ก็คือจะค่อนข้างที่จะต้องการความรู้จากเราเต็มที่ ในเรื่องของเอกสารและกิจกรรมต่างๆ บรรยากาศในห้องเรียนตรงนั้นเป็นจุดที่แตกต่างกันระหว่างสองกลุ่ม กลุ่มหนึ่งคือขอให้ได้เรียน อีกกลุ่มหนึ่งคือเรียนแล้วจะต้องได้ความรู้มากๆ รวมถึงคะแนนสอบด้วย ทั้งสองกลุ่มคาดหวังคะแนนสอบเหมือนกันก็คือ A แต่กิจกรรมในระหว่างเรียนจะแตกต่าง ก็คือความสนใจและใส่ใจจะแตกต่างกัน

- หัวหน้าภาคคาดหวังเรื่องของการปฏิบัติตามนโยบายของคณะหรือมหาวิทยาลัย

- ผู้บริหารคณะ คณบดีหรือผู้ช่วยคณบดี คาดหวังว่าอาจารย์สามารถปฏิบัติตามเกณฑ์มาตรฐาน เกณฑ์ของ ISO และเกณฑ์การประกันคุณภาพ และบรรลุเป้าหมายของคณะด้วย เช่น มีนักศึกษารอพิณจน์น้อยลง นักศึกษาลาออกน้อยลง หรือนักศึกษามาสมัครคณะบริหารธุรกิจเพิ่มขึ้น

- ในแง่ของส่วนกลาง ก็คือสำนักงานวิชาการหรืออธิการบดีก็น่าจะคาดหวังคล้ายๆ กับผู้บริหารในคณะ แต่เขาจะเอาไปเชื่อมโยงกับคณะอื่นในภาพรวม

- ระดับรองผู้บริหาร คงอยากให้เราเป็นเหมือนกับช่องทางในการรับข้อมูลความต้องการของบุคลากร สองคือเขาต้องการให้ทางคณะกรรมการช่วยเขาคิดว่าน่าจะมีอะไรเพิ่มเติม หรือแก้ไขเกี่ยวกับตัวสวัสดิการที่มหาวิทยาลัยจัดให้พนักงานบ้าง

- ประธานคณะกรรมการสวัสดิการลูกจ้าง ความคาดหวังที่น่าจะเป็นเรื่องของการนำเสนอในเรื่องของสวัสดิการใหม่ๆ ให้มหาวิทยาลัยพิจารณาและอนุมัติ

Q12: เรื่องของความคาดหวังของบุคคลเหล่านี้อาจารย์คิดว่ามันสมเหตุสมผลหรือไม่

- ในแง่ของนักศึกษา ถ้ากลุ่มที่ขอให้ได้เรียนก็คิดว่ามันน้อยเกินไป แต่กลุ่มที่ตั้งใจและขยันเรียนก็คิดว่าปกติ

- หัวหน้าภาคคิดว่าน่าจะยังน้อยอยู่ ควรจะมีมากกว่านี้ หรือคาดหวังจะมีอะไรให้เราทำมากกว่านี้ คือไม่ได้แค่แค่เกณฑ์มาตรฐานน่าจะกระตุ้นผลงานให้มากกว่านี้

- ส่วนตัวคณะบางประเด็นก็มากไปนิด บางประเด็นก็น้อยไป อย่างเช่น ที่มากไปในเรื่องของนักศึกษาที่มีปัญหาในเรื่องของการเรียน คิดว่าเราแก้ปัญหาที่ปลายเหตุแล้ว เราต้องปรับความคิด คนกลุ่มนี้ใหม่ซึ่งตรงนั้นเราค่อนข้างจะยากที่จะไปเปลี่ยนความคิดเขา ในเรื่องด้านส่งเสริมด้านผลงาน ช่องทางในการที่จะให้อาจารย์ในคณะเสนอผลงานของตัวเองน้อยลง อย่างที่เคยมีให้อาจารย์เสนอบทความก็ยกเลิกไปแล้ว แล้วตอนนี้ก็ไม่มีอะไรชัดเจนว่าจะเป็นรูปเป็นร่างอย่างไรในอนาคต ก็เลยทำให้อาจารย์ไม่มีช่องทางในการนำเสนอผลงานหรือบทความอะไรออกมา

- ผมเคยทำวิจัยร่วมกับอาจารย์ขีดใจ 1 ชิ้น คือตอนนั้นอาจารย์ขีดใจอยู่ที่สำนักส่งเสริมมาตรฐานการศึกษา ทำในเรื่องของ ISO: 9001 มาใช้ในมหาวิทยาลัยเอกชน โดยสอบถามคุณสมบัติของมหาวิทยาลัยเอกชนด้วยการ 5 มหาวิทยาลัย ก็ประมาณ 25 ท่าน ที่ผมเข้าไปร่วมในตอนนั้นก็เพื่อที่จะเข้าไปเรียนรู้ระบบขั้นตอนในการขอทุนวิจัย

Q13: ในทางกลับกันอาจารย์คาดหวังอะไรจากบุคคลเหล่านี้

- นักศึกษา คือในตอนปีแรกๆ ที่มาสอนค่อนข้างคาดหวังไว้มาก คือไม่ได้นึกไปว่าคุณภาพของนักศึกษาในมหาวิทยาลัยเอกชนกับรัฐจะต่างกัน รัฐจะมีตัวคัดเลือกที่ดีและค่อนข้างจะดีเกินไป ก็คือตัว Entrance คือนักศึกษาที่มาเรียนในมหาวิทยาลัยของรัฐค่อนข้างจะมีพื้นฐานดีอยู่แล้ว แต่ในมหาวิทยาลัยเอกชนนั้นค่อนข้างมีหลายระดับ ตอนแรกค่อนข้างคาดหวังไว้มากว่าเขาควรจะได้ทำตามที่เราอยากให้เป็น แต่พอ 6 ปีผ่านไปรู้สึกว่าจะต้องมีการปรับลดลงมา ก็คือค่อนข้างเอียงไปทางในกลุ่มที่มาเรียนเฉยๆ มากกว่ากลุ่มที่ตั้งใจเรียน เพราะว่ากลุ่มนั้นมีปัญหาเรื่องเกรดด้วย มันก็ต้องลดเกณฑ์มาตรฐานลงมามาก ค่อนข้างมาก โดยส่วนตัวแล้วอยากให้เราไปใช้ชีวิตในสังคมได้อย่างปลอดภัยและบรรลุความสำเร็จของเขา โดยนำความรู้ที่เราสอนไปใช้ แต่มันก็ต้องลดดีกรีลงมาทำให้เขาอยู่รอดก็พอ ไม่ว่าจะใช้ความรู้ที่เราสอนหรือไม่แต่เราพยายามสอนให้อยู่รอดในสังคม

- หัวหน้าภาค ก็คือให้ข้อมูลมากกว่านี้ อย่างเช่น เขาต้องการให้เราดูแลนักศึกษาให้ดี แต่ไม่ค่อยมีระบบข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับนักศึกษา support เท่าไหร่ คือพอสั่งมาแล้วอาจารย์แย่งไปถึงค่อยไปประสานเขาน่าจะประสานให้ก่อนเพื่ออำนวยความสะดวกในการให้ข้อมูลกับผู้ปฏิบัติ เพราะว่ามันไม่ใช่เรื่องที่พึ่งพุด กันมันพุดกันมานานแล้ว

- คณะกรรมการสวัสดิการ ตามบทบาทที่น่าจะเป็นก็คือ ความยุติธรรมในเรื่องของการกำหนดการบริหารงานสวัสดิการคือแทนที่จะเน้นตามกฎหมายก็ควรที่จะศึกษาถึงความเดือดร้อน หรือบ่าบัดหรือบรรเทาความเดือดร้อนพนักงานทั้งอาจารย์และเจ้าหน้าที่ เช่น เงินค่าสอนพิเศษออกไม่ตรงเวลา ถึงแม้จะมีเงินเดือนอยู่แล้วก็จริงแต่เราก็ได้ยากได้เงินที่เราทำงาน

- สำหรับตัวประธานคณะกรรมการสวัสดิการลูกจ้าง ก็คาดหวังลำบากกว่าจะให้เหมือนสหภาพแรงงาน ก็อยากให้เราเข้าไปเป็นคนคอยช่วยหรือเป็นคนคอยกระตุ้นในการหาข้อมูลที่เร็วขึ้น และคอยติดตามผล

Q14: ในแต่ละวันอาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้าง

A: ส่วนใหญ่ก็คือการสอน มีการให้คำปรึกษาบ้าง แล้วก็ยังมีกิจกรรมอื่นๆ บ้าง เช่น ช่วงนี้ใกล้มีการแข่งขันกีฬาของนักศึกษาในแต่ละคณะ ผมเป็นคนคอยดูแลในเรื่องของกีฬาฟุตบอลอยู่ เป็นการเข้าไปทำตามบทบาทของคณะกรรมการฝ่ายกีฬา

Q15: เมื่อวันจันทร์ที่แล้วอาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรบ้าง

A: ในช่วงเช้าเข้ามาก็เข้าดูอินเตอร์เน็ตดูข้อความที่ส่งมาให้ เสร็จแล้วก็จะตรวจการบ้านที่ให้นักศึกษาไว้ตั้งแต่อาทิตย์ที่แล้ว ก่อนเที่ยงคุยกับนักศึกษาที่ทำกิจกรรมในเรื่องฟุตบอล เพื่อนัดมาซ้อม ในช่วงบ่ายหลังจากทานข้าวเสร็จแล้วก็มาเตรียมเอกสารในการสอน แล้วก็ไปสอน

Q16: อาจารย์ได้พบบุคคลสำคัญที่อาจารย์ระบุไว้หรือไม่

A: พบนักศึกษา หัวหน้าภาค คนบดีไม่ได้เจอ คณะกรรมการไม่ได้ประชุมเลยไม่เจอ

Q17: อาจารย์คิดว่าสิ่งที่ทำในวันจันทร์สัปดาห์ที่แล้ว

17.1 อะไรที่อาจารย์ตั้งใจจะทำและได้ทำ

- เรื่องของการสอน ตรวจการบ้านนักศึกษา เพราะคิดว่าต้องตรวจแล้ว ถ้าไม่ตรวจแล้วไม่ได้คืนให้นักศึกษา ส่วนนัดเด็กนั้นไม่ได้ตั้งใจว่าจะทำ

17.2 สิ่งที่อาจารย์ตั้งใจว่าจะทำแต่ไม่ได้ทำ

- เรื่องของการตรวจการบ้านตั้งใจว่าจะตรวจอีกรายหนึ่ง แต่อีกวิชาหนึ่งที่ตั้งใจว่าจะตรวจแต่ก็ยังไม่ได้ตรวจ

17.3 อะไรบ้างที่อาจารย์คิดว่าตั้งใจจะทำและได้ทำมากกว่าที่ตั้งใจ

- ไม่มี

Q18: ในวันจันทร์สัปดาห์ที่แล้วอาจารย์คิดว่าทำอะไรที่มันมากกว่างานปกติหรือเปล่า

A: สอนพิเศษที่วิทยาเขตชลบุรี ที่ไม่ได้เงิน แต่ในขณะนั้นมหาวิทยาลัยได้มีชื่อเสียงมากขึ้น หรือปกป้องผลประโยชน์ของมหาวิทยาลัย หรือป้องกันปัญหาที่จะเกิดขึ้นได้ในอนาคต

- ส่วนคณะกรรมการสวัสดิการลูกจ้าง ก็ไม่ได้ทำอะไรเลย กินกาแฟแก้วเดียว

- อีกส่วนหนึ่งก็คือกิจกรรมเกี่ยวกับนักศึกษา แต่ก็เป็นในระดับคณะดูแลนักศึกษาหรือจัด

นักกีฬา นอกจากจะไม่ได้เงินแล้วจะต้องเสียเงินด้วย

Q19: ทำไมอาจารย์จึงเข้าไปทำงานกับคณะกรรมการสวัสดิการ

A: อันดับแรกคือ อยากเข้าไปเสนอความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับสวัสดิการ เพราะว่ารู่ทางด้านนี้มาและก็เรียนมาทางด้านนี้ และก็บางครั้งเห็นในหลายๆ เรื่องที่น่าจะปรับปรุง ก็เลยอยากเข้าไปมีส่วนร่วมตรงนั้น เพื่อที่ต่อต้องการที่จะปรับปรุงและเสนอให้ดีขึ้น ก็คือเป็นการสมัครใจของเรา

- ในเรื่องกิจกรรมของนักศึกษา เป็นการเสนอตัวเข้าไปเพื่อต้องการที่จะใกล้ชิดนักศึกษา นักศึกษาในกลุ่มที่เล่นกีฬาเกรดไม่ค่อยดี ก็เลยอยากเข้าไปใกล้ชิดแล้วคอยแนะนำอะไรให้เขา เพื่อที่จะดึงเข้ามาหาเรา ดีกว่าที่จะปล่อยเขาให้ไปกระจัดกระจาย มันอาจจะดูว่างแค้นเพราะเด็กแค่กลุ่มเดียว แต่ก็มีพยายามที่จะเข้าไปใกล้ชิด

Q20: อาจารย์อยากจะเพิ่มเติมให้ข้อมูล

A: ในเรื่องของความคาดหวังทั้งตัวพนักงานและตัวองค์กร การที่ทั้งสองฝ่ายต้องมาใกล้ชิด เพื่อมาแลกเปลี่ยนข้อมูลแล้วก็เข้าใจซึ่งกันและกัน สองฝ่ายในที่นี้คือตัวพนักงานกับตัวผู้บริหาร แต่ตอนนี้ในความเป็นจริงของที่นี่ค่อนข้างจะห่างไม่มีช่องที่จะสื่อโดยตรง การที่จะมานั่งประชุมปีละครั้งแล้วก็ให้พูดในที่ประชุม มันไม่มีใครอยากพูด แล้วบางครั้งพูดไปบางเรื่องจะนำความเดือดร้อนมาสู่ตัวเอง นั่นคือปัญหาว่ามหาวิทยาลัยนี้เป็นของตัวเองมากเกินไปในลักษณะงานภายใน สัมมองไปว่าการปฏิบัติงานจริงๆ ผู้ปฏิบัติมีปัญหาอะไรบ้าง ผู้ปฏิบัติเองบางครั้งก็ป้องกันตัวเองจนเกินไปด้วย จนกระทั่งล้มความคาดหวังที่ผู้บริหารต้องการ ดังนั้นวิธีแก้ก็คือ เข้ามาใกล้ชิดให้มากขึ้นหรือพบกัน ครึ่งทาง ฝ่ายบริหารจะต้องยอมรับฟังบ้างเรื่องที่เขาไม่อยากจะฟัง ตัวพนักงานเองก็สมควรจะยอมเสียสละให้ส่วนรวมเพื่อมากขึ้นมากขึ้น น่าจะเป็นจุดที่ทำให้องค์กรอาจจะดีขึ้นได้ ทำให้คนรักองค์กรมากขึ้น

5th participant

Q1: How old are you?

A: 31 years old.

Q2: How many years have you been employed by this university?

A: 6 years

Q3: What is your highest academic qualification?

A: Master Degree in Public Administration (MPA), Human Resources Administration

Q4: What is your job title in the university?

A: I am a lecturer in Department of Human Resources Management, Faculty of Business Administration. And an employees welfare committee, which has presented and selected by law.

Q5: What are your responsibilities within the university?

A: As lecturer: main responsibilities are teaching and student advisor. Also have to do research and write articles. Besides, I am a guest speaker.

As administrator: currently I am working as department secretary. My responsibility is an administrator because I am a secretary of this committee and subcommittee in order to develop faculty student.

In role of committee: my main responsibility is data searching welfare issues and present to university in order to add or adjust.

Q6: How do you know what your responsibilities are?

A: There was a Job Description at the beginning. Later on, I was getting advised from my colleagues and supervisors.

Employee Welfares Committee, there was a job description for me also but not available for employees. I also got some advise from previous committee that what should I do or I should not do. By laws, my term is 2 years and has to conduct meeting every 3 months.

Department secretary: I usually do meeting memo in the committee and present to the dean.

As a subcommittee of student development, for instance, organise an induction, commencement, student loan etc. Adjust projects that I received from university and university initiates most of projects.

Q7: How do you know what you have to do?

A: The university determines 9 factors of Quality Assurance (QA) and one of them is student development. This means that university determines broadly policies for the faculties who have to launch the projects to support these policies. Mostly, I have to discuss with the assistant dean of student activity. In other word, I am a coordinator, which coordinates between the Assistant Dean of student activity and colleagues.

Q8: As the member the university, could you tell me who are the key people?

A: In lecturer point of view, students are the most important. Next, is head of department, assistant dean and dean. They are assigning jobs and evaluating me as well. Indirect involve, academic affairs office, registrar office, housekeeper, janitor, and security. Housekeeper is indirect involve such as, when I need more extra chairs for students and extend lecture room. She will arrange them for me by contacting academic affairs office and Building department.

Employee welfare committee: this will involve with administration assistance director. At the end of meeting, I usually do a meeting memo and present to him that what we will be needed to improved. After that I will collect information from employees. This information can tell us what employees' need. For instance, health insurance, employee is paying when seeing dentist or no pay. This is example problem then I will find out what is the exact process.

Q9: Which of those people have a greater influence on your work?

A: Student but in administrative view is head of department. It depends on what type of assignments. In term of teaching, student is the most important not in term of administration is head of department.

In the role of administration is chairman of committee and Vice president for administration. The most important is Vice president for administration because he is the decision maker prior present to President and propose to university board that what we should to add into welfare.

Q10: Are there any persons / organisations who monitor your performance?

A: Yes. There are both internal and external. We have a consulting firm consult about ISO and internal is ensure educational standard. There is a committee which come from many internal departments include inspector from academic affairs office. That's mean they send someone to observe class teaching in addition to inspect students' satisfaction.

Q11: What do these people expect from you?

A: Student's expectation: there are two groups of student. The first group has lower expectations and expect us teach whatever is cover in curriculum. The second group is higher expectations, they expect lecturer contribute more knowledge, teaching material and activities. The environment in the class is slightly different between these two groups, but they are have the same objective, which is an A grade.

Head of department expect me to follow university's policies.

Superiors, Dean and assistant dean expect me to perform well as mentioned in ISO, Quality Assurance (QA) and achieve faculty's objectives. For instance, reduce number of students' probation and resignation. Or increase the number of student's applications.

University, academic affairs office or president possibly has the same expectations as faculty's superiors but they would have some more objectives.

Vice president for administration: first, he expects me to be one of his channels to receive internal information. Second, he expects some output from me how to improve and adjust about employee welfare.

President of employee welfare committee expects me to propose new welfare so that university approve.

Q12: Do you think these people expectations are reasonable?

A: In terms of students, for lower expectation group, I think it's too less. But for higher expectation group, I think it's reasonable.

I got less expectation from head of department. It should not just meet the standard, it should motivate for better performance.

For faculty expectation, sometimes more or less. Sometime more because students have problems and I think we solve problem not the right way. I think we have to change their attitude. In promotion issue, there were fewer channels for lecturers to

present their projects. Also cancelled lecturer's articles and now nothing is clear enough in the future. So that lecturers have not channel to present their projects or articles.

I had jointed one research with other who works at the Educational Standard Office. We've done the research about utilised the ISO: 9001 into private universities by inquiring 5 private university deans, 25 people. The main reason for joining this research is I would like to know the process to ask for the research funds.

Q13: What do you, in turn, expect to your key people?

A: In my first few years, I expected quite a lot from students. I thought there was no different between private and public university students. Public universities have better quality students by using exams to select students. Therefore, private university students have different knowledge levels. At first, I had high expectations for them but after I had taught for 6 years I reduced my expectations and focused on those with lower expectations rather than those with higher expectations, because this group has more problems with their grades and I had to reduce my standards quite a lot. Personally, I would love to see them spending their lives safely in society and achieving their goals by applying the knowledge that I taught. No matter if they use the knowledge that I taught or not, I have been training to teach them to survive in the society.

Head of department, I would like to see him to coordinate with others before assign to me. Such as, he assigned me to handle students. He did not provide any student's information at all when I faced this problem and come back to see him. Then he will coordinate with other in order to get that information. It's better off, if he can do it in advance.

Employee welfare committee, they are managing by laws or regulations rather than really life. In administration of welfare, they should consider of employee's financial problem and try to relief it. For instance, overtime pay should pay on time even though we got our salary but we would love to have our overtime pay on time.

President of employee welfare committee, it is very hard to expect because he acts like labour union. I would like to see him more support and gather information faster and follow-up quicker.

Q14: Can I ask you what you do on a typical day?

A: Mostly teaching and give consulting sometimes. The other would be extra-activities such as students' sport advisor. I love football, which is actually part of my responsibility because I'm a sport subcommittee.

Q15: What did you do mainly on last Monday?

A: In the morning, accessed the internet to check email. After that, I checked students' homework, before noon I had discussed with student about football practice schedule. Then, I had lunch and prepared teaching material.

Q16: Have you met your key people on that day?

A: I met students, head of department but I had neither seen the dean nor member of the committee.

Q17: Do you think what you did on last Monday;

17.1 Which of the expectation did you intend to meet?

Teaching and checked students' homework. I have to check their homework then return to them before next class.

17.2 Which of the expectation did you perhaps don't meet?

I expected to check students' homework for another class but I have not to do so.

17.3 Which of the expectations did you exceed?

None

Q18 On last Monday, would you say that you would do anything beyond the normal of your key people expectation?

A: Taught at Cholburi Campus but haven't got pay.

I've got nothing from Employee Welfare Committee, just a cup of coffee.

The last one would be student activities. Even it was a department's responsibility and I just helped it without pay, but I had to spend money for it.

Q19: Why do you joint the employee welfare committee?

A: First of all, I would like to share my ideas about welfare. Because I studied it and sometimes I saw things that should be improved. This was my motive to joint in order to improve employees' life and make it better.

Student activity. I volunteer to do this in order to get close to them. This group of students were not having good grade. I tried to get to know them and helped them. Someone may think this is just a small group of students, but I tried to get close to them.

Q20: Would you like to add anything else?

A: In staffs and institution expectations, both parties should come to talk together and exchange their opinions. In fact, there are a gap between them and almost no communication. We cannot wait to talk in annual meeting and sometimes no one wants to talk about problems in the meeting because it will cause him/her in trouble. Sometimes university was overlook, seldom-realised employee's problem or difficulty. The solution is compromise. University and executive should listen more even they don't want to. And staffs should be more understood the institution. This solution may improve our relationship and staffs will love and proud of their institution.

23rd participant

Q1: อาจารย์อายุเท่าไร

A: 29 ปี

Q2: อาจารย์ทำงานที่มหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้มานานเท่าไร

A: 1 ปีครึ่งค่ะ

Q3: ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุดอะไร

A: ปริญญาเอก ด้านบริหารธุรกิจระหว่างประเทศ

Q4: ปัจจุบันมีตำแหน่งอะไรในมหาวิทยาลัย

A: อาจารย์ประจำภาควิชาการเงิน

Q5: อาจารย์มีหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบอะไรบ้าง

A: หน้าที่หลักก็คือสอน ทั้งปริญญาตรีและปริญญาโท

Q6: มีงานอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาด้วยหรือไม่

A: มีค่ะ ตอนนี้เป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาบริษัทจำลองริจอยส์ แล้วก็เป็นที่ปรึกษาโครงการฝึกอบรม SME เป็นโครงการของมหาวิทยาลัยร่วมกับกรมส่งเสริมอุตสาหกรรม และเป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษานักศึกษาปริญญาโท คือ 1 คน ต้องรับผิดชอบนักศึกษา 1 ห้องก็ประมาณ 40 คน

Q7: แล้วเป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาของนักศึกษาปริญญาตรีด้วยหรือไม่

A: ตอนนี้ไม่มีค่ะ

Q8: มีงานด้านวิชาการหรือไม่

A: คือตอนนี้ขอยื่นทุนวิจัยของทบวงมหาวิทยาลัยผลก็คงออกเดือนหน้า แต่ระหว่างที่ยื่นไปก็ ได้เตรียมไว้ก่อนแล้ว คาดว่าน่าจะได้ แล้วก็เขียนบทความ

Q9: เป็นบทความที่เผยแพร่ที่ไหน

A: ล่าสุดก็ Conference คือทั่ว Asia อีกอันหนึ่งก็คือลงในมหาวิทยาลัย

Q10: งานทางด้านวิชาการมันเป็นความต้องการของมหาวิทยาลัยหรือไม่

A: ไม่ค่ะ คือตอนนี้ยังไม่ถึงขนาดนั้น แต่เพียงขอความร่วมมือว่าน่าจะทำ แต่ก็จะมีผลต่อการประเมินผลงานประจำปี คือมีคะแนนให้ถ้าทำก็จะได้ก็คะแนนๆ เหมือนเป็นการสร้างผลงาน

Q11: มีเขียนตำราบ้างหรือไม่

A: คือตอนนี้อยู่ระหว่างดำเนินการ คือ ภาควิชาการเงินจะเขียนตำราขึ้นมา 1 เล่ม เพื่อใช้สำหรับการเรียนวิชาการเงินธุรกิจ สำหรับนักศึกษาปริญญาตรี ตอนนี้เป็นตัวอาจารย์ก็ช่วยเขา 1 บท คือ เรื่องการเงินระหว่างประเทศ

Q12: มีงานด้านบริหารหรือไม่

A: ไม่มีค่ะ คือทำล่าสุดก็เป็นแล้วก็เป็นที่ปรึกษาโครงการฝึกอบรม SME อันนี้ไม่รู้ว่าจะจัดเป็นงานนอกเหนือหรือไม่ คือมหาวิทยาลัยกรุงเทพร่วมกับกรมส่งเสริมอุตสาหกรรม ฉะนั้นก็เหมือนเป็นกิจ

กรรมภายนอกแต่ได้รับการสนับสนุนจากมหาวิทยาลัย เราจะเปิดเป็นศูนย์อบรม SME แต่ว่าจริงๆ เงินงบประมาณทุกอย่างมาจากกรมส่งเสริมอุตสาหกรรมทั้งหมด เราใช้กำลังคนอย่างเดียว

Q13: อาจารย์ทราบหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบได้อย่างไร

A: คืองานสอนจะถูกมอบหมายให้ทำ ส่วนงานวิจัยจริงๆ ไม่มีใครบอก

Q14: อาจารย์ทราบได้อย่างไรว่าต้องสอนอย่างไร

A: ส่วนใหญ่วิชาที่สอน โครงการสอน ก็จะดูจากของรุ่นก่อน แล้วมีอาจารย์ท่านอื่นสอนก็ขอดู แต่เอกสารประกอบการสอนจะทำเองทั้งหมด แต่โครงการสอน การวางลำดับชั้นการสอนจะดูจากของเก่ามากกว่า คือเรียนรู้จากของเก่า คือเป็นการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง

Q15: อาจารย์เคยเห็น JD ของมหาวิทยาลัยหรือไม่

A: ก็มีค่ะ คือเวลาเซ็นมอบตัวที่ฝ่ายบุคคล เขาก็มีบอกว่า JD เรามีอะไรบ้าง 1. ก็เป็นงานสอน 2. งานวิจัย 3. ต้องเป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาชมรมต่างๆ แล้วแต่คณะจะส่ง 4. ต้องร่วมกิจกรรมของทางมหาวิทยาลัย คือทราบคร่าวๆ

Q16: ส่วนหนึ่งเราทราบว่าเราต้องทำอะไรบ้างจาก JD ด้วยใช่หรือไม่

A: ใช่ แต่ JD ไม่ได้บอกรายละเอียด

Q17: มีการอบรม/ปฐมนิเทศหรือไม่

A: มีค่ะ มีปฐมนิเทศว่าอาจารย์มีหน้าที่อะไรบ้าง ใช้เวลาอบรม 2 วันเต็มๆ ตกลงมันจะไม่ใช่ JD อย่างเดียว จะมามีวิทยากรภายนอกเข้ามาพูดเรื่องเทคนิคการสอน การทำวิจัยอย่างมีคุณภาพ แล้วก็พูดเกี่ยวกับองค์กรทั่วไป

Q18: เมื่อเริ่มเข้ามาทำงานแล้วพบปัญหาในเรื่องของการสอนหรือปัญหาในงานอื่นๆ อาจารย์แก้ปัญหาอย่างไร

A: ตอนแรกเข้ามาไม่รู้ว่าจะถามใครไม่รู้จะถามได้ไหม สรุปคือถามคณบดีเลย เพราะเราไม่ทราบว่าถามคำถามนี้ไปมันสมควรถามไหม เราข้ามไปถามผู้ใหญ่ เขาน่าจะให้ภัยเรา เพราะเราไม่รู้จักจริงๆ

เพื่อนร่วมงานก็มีส่วนช่วย ส่วนใหญ่ถ้าสนิทเลยก็สอนวิชาเดียวกัน บางวิชาต้องประสานงานกันด้วย อย่างวิชาการเงินธุรกิจมีคนสอน 4 คน อันนี้คือต้องคุยกันตลอด การวางโครงการสอนต้องเป็น Concept เดียวกัน เพื่อนร่วมงานก็จะแนะนำ เพื่อนร่วมสอนก็จะบอกว่าวิชานั้นเป็นอย่างนั้น วิชานี้เป็นแบบนี้ แต่ถ้าวิชาที่เราสอนคนเดียวก็จะมีอิสระในการวางแผนคนเดียว แต่ถ้ามีปัญหา ก็จะปรึกษาคณบดีโดยตรงว่าคิดอย่างนี้ทำได้ไหม อย่างเราจะเชิญวิทยากรเข้ามา เราจะมีค่าใช้จ่ายแต่เราไม่รู้ว่าทำได้ไหม ถ้าเราไม่รู้ว่าจะถามใครก็จะถามคณบดีโดยตรง

Q19: อาจารย์ทราบหน้าที่การเป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาได้อย่างไรว่าต้องทำอะไรบ้าง

A: ก็จะถามอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาคนเก่า จะมีคนที่เป็นอย่างแล้วเลื่อนลงไป แล้วก็เวียนกันขึ้นมาเป็น ก็ถามเสียส่วนใหญ่ เพราะบางที่หัวหน้าหน่วยงานก็ไม่ทราบเสียทั้งหมด ถ้าเป็นเรื่องที่เฉพาะจริงๆ

Q20: หัวหน้าภาคได้ให้คำปรึกษาบ้างหรือไม่

A: ช่วงที่เข้ามาสอนใหญ่หัวหน้าภาคจะอยู่ที่วิทยาเขตรังสิตก็เลยถามไม่ได้ คือสอนที่นี่แล้วหัวหน้าภาคอยู่ที่วิทยาเขตรังสิตหลายวันแต่ก็ถามบ้าง แต่โอกาสที่จะเจอคณบดีและอาจารย์ที่สอนวิชาเดียวกันมากกว่า

Q21: แล้งงานด้านวิชาการ เช่น การทำวิจัย ทราบได้อย่างไรว่าจะทำอย่างไร

A: ก็พึ่งตัวเองค่ะ อาจารย์ในมหาวิทยาลัยยังทำกันไม่มาก ถ้าจะปรึกษาใครจริงๆ ไม่มี แต่เรามีศูนย์วิจัยโดยตรงที่ถามได้ทุกอย่าง แต่คือหน่วยงานไม่ได้อยู่ในสังกัดคณะบริหารธุรกิจ แต่เป็นศูนย์อิสระขึ้นมาต่างหาก

Q22: อาจารย์คิดว่าได้ทำงานได้ครบตามบทบาทของอาจารย์แล้วหรือไม่

A: มันจะยังไม่ครบนะค่ะ ตั้งแต่มามันจะเจอวิชาใหม่เยอะมาก ฉะนั้นส่วนที่เคยตั้งใจว่าจะได้ทำงานวิจัยอย่างเต็มที่มันเป็นไปได้ มันคงต้องรอให้อยู่ตัวก่อน ก็เลยคิดว่าเท่าที่ผ่านมามานี้ปีครึ่งคิดว่าเรื่องการสอนคิดว่าทุ่มเทมากที่สุด แต่สิ่งที่ตั้งใจว่าจะทำวิจัยไม่ได้ ไม่ได้ตามเป้าหมาย

Q23: ในฐานะอาจารย์ของมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้คิดว่าใครเป็นคนที่มีความสำคัญกับงานของอาจารย์

A: คณบดี เพราะว่าถามแล้วได้ทุกคำตอบ ถามแล้วมีคำตอบให้ตลอดมา แต่ถ้าถามอาจารย์บางท่านเขาไม่เคยพบปัญหาตรงนี้ก็ตอบไม่ได้ เพราะฉะนั้นเราต้องตัดสินใจเอาเอง แต่ถ้าถามคณบดีจะได้คำตอบ จะได้ไม่ต้องถามหลายคนแล้วก็รู้สิ่งที่ถูกต้อง

เพื่อนร่วมภาควิชาทำให้เราทำหน้าที่เราได้ถูกต้องคือสมมุติงานที่ต้องทำหลายคน

ส่วนเราเข้ามาใหม่เราจะไม่ทราบว่าเราต้องทำอะไรก่อน

Q24: ใครสำคัญกับงานของอาจารย์มากที่สุด

A: คิดว่าคณบดี

Q25: อาจารย์คิดว่าคนเหล่านี้หวังอะไรจากอาจารย์บ้าง

A: การที่เขาคาดหวังจากอาจารย์ที่จบปริญญาเอกคือคาดหวังงานวิจัย เพราะเป็นสิ่งที่ขาดอยู่ สิ่งที่คาดหวังคือผลงานทางวิชาการ แต่เราเองกลับคิดว่าต้องเตรียมการสอนให้ดีที่สุดก่อน

หากระบุเป็นรายบุคคลคิดว่า คณบดีคาดหวังอยากให้ทำวิจัยเยอะๆ หัวหน้าภาคและเพื่อนร่วมภาคคาดหวังว่าจะทำได้ดีในวิชาที่สอน ส่วนเพื่อนร่วมภาคคือให้เราอยู่ได้

Q26: ในทางกลับกันอาจารย์คาดหวังอะไรจากคนเหล่านั้น

A: คาดหวังก็คือคำตอบ อย่างเข้าไปถาม สิ่งที่ต้องการคือคำตอบที่ตรงๆ อย่าให้เราต้องกลับมาคิดอีกว่ามันอะไร ก็หวังว่าจะให้คำปรึกษาที่ดีต่อรายละเอียดของงานมากกว่า

ในแง่เพื่อนร่วมงานอยากให้เขายอมรับ คือเราเข้ามาใหม่ต้องไปทำงานร่วมกับคนอาวุโสทั้งนั้น เพราะฉะนั้นการยอมรับว่าเราก็เป็นคนสอนคนหนึ่งการสอนในวิชานี้ได้ดี คืออยากให้เขายอมรับ

Q27: ในแต่ละวันอาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้าง

A: เวลาส่วนใหญ่คือเตรียมสอน ขอแบ่งเลยละกันว่า เทอมแรกเตรียมสอนอย่างเดียว พอเทอมสองจะถูกมอบหมายกิจกรรม ดังนั้นงานก็จะแบ่งเป็น 70/30 พอมาเทอมสามเริ่มดีขึ้นคือ เตรียมสอนกิจกรรมและงานวิจัย แต่เวลาเทอมนี้หลังจากเทอมสามเป็นต้นมาก็คือกิจกรรมก็จะได้เพิ่มมาอีก เรา จะเตรียมสอนลดลง

Q28: เมื่อวานอาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้าง

A: เข้าเตรียมสอน บ่ายมีประชุม เย็นก็ให้คำปรึกษานักศึกษา

Q29: เมื่อวานอาจารย์ได้พบกับบุคคลสำคัญในงานของอาจารย์หรือไม่

A: พบค่ะ

Q30: เมื่อวานมีงานสิ่งใดบ้างที่คิดว่าจะทำแล้วได้ทำ

A: มี แต่ไม่ได้ทำหรอกค่ะ ที่วางแผนไว้มันเป็นไปไม่ได้ เพราะมีเรื่องอื่นเข้ามา อย่างผู้ช่วยคุณบดีให้เข้าไปแก้ไขรายงานการประชุม ซึ่งอันนี้ไม่ใช่งานของเรา แต่ว่าวันนั้นเลขาขาด ไม่มีคนจกก็เลยช่วยเขาจด

Q31: กรุณายกตัวอย่างงานที่อาจารย์ได้ทำเกินกว่าหน้าที่ของและเป็นประโยชน์แก่มหาวิทยาลัย

A: คือ Conference ช่วงแรกที่เข้ามาทำงานได้ 4 เดือนก็ส่ง Paper ในนามของมหาวิทยาลัย อันนี้คือเขายังไม่ได้ Request เขายังไม่คิดว่าเราทำได้ แล้วก็มิงงานวิจัยหรือเขียนบทความลงสถานที่ต่างๆ หรือวิทยากรงานข้างนอก คือได้ประโยชน์ทั้งที่มหาวิทยาลัยและเรา เหมือนกับว่าจุดมุ่งหวังคืออยากขอตำแหน่งทางวิชาการให้เร็วที่สุดและเป็นการเผยแพร่ผลงานในนามมหาวิทยาลัย

Q32: ทำไมอาจารย์ถึงทำ

A: อยากสร้างผลงาน

Q33: มีงานอื่นอีกหรือไม่

A: ตัวอย่างอื่น คือโดยปรกติกการสอนนักศึกษาปริญญาโท เขาไม่ได้บังคับว่าต้องให้คำปรึกษาถึงกี่โมง คือเวลาทำงานควรจะเป็น 8.00 – 17.00 น. แต่สิ่งที่ทำตลอดมาก็คือ ยอมให้นักศึกษาเข้ามาปรึกษาได้ตั้งแต่ 18.00 – 21.00 น. พร้อมทั้งโทรศัพท์ถามได้ถึงบ้าน อันนี้เราถือว่าเราเกิน Requirement แต่เราก็ Happy เนื่องจากนักศึกษาเขาไม่ได้เรียนตอนกลางวัน เขามาเรียนตอนเย็นกับเสาร์-อาทิตย์ ดังนั้นเป็นอีกสิ่งที่ทำเกินกว่าหน้าที่ หรือไม่ใช้วันทำงานแต่มาทำ เพราะนักศึกษาปริญญาโทจะมาวันนี้ ทั้งที่เป็นวันหยุดของเราจริงๆ เราไม่จำเป็นต้องมา คือไม่ใช่หน้าที่ที่เราต้องมา แต่ก็มาทำงานในวันหยุด วันอาทิตย์ ไม่มีการเซ็นชื่อ ไม่มีใครรับรู้ มีนักศึกษาอย่างเดียวที่รู้ว่าอาจารย์มาให้ในวันอาทิตย์ โดยเฉพาะนักศึกษาปริญญาโท เขาจะจัดให้เป็นที่พักษาวิทยานิพนธ์ อันนี้จะเจอบ่อยที่จะต้องมาในวันหยุด

Q34: ทำไมอาจารย์ถึงทำ

A: คือ 1. คือสมัยเรียนตอนที่ทำวิทยานิพนธ์ โหด คือไม่มีทางเลยถ้าไม่มีใครชี้แนะ เราจะเอาสถานการณ์ของตัวเองมาใส่ใจเด็ก หรือคิดว่าเด็กทำงานไม่ได้เรื่อง ไม่จบแน่ เราก็จะนัดมานอกเวลา

สอนให้รู้เรื่อง หรือบางวิชามันยากอย่างวิชาคำนวณ ถ้าเรียนในเวลาเรียนจะมีนักศึกษาบางคนเรียนไม่ทันเพื่อน เราก็จะเรียกมาเจอในวันหยุด

Q35: อาจารย์ต้องการให้ข้อเพิ่มเติมแนหรือไม

A: ไม่มีค่ะ

Q36: กรุณายกตัวอย่างพฤติกรรมกรรมการรักษาทรัพย์สินของมหาวิทยาลัยของอาจารย์ว่าทำอะไร

A: เช่นกระดาษที่เราใช้กัน คือจะใช้ทั้งสองหน้า อย่างแผ่นดิสก์ก็ใช้แผ่นที่เด็กส่งงานเทอมที่แล้วมา Reuse ไม่ค่อยเบิกแผ่นดิสก์ คือเราประหยัดให้เขา ทั้งๆ ที่เขาก็ไม่ได้ห้ามว่าคนหนึ่งจะเบิกกระดาษก็แผ่น หรือหนึ่งคนจะเบิกทรัพย์สินได้เท่าไร

Q37: ทำไมถึงช่วยประหยัดให้มหาวิทยาลัย

A: คิดว่าน่าจะเป็นจากนิสัยเดิมมากกว่าคือเราเป็นแบบนี้อยู่แล้ว คือทำเป็นประจำ

Q38: กรุณายกตัวอย่างพฤติกรรมของอาจารย์ข้อ 12 ให้คำแนะนำที่สร้างสรรค์เพื่อพัฒนาคุณภาพของมหาวิทยาลัย

A: ก็คืออย่างเช่น ให้คำแนะนำต่อหลักสูตรปริญญาโท เช่น การสอนของนักศึกษาบางวิชาอาจจะต้องมีกิจกรรมบางอย่างเสริมด้วย อย่างเช่นโครงการการเขียนแผนธุรกิจ ก็เสนอกับคณบดีว่าสิ่งที่ควรทำคือบางวิชาอย่างวิชาด้านการจัดการน่าจะเอาวิชานี้มาลง อย่างน้อยก็ให้วิทยากรเข้ามาอบรมให้เด็กไป 3 - 4 ชั่วโมง เขาจะได้รู้ว่าแผนธุรกิจคืออะไร หรือการจัดไปดูงานนอกสถานที่

Q39: กรุณายกตัวอย่างพฤติกรรมของอาจารย์ข้อ 14 ช่วยเหลือเพื่อนร่วมงานของอาจารย์

A: ถ้าสอนด้วยกัน แบ่งงานกันเรียบร้อยแล้วว่า 4 คน ว่าเราต้องออกข้อสอบบทที่ 1 - 2 อีกคนออก 3 - 4 แต่คนนี้เขามีกิจกรรมเยอะ แล้วเราก็สอนอยู่แล้วบทที่ 3 - 4 เราก็ช่วยออกให้แทน

Q40: กรุณายกตัวอย่างพฤติกรรมของอาจารย์ข้อ 17 กระตือรือร้นที่จะพูดถึงสิ่งที่ดีของมหาวิทยาลัยแก่บุคคลภายนอกและให้ความกระจ่างในสิ่งที่เข้าใจผิด

A: ส่วนหนึ่งมันก็จะ เป็นเพราะเราเป็นอาจารย์ที่นี่ เราก็ต้องภูมิใจในสถาบันที่เราอยู่ ถ้าเราได้ยินอะไรที่มันผิดๆ เราก็จะรีบแก้ทันที อย่างถ้าเขาบอกว่าเรียนที่นี่เรียนง่าย จะบอกเขาไปทันทีว่าไม่จริงเลย ถ้าได้ยินว่าปล่อยเกรด จะบอกได้เลยว่าไม่จริงเด็ดขาด หรือถ้านักศึกษาบางคนเขาจบจากรัฐแล้วเข้ามาเรียนเอกชน บางคนจะมีทัศนคติในทางลบ ที่เขาเข้ามาเพราะสอบเข้าสถาบันของรัฐไม่ได้เขาถึงมาเรียน เขาจะมีทัศนคติเป็นลบ เราต้องแก้ตลอดว่าไม่ใช่ แต่ถ้าคุณมีทัศนคติในทางลบมาก จะแนะนำว่าคุณเปลี่ยนที่เรียนดีกว่าไหม ดีกว่าคุณไปโฆษณาว่ามันไม่ใช่ที่ที่คุณอยากเรียน

Q41: อาจารย์ทำไมถึงทำ

A: คิดว่ามันน่าจะเป็นเรื่องของเราภูมิใจในสถาบันของเราที่เราอยู่ เวลานั้นศึกษามาพูดดูถูก มีความรู้สึกว่ามันไม่ใช่ เราก็อยากจะแก้ แต่ถ้าเราไม่ได้อยู่ที่นี้เราก็อาจจะไม่แคร์ก็ได้

23rd participant

Q1: How old are you?

A: 29 years old.

Q2: How many years have you been employed by this university?

A: 1 ½ years.

Q3: What is your highest academic qualification?

A: D.B.A. in International Administration.

Q4: What is your job title in the university?

A: Lecturer of Finance Department.

Q5: What are your responsibilities within the university?

A: My main responsibility is teaching both undergrad and graduate level.

Q6: Do you have any consulting job?

A: Yes. Currently I am a consultant at Dummy Rejoice Company and a committee of SME project, which is university project joint with Department of Industrial Promotion. I also an advisor for a graduate students and teaching 40 students.

Q7: Are you an undergrad advisor?

A: Not at this moment.

Q8: Do you have any academic paper?

A: I submitted my research proposal to the university's researching fund. The result should come out next month. In the meantime, I prepared to write the articles as well.

Q9: Where those articles published?

A: The latest one was the conference in Asia. I also got one which publish within the university.

Q10: Does the university require you to write that academic paper?

A: Not really but they just ask me to do. However, by doing this, I will get scores which effect to my performance appraisal.

Q11: Have you written any textbooks?

A: It is now on the process. Financial faculty will issue one finance textbook for undergrad students. I am now helping them write one chapter of International Finance.

Q12: Do you have any managerial work?

A: No. Recently, I was appointed as a committee of SME project. I don't know whether this project is outside of my job or not. The university joints with Department of Industrial Promotion to launch this project. Therefore, it's seem to be outside of my job but supported by university. We are going to open SME Training Centre. in fact all budgets will come from Department of Industrial Promotion and we just provide human resource.

Q13: How do you know what your responsibilities are?

A: I was assigned to teach but no one tells me about research.

Q14: How do you know the technique to teach those classes?

A: Mostly, I learn from previous teaching plans but I have to prepare teaching material myself.

Q15: Have you ever seen your "Job Description"?

A: Yes, I have. When I came to do employment contract at human resources department, they told me what is my JD: teaching, do research, academic advisor, and participate in university's activities.

Q16: Do you know what to do by the JD, don't you?

A: Yes, but it does not provide me much more details.

Q17: Have you got any training or induction?

A: Yes. We had a 2-day induction to tell us about our responsibilities. In fact, it did not be only orientation because they had guest speakers talking about teaching, research techniques, and corporation overall.

Q18: When you started to work, have you got teaching problem or any others? How do you sort them out?

A: At first, I don't know where to turn to. I don't know those questions would ask or not. So I went to see the Dean. I hope he understands and forgives me.

My colleagues help me sometimes. If we're very close then we teach the same class. Some classes, we have to corporate each other. For instance, we have 4 lectures for Financial Administration class. Then we must have the same concept in teaching plans. But some classes that solely taught by me. I independently do my teaching plan. If I have any questions, I will directly come to see the Dean. Such as, guest speaker's expense but I really don't know how. The best way is come to ask directly to the Dean.

Q19: How do you know the academic advisor's responsibilities?

A: I asked the previous advisor because the Dean does not know everything.

Q20: Have you got any advised from the head of department?

A: I seldom have a chance to meet the head of department because we're often been in different campus. But I have more opportunity to meet the Dean.

Q21: How do you know the procedure to do research?

A: Rely on myself. Not many lectures do it but we have a research centre. This research centre is not a part of Business Administration but is an independent institution.

Q22: Do you think that you have done all part of your duties?

A: Not yet. Since I worked here, I was assigned new subjects therefore I have no opportunity to do research. In one and a half year, I think I put a lot of afford in teaching but I have not done what I expected.

Q23: As the member this university, could you tell me who are the key people?

A: The Dean. Because he can answer all my questions. If I ask some lecturers who do not have direct experience then they can't answer me. Therefore, I have to make a decision but if I ask the Dean I will get the answer.

I am new here so colleagues are very helpful. They advise me what to do.

Q24: Who is your most important person?

A: I think the Dean.

Q25: What are these people expected from you?

A: What they expect from D.B.A. lecturer is research because we have lack of this thing. However, I think prepare teaching for the class is the most important for me.

In personal, the Dean is expecting us to do more research. My Head of department and colleagues expect me to do the best in teaching.

Q26: What do you, in turn, expect of you key people?

A: I expected to have the answer. For instance, when I asked questions I need crystal clear answers. I don't want to think again.

In colleague's perspective, I would like them to recognise me. I am a new comer and working with senior staffs, therefore I would like them to recognise me that I am good in teaching.

Q27: What you do mainly on a typical day?

A: Most of the time is teaching. In first semester, I only taught. In second semester, I was assigned more activities. Therefore, the portion was 70/30. In third semester, was much better in teaching and researching. After this semester, I will have more activities, but less time to prepare teaching.

Q28: What did you do mainly yesterday?

A: In the morning prepare teaching, then in the afternoon, have a meeting and academic advisor in the evening.

Q29: Have you met your key people on that day?

A: Yes, I did.

Q30: Do you think what did you do yesterday, which of the expectation do you intend to meet?

A: Yes, I have a plan but I did not do it. Because something interrupted. For instance, Assistant of Dean made some change in meeting report and secretary was absent then we have to do memo for this meeting.

Q31: Can you give me for examples when you think you do something beyond requirement?

A: In first 4 months, I sent conference paper out under university. And also have research and articles published in other institutions. Well, this will benefit both institution and me. It's seemed like my objective is speed up for my higher title and university recognition.

Q32: Why did you do this?

A: Want to show my performance.

Q33: Anything else?

A: For instance, usually in teaching for graduate students, the university did not fix hours for advising. Working hours were from 8 am – 5 pm but what I've usually done was allow students to see from 6pm – 9pm. Sometimes, I have done extra work by allowing them to call me at home, and I'm happy to do this because some did not attend classes in daytime, but at in evenings or weekends. Even this is my days off but I come in but do not sign-in, so no one knows. Only students know that I work on Sundays, especially when the university assigns me as thesis advisor for graduate students. This has happened quite often, so I have to work at weekends.

Q34: Why did you do this?

A: When I was doing thesis, it was tough and no one gave me the guidance. I would like to put myself into their shoes. If they have done not a good quality thesis, they might not graduate. Some of them are behind then I have to guide them after class or some weekend.

Q35: Would you like to add anything else?

A: No.

Q36: Please give examples how to prevent university property that you have done?

A: Such as, using both sides of paper and reusing diskettes. I tried to save the university's money even though no one told me to do so.

Q37: Why do you help university to save money?

A: I think this is my personal habit and I usually do.

Q38: Please give example when you behave in question no.12: make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the university.

A: I gave an idea to improve the graduate curriculum and provide some extra activities for graduate students. For instance, I proposed to add business-planning project into the course. We should have a guest speaker for 3-4 hours or an external activity so that students will understand about what a business plan is.

Q39: Please give example when you behave in question no.14: assist others with their duties.

A: Let us say we have 4 lecturers to teach this class. I will do exam chapter 1-2, another will do chapter 3-4, but if she has too many assignments I will help her do chapter 3-4.

Q40: Please give exams of your behave in question no.17: be eager to tell outsiders good news about the university and clarify their misunderstandings.

A: Part of this is I am a lecturer here. I am proud of this institution. If I heard any incorrect, for instance, someone said that in studying here it is easy to get a good grade. I would forcefully correct this, it is so untrue. Or some graduate students from public university have negative perspectives, I always correct them. But someone has really bad or negative attitude, I will recommend them to study somewhere else rather.

Q41: Why you have to do that?

A: I think I proud of this institution. Sometimes students insult institution, if I was here I urgently corrects it.

34th participant

Q1: อาจารย์อายุเท่าไร

A: 34 ปี

Q2: อาจารย์ทำงานที่มหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้มานานเท่าไร

A: 6 ปี

Q3: ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุดของอาจารย์คืออะไร

A: ปริญญาโท ด้าน MPA

Q4: อาจารย์มีตำแหน่งอะไรในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้

A: หัวหน้าภาควิชาการจัดการทรัพยากรมนุษย์

Q5: อาจารย์มีหน้าที่และความรับผิดชอบอะไรบ้างครับ

A: ต้องแบ่งอย่างนี้นะคะ ถึงเป็นหัวหน้าภาคก็ต้องมีหน้าที่เป็นอาจารย์ประจำด้วย ส่วนงานหัวหน้าภาคก็ดูแลเรื่องของความเรียบร้อยของการจัดการเรียนการสอนในภาควิชาจะมีจัดตารางสอน รับข้อสอบ ส่งข้อสอบเข้ากรรมการข้อสอบ แล้วก็งานที่คณะมอบหมายให้โดยที่ เกี่ยวข้องกับอาจารย์ในภาควิชาที่มอบหมายงานในภาควิชาที่เกี่ยวกับงานของภาควิชา ส่วนอาจารย์ประจำก็รับผิดชอบในการสอน อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา แล้วก็งานที่ได้รับมอบหมาย

- งานที่มหาวิทยาลัยมอบหมายให้เป็นงานในลักษณะไหนครับ

เช่น เรื่องของการคุมสอบ และงานที่เกี่ยวกับงานของคณะ เช่น ปัจฉิมนิเทศ ปฐมนิเทศ

- มีงานอื่นๆ อีกไหมครับ

ก็ต้องทำกิจกรรมในเรื่องของการเรียนการสอนอาจารย์ทุกคนต้องรับผิดชอบกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตรให้นักศึกษา

- อันนั้นเป็นกิจกรรม เป็นงานที่บังคับอยู่ในพันธกิจอยู่แล้วว่าต้องทำอะไร

พันธกิจไม่ได้บอก เพียงแต่เรื่อง load การสอนต้องเท่าไร แต่ว่าในนโยบายของ มหาวิทยาลัยจะได้รับงบประมาณเกี่ยวกับเรื่องของกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตร เพราะฉะนั้นนโยบายจากมหาวิทยาลัยก็จะกลายมาเป็นนโยบายของคณะ คณะก็จะบอกว่าต้องให้ทำกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตรในทุกวิชาที่สอน

- อาจารย์มีงานทางด้านวิชาการอีกไหมครับ

ก็เป็นนโยบายของมหาวิทยาลัยเหมือนกันนะคะ เรื่องการทำวิจัย หรือตำแหน่งทางวิชาการก็จะมียกประมาณมา แต่ในส่วนของตัวเองตอนนี้เพิ่งจะเริ่มทำที่จะแต่งตำรา

- คือมีนโยบายแต่ไม่ได้บังคับให้ทำ

คะ ในส่วนของคณะ คณะดีท่านก็จะพยายามกระตุ้นเหมือนกัน สำหรับอาจารย์ที่อยู่มานานแล้วก็ควรจะมีผลงานทางวิชาการ

- อาจารย์มีงานอื่นๆ ที่มหาวิทยาลัยมอบหมายให้ใหม่ครับ เช่น อาจเป็นที่ปรึกษาทั้งภายในและภายนอก

ก็มีอีกอันหนึ่ง ที่จริงก็ถือเป็นพันธกิจเหมือนกัน อย่างเป็นทางการชมรม คือ ชมรมในมหาวิทยาลัย คือ มีไม่มาก ระเบียบก็คือที่ปรึกษาชมรม ชมรมละ 2 คน เพราะฉะนั้นสัดส่วนของอาจารย์ของมหาวิทยาลัยแล้วมันไม่สอดคล้องกัน ทีนี้ก็แล้วแต่ที่อาจารย์ท่านใดจะรับผิดชอบ ตอนที่ได้รับการก็คือเป็นคณะกรรมการมูลนิธิมหาวิทยาลัยศรีปทุม

Q6: อาจารย์ทราบว่าหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบเหล่านั้นจากที่ไหนบ้างครับ

A: จาก JD ของมหาวิทยาลัย จากการเรียนรู้ด้วยตัวเองจากงานที่ต้องทำ ถึงเวลาจะต้องมีการประชุม คือคณะจะมีการประชุมเดือนละ 1 ครั้ง สำหรับหัวหน้าภาคและคณะกรรมการคณะโดยตำแหน่งแล้ว ก็มีการประชุมอาจารย์/เจ้าหน้าที่ เช่นเดียวกันเดือนละ 1 ครั้ง เพราะฉะนั้น โดยสายงานแล้ว ผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายวิชาการและฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา ก็จะมอบหมายงานมา เราก็จะเรียนรู้จากตรงนั้นว่าต้องทำอะไร ว่า OK ปีการศึกษาหนึ่งจัดตารางสอนทั้งหมด 3 เทอม รับข้อสอบจากอาจารย์ในภาคเข้าคณะกรรมการคณะ เอาผลสอบเข้ากรรมการคณะแล้วก็นำผลสอบหรือข้อสอบเข้ากรรมการมาตรฐานวิชาการภายนอก หรือทุก 5 ปี มีการปรับปรุงหลักสูตรหรือแม้แต่ว่าเรามีนโยบายว่าเราควรปรับปรุงหลักสูตรได้แล้ว ก็จะเป็นงานหลักที่จะต้องทำตลอด

Q7: อาจารย์คิดว่าอาจารย์ได้ทำบทบาทเหล่านั้นครบหรือไม่ครับ

A: ตอนนี้อยู่คิดว่าตัวเองยังทำไม่ครบ คือเรื่องของการทำตำรา เรื่องการทำวิจัย แล้วก็ในส่วนของที่ปรึกษาชมรม

- ครับ ผมขอกลับไปข้อที่แล้วนะครับ ที่อาจารย์ทราบว่าต้องทำอะไรบ้าง ก็สรุปได้ว่ามี 2 ทางก็คือ ประสบการณ์ของตัวเองกับ JD อาจารย์มีแหล่งที่อาจารย์จะทราบว่าต้องทำอะไรจากที่ไหนอีกครั้ง

จากผู้บังคับบัญชา คือผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายวิชาการ ผู้ช่วยคณบดีฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา เพราะฉะนั้นงานจะผ่านมาจากสายตรงนั้นแล้วก็จะมอบหมาย แล้วถ้าไม่เข้าใจก็จะถาม แล้วก็ศึกษาในบรรดาหัวหน้าภาคด้วยตนเอง เพราะบางทีงานมันก็จะมีการเปลี่ยนแปลงวิธีการก็ได้ แต่ตัวเนื้องานหรือหน้าที่งานก็จะมีเป็นหลัก ๆ ที่ต้องทำร่วมกัน

Q8: ในฐานะที่อาจารย์เป็นอาจารย์ในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งนี้ อาจารย์คิดว่าใครเป็นบุคคลที่เกี่ยวข้องโดยตรงกับการปฏิบัติงานบ้างครับ

A: งานที่ทำก็คือภารกิจเป็นอาจารย์ประจำ หัวหน้าภาค คณะกรรมการคณะโดย ตำแหน่งของหัวหน้าภาค เพราะฉะนั้นผู้ที่มีความสำคัญก็คือผู้บังคับบัญชา คือ คณบดี ผู้ช่วย คณบดีทั้ง 2 ท่าน แล้วก็ในฐานะอาจารย์ก็จะเป็นนักศึกษาที่มีอิทธิพลกับงานแล้วก็ฝ่ายที่จะสนับสนุนหน่วยงานต่างๆ ของมหาวิทยาลัยหรือคณะ ก็จะมีฝ่ายวิชาการ เจ้าหน้าที่คณะ เจ้าหน้าที่อื่นๆ ที่เราจะต้อง

ทำงานด้วย อย่างเช่น ฝ่ายอาคาร ประชาสัมพันธ์ ฝ่ายโสตฯ เป็นต้น เช่น เราทำกิจกรรมของมหาวิทยาลัยเราก็ต้องติดต่อกับเจ้าหน้าที่/หน่วยงานอื่น ๆ

Q9: บุคคลเหล่านั้น ใครเป็นบุคคลที่มีอิทธิพลกับงานของอาจารย์มากที่สุดครับ

A: ผู้บังคับบัญชาคือ คณบดี ผู้ช่วยคณบดีทั้ง 2 ท่าน นักศึกษาแล้วก็หัวหน้างานกลางของมหาวิทยาลัย 5 รวมที่นะค่ะ

Q10: ใครสำคัญที่สุดครับ ถ้าจะมองในแง่ของหัวหน้าภาค คิดว่าใครสำคัญที่สุด

A: นักศึกษา

Q11: มีบุคคลหรือหน่วยงานใดที่ตรวจสอบการทำงานของอาจารย์บ้างไหมครับ

A: มี สำนักส่งเสริมมาตรฐานการศึกษาก็ตรวจสอบในเรื่องของการเป็นอาจารย์ คือเรื่องของการเรียนการสอน แผนการสอน ส่วนฝ่ายวิชาการก็จะมาดูเรื่องของการเข้าสอน การงดบรรยาย การสอนขาดเขย นักศึกษาก็จะมาประเมินในแง่การสอนของอาจารย์ ก็จะเป็น 3 ส่วนภายนอกก็จะมี ISO ที่มหาวิทยาลัยกำลังทำอยู่ ซึ่งได้รับแล้ว แต่ก็ต้องประเมินอยู่ แล้วก็โดยของทบวงมหาวิทยาลัยก็คือระบบ QA มาตรฐานคุณภาพการศึกษา อันนี้ก็คือยังไม่เป็นรูปร่าง ฉะนั้นก็เริ่มทำพร้อม ๆ กัน ของทุกมหาวิทยาลัยค่ะ

Q12: อาจารย์คิดว่าบุคคลที่อาจารย์บอกว่าเขาสำคัญกับงานของอาจารย์

เขาคาดหวังอะไรจากอาจารย์บ้างครับ

A: คิดว่าทั้งหมด ทั้งมหาวิทยาลัย หรือว่าผู้บังคับบัญชาก็ต้องมีนโยบายเดียวกันที่คาดหวังว่าอาจารย์ประจำรวมทั้งหัวหน้าภาคที่มีหน้าที่เป็นอาจารย์ประจำ คือสอนให้นักศึกษามีความรู้ ความเชี่ยวชาญ แล้วก็สามารถนำไปใช้ได้ในการทำงานในอนาคตก็สอนให้นักศึกษามีคุณธรรม จริยธรรม อันนี้คืองานทั่วไป ส่วนหน้าที่ของการเป็นหัวหน้าภาคคือในเรื่องของการจัดการเรียนการสอน ให้นักศึกษาได้เพียงพอ เป็นไปตามแผนการเรียนการสอนและพัฒนาอาจารย์ในภาคให้มี ผลการปฏิบัติงานที่ดี ส่วนกรรมการคณะกรรมการเราก็ต้องดูแลในส่วนการใช้งบประมาณให้มันมี ประสิทธิภาพ และประสิทธิผลด้วย ที่ในพันธกิจที่ทางมหาวิทยาลัยก็คือ 1. ผลิตบัณฑิต ในเรื่องของการเรียนการสอน มีการทำตำรา วิจัย แล้วก็ให้บริการวิชาการแก่สังคม ทำนุบำรุงศิลป วัฒนธรรม เพราะฉะนั้นมหาวิทยาลัยก็ให้งบประมาณส่งเสริม และหน้าที่ของกรรมการคณะก็ต้องเข้ามาดูแลในส่วนตรงนี้

ก็แยกให้เห็นว่าบทบาทของอาจารย์ที่เป็นหัวหน้าภาคของมหาวิทยาลัย เขาก็จะบอกว่า 1. คุณมีหน้าที่ของพันธกิจการเป็นหัวหน้าภาคโดยมีหน้าที่เป็นกรรมการคณะโดยตำแหน่ง แล้วก็ยังต้องทำหน้าที่สอนที่เหมือนเป็นอาจารย์ประจำ แต่ขึ้นอยู่กับว่า load ในการสอนอาจจะน้อยกว่าอาจารย์ประจำ ดังนั้นเราก็จะมี 3 บทบาทที่เราได้ถูกคาดหวังจากคนต่าง ๆ ในมหาวิทยาลัย

นักศึกษาเขาต้องการคือ เขาคงไม่ทราบถึงว่าอาจารย์ต้องเป็นอย่างไร หัวหน้าภาคต้องเป็นอย่างไร แต่เวลาเขามาติดต่อเรา ในหัวหน้าภาคก็ต้องดูแลในเรื่องของการย้ายสาขา คณะ

ของนักศึกษาอื่นที่จะเข้ามาเรียนในสาขาเรา เราก็จะให้ความเข้าใจกับเขาในเรื่องกฎระเบียบของมหาวิทยาลัยได้ ส่วนในเรื่องของการเป็นอาจารย์ประจำ เขาก็ต้องคาดหวังให้เราให้ความรู้กับเขา แล้วก็หากิจกรรมที่ทำให้เขามีทักษะอะไรต่างๆ ในการที่จะเอาไปใช้ในการทำงานในอนาคต

Q13: อาจารย์คิดว่าความคาดหวังเหล่านั้นสมเหตุสมผลหรือไม่ครับ

A: คือความคิดเห็นส่วนตัวแล้ว การเป็นอาจารย์มันไม่มีขอบเขต เพราะว่าสถานการณ์เปลี่ยนหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบมันก็ต้องเปลี่ยนตามไปด้วย เพื่อตอบสนองกับสิ่งแวดล้อมไปเรื่อย เช่น ความต้องการของผู้ประกอบการหรือตัวนักศึกษาเองที่เขาในโลกทัศน์ที่กว้างขึ้น ดังนั้นความคาดหวังเขาก็จะมีการเปลี่ยนไป โดยทฤษฎีมันก็สมเหตุสมผลนะค่ะ ในทางปฏิบัติอย่างการที่จะมีเวลาทุ่มเทกับงานวิจัย แต่งตำรา แต่เวลาเดียวกันก็ต้องสอนให้มันมีคุณภาพด้วย

Q14: ในทางกลับกันอาจารย์คาดหวังอะไรจากบุคคลเหล่านั้นบ้างครับ

A: คนบดี และผู้ช่วยคนบดีทั้งสองท่าน โดยตำแหน่งก็จะเป็นผู้บังคับบัญชาระดับสูงในสายงานของหัวหน้าภาคและอาจารย์ประจำ ดังนั้นต้องการให้มีนโยบาย วัสดุทัศน์ ที่จะพัฒนาคณะไปทางไหน และก็สนับสนุนในแง่ของการให้ทรัพยากร แล้วก็ในเรื่องของตัวบทบาทในเรื่องของการเป็นผู้นำ ก็คาดหวังว่าเขาจะให้ค่าปรึกษาในเรื่องที่เราแก้ไขลำบาก อย่างในเรื่องของอาจารย์ที่เป็นลูกภาค เรื่องทรัพยากรอื่น เช่น การหา Projector การจัดห้องเรียนให้เหมาะสม ส่วนในเรื่องของนักศึกษา ก็คงจะคาดหวังให้นักศึกษาขยันเรียน มีผลการเรียนที่ดี เกรดอย่างน้อยก็ C ขึ้นไป ตั้งใจเรียน จบไปแล้วก็ได้ทำงานเป็นคนที่ดีของสังคม ส่วนหน่วยงานสนับสนุนอื่น ๆ เราก็คาดหวังว่าเขาจะให้การสนับสนุนงานของคณะ เพราะว่าจริงๆ ถ้ามองหน่วยงานหลักที่เป็น Line ของมหาวิทยาลัยก็ต้องเป็นคณะ เพราะคณะเป็นส่วนที่ผลิตบัณฑิต ส่วนหน่วยงานอื่นก็ต้องเป็นฝ่ายสนับสนุนค่ะ ให้ความร่วมมือ สนับสนุนทรัพยากร

ฝ่ายวิชาการโดยโครงสร้างก็คือ รองอธิการบดีฝ่ายวิชาการ นำนโยบายต่างๆ เช่น การจัดการเรียนการสอน การลงทะเบียน อะไรพวกนี้ ก็ให้มาดูแลด้วยว่าเวลาปฏิบัติงานจริง ๆ มันมีปัญหาอย่างไรแล้วก็ในส่วนของบางครั้งกฎระเบียบบางที่ต้องยืดหยุ่นบ้าง บางที่ถ้าจะให้พัฒนาอาจารย์ในการที่จะให้ไปอบรม สัมมนาออกสถานที่ ถ้าเกิดช่วงนั้นไปไม่ได้ ช่วงนี้ก็ไปไม่ได้ มันก็จะประสบปัญหาว่าจะพัฒนาอาจารย์กันอย่างไรดี

ส่วนใหญ่เจ้าหน้าที่ก็ได้อยู่แล้วในเรื่องของการสนับสนุนอาจารย์ ประสานงาน ติดต่ออะไรต่าง ๆ

Q15: แล้วอาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้างในแต่ละวันครับ

A: ส่วนใหญ่ก็จะเป็นงานของอาจารย์ประจำ เช่นการตรวจการบ้าน แต่งานหัวหน้าภาคมันก็จะ มีต้นเทอมจะเตรียมจัดตารางสอนในเทอมต่อไปให้ทัน ดูแลและตรวจสอบอะไรทั้งหมด จัดหาอาจารย์พิเศษ อาจารย์รวมสอนอะไรพวกนี้ บางทีก็ต้องมีประชุม อย่างที่พูดไปแล้วว่าทุกวันพฤหัสบดีของทุกสัปดาห์ จะมีการจัดประชุมทั้งอาจารย์ คณะกรรมการคณะ หัวหน้าภาค รับมอบหมายงานมาก็ต้อง

มาทำ แล้วก็ในแง่ที่เป็นอาจารย์ประจำจะต้องมีกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตร ก็จะต้อง ติดต่อกับหน่วยงาน ภายนอก เช่น เขียววิทยากร ประสานงานกับคนภายใน เช่นติดต่อสถานที่ประชาสัมพันธ์ มันก็จะมี ทั่ววันคะ ถ้าว่างจริงๆ จะน้อยมากที่จะอ่านหนังสือ ที่จะทำงานตรงนี้ สอน แล้วก็เตรียมการสอน

Q16: เมื่อวันพุธอาจารย์ทำอะไรบ้างครับ

A: มีอาจารย์พิเศษมาส่งข้อสอบก็ต้องมาพูดคุยกันว่าข้อสอบเป็นไปตามนโยบายไหม เหมาะ สมควรแค่ไหน สอดคล้องกับโครงการสอนหรือไม่ เพราะการออกข้อสอบเราต้องดูว่า อาจารย์มีโครง การสอนเรื่องอะไรบ้าง ดังนั้นคุณควรจะออกข้อสอบให้สอดคล้องกับเรื่องที่สอน แล้วก็ก็มีเรื่องของ การบูรณาการ วิเคราะห์ การนำไปใช้ ก็ช่วยกันปรึกษาหารือกันคะ ซึ่งท่านเป็นอาจารย์พิเศษ ก็ต้องดูแลเรื่องนี้ แล้วก็ format ของการพิมพ์ข้อสอบอะไรต่างๆ ช่วง 14.50 ก็มีสอน ช่วง ก่อนไปสอนก็มีประมวลภาพกิจกรรม ซึ่งได้จัดเป็นกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตร ซึ่งจัดไปเมื่อวันที่ 10 และ 17 ตุลาคม 2545 ก็เลยทำบอร์ดประชาสัมพันธ์ของกิจกรรม

Q17: เมื่อวานอาจารย์ได้พบบุคคลที่อาจารย์บอกว่าเขาเหล่านั้นสำคัญกับงานของอาจารย์บ้าง ไหมครับ

A: พบท่านคนบดี ท่านมาที่ office ได้คุยกันเล็กน้อย แล้วก็พบเจ้าหน้าที่คณะ เพราะว่า ดูแลเรื่องเอกสารที่จะเชิญคนบดี ที่จะจัดงานวันที่ 13 พฤศจิกายน 2545 แล้วก็เชิญผู้ช่วย คนบดีฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา พอดีท่านคุยว่าจะไปประชุมแล้วก็มาถ่ายทอดงานให้ เพราะว่าใน ตำแหน่งต้องรับมอบหมายงานจากผู้ช่วยคนบดีฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา ที่จะรับผิดชอบงานของ มหาวิทยาลัย แล้วก็งานวันเสาร์ที่จะซ่อมรับปริญญา แล้ววันที่ 4 - 5 ที่จะมีพิธีรับปริญญา แล้วก็ พบนักศึกษาเพราะว่าไปสอน

Q18: อาจารย์คิดว่าสิ่งที่ทำในวันพุธ

18.1 เมื่อวานอาจารย์คิดว่าอะไรที่อาจารย์ได้ตั้งใจจะทำแล้วได้ทำบ้างครับ

อย่างเรื่องรับข้อสอบก็มีการนัดอาจารย์พิเศษ ก็สบายใจ ก็ข้อสอบคณะ date line ให้ส่ง ข้อสอบในวันจันทร์ที่ 4 แต่ถ้าส่งก่อนมันก็มีโอกาสได้ตรวจสอบ ได้พูดคุยกันว่าควรจะปรับปรุง ตรงไหนก็ได้พบ ตรงนี้ก็ทำได้ทำ ส่วนเรื่องของการสอน ตอนนี่ก็ที่จะมีงานวันที่ 13 ก็มีการบรรยาย และจัดนิทรรศการที่จะให้นักศึกษาทำ ก็ได้ติดตามงานของนักศึกษาแล้วก็ช่วยแก้ไขงานให้นักศึกษาว่าต้องทำอะไรต่อ ในส่วนนั้นก็ทำได้ทำ

18.2 แล้วที่ตั้งใจไว้แต่ไม่ได้ทำล่ะครับ มีไหมครับ

เมื่อวานก็เตรียมที่จะติดประกาศการลงทะเบียนล่วงหน้าของเทอม 2 แล้วก็รอแผนการสอน ที่จะมาติดบอร์ดเพราะว่าอยู่ในช่วงของการรอถ่ายเอกสาร แล้วก็แผนที่จะแบ่งกันใน 6 ภาควิชา ก็ ต้องรอประชุมวันนี้ตอนบ่าย ก็เลยยังไม่ได้ติดบอร์ดเพื่อประกาศบอกเด็กล่วงหน้า เพราะวันพรุ่งนี้ ก็จะมีการขายคู่มือการลงทะเบียนของเทอมหน้า

18.3 แล้วสิ่งที่ตั้งใจจะทำแล้วได้ทำเกินกว่าที่ตั้งใจล่ะครับ

ส่วนใหญ่ก็จะทำตามที่ได้คิดไว้ค่ะ แต่งานนิทรรศการนักศึกษาบางครั้งเราก็ต้องดูว่าเขาได้ทำอะไรไปแล้วบ้าง เราก็ต้องรีบเสริมให้เพราะงานก็ใกล้จะถึงแล้ว ก็เหมือนกับเราได้ทำมากกว่าที่ตัวเองตั้งใจไว้

Q19: เมื่อวันที่ผ่านมามีอาจารย์ได้ทำอะไรที่เกินกว่าหน้าที่ตามปกติบ้างครับ

A: ส่วนตัวแล้ว ตามปกติเวลาสอนนักศึกษาแล้วจะไม่ชอบเน้นทฤษฎีอย่างเดียว จะต้องมีการเสริม แล้วเวลาทำงาน อย่างนิทรรศการก็ไม่ใช่ว่าจะมีกลุ่มแล้วก็แบ่งเป็นกลุ่มๆ แล้วก็เอามาจัดเพื่อจะให้เหมือนกัน คือ แข่งกันทุกบอร์ด แต่ชอบทำอะไรที่มันยากๆหน่อย ซึ่งเราก็เครียด หน่อยคือ นักศึกษาเขาก็จะไม่ค่อยได้ จะทำอย่างไรให้ 3 Sec ทำงานให้มา เป็น concept เดียวกัน ดังนั้น เวลาตรงนี้มันก็จะมีความรู้สึกว่าถ้าเปรียบเทียบกับคนอื่นทำ แต่ส่วนตัวทำงานไม่ค่อยคิดว่าใครทำงานอย่างไร ถ้าเขาทำดีเราก็อยากเอามาใช้กับเราบ้าง แต่ถ้าเขาทำไม่ดีเราก็ไม่ได้ว่าอะไรเขา เพราะเรื่องของอาจารย์มันเป็นเรื่องของใครของเขา เขาคงทำอย่างดีที่สุดแล้ว แต่ของตัวเองก็จะทำอะไรให้เด็กต้องทำที่เน้นเรื่องของการทำงานเป็นทีม มันก็จะเหนื่อยหน่อยตัวเองก็จะ Assign อะไรที่ไม่ค่อยเหมือนกับคนอื่น จะเน้นว่าจะทำอย่างไรให้นักศึกษา ทำงานเป็นทีม การเรียนไม่ใช่แข่งขันกับคนอื่น มันแข่งขันกับตัวเอง แล้วก็ให้รู้จักความคิดสร้างสรรค์ ทำงานเป็นทีม

Q20: อาจารย์ทำไมถึงทำสิ่งนั้นครับ

A: ก็พยายามมาคิดว่าในเมื่อนักศึกษาเป็นคนที่มีความสำคัญกับเรา แล้วเขาก็ต้องเป็นอนาคตของชาติ ดังนั้นเวลานี้ก็ไม่ได้คิดอะไร ก็พยายามให้นักศึกษาทำงาน ทำให้ดีที่สุดหรืออยากให้นักศึกษาได้รับอะไรที่ดีที่สุดเวลาลงทะเบียนเรียนกับเรา อย่างจะจัดสัปดาห์พิเศษ ก็จะคิดว่าจะจัดวิทยากรอย่างไรเพื่อที่จะสอดคล้อง เป็นคนที่มีคุณค่า อย่างคราวนี้ก็ได้เชิญท่านองคมนตรีได้ พอเชิญคนใหญ่คนโตเราก็ยิ่งต้องเตรียมงาน แล้วก็อยากให้เกิดภาพพจน์ที่ดีต่อมหาวิทยาลัย ก็ถ้าเขามีความประทับใจกับนักศึกษากับมหาวิทยาลัย เวลาที่ท่านไปบรรยายที่อื่นเขาก็จะได้พูดถึง เพราะมหาวิทยาลัยเอกชนบ้านเราก็ไม่ค่อยเท่าเทียมกับมหาวิทยาลัยของรัฐเท่าไรนัก มันก็เกิดความเครียดที่จะต้องทำงานให้ออกมาดี

Q21: ช่วยยกตัวอย่างสิ่งที่คุณคิดว่าได้ทำนอกเหนือจากหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบตามปกติและเป็นประโยชน์กับทางมหาวิทยาลัย

A: ที่เข้ามาเป็นอาจารย์ 6 ปี ปีแรกที่เข้ามาคือทำจดหมายข่าวของคณะขึ้นมา คือผู้ช่วยคณบดีทั้งสองท่านบอกว่าจะทำตรงนี้ ก็ไม่ได้คิดอะไร ทำก็ทำ โดยที่ขอให้อาจารย์ทั้ง 6 ภาควิชามาเขียนบทความลงในหนังสือ ก็ทำมาเป็นปี อันนี้ภูมิใจมาก เพราะเราเข้ามาใหม่ ๆ ก็ได้ทำแล้วก็ได้เรียนรู้ในเรื่องของการทำงานร่วมกัน ก็คือตอนทำแรกๆ มีปัญหาเหมือนกันกับอาจารย์ในคณะ แต่ก็ผ่านมาได้เพราะคนอื่นเขาก็เห็นว่าเรารตั้งใจจริงแล้วเราก็เป็นอาจารย์ใหม่ เรื่องของการติดต่อประสานงานอาจจะผิดพลาด แต่ก็ผ่านไปด้วยดี อันนี้คือทำให้กับคณะ ที่ทำอีกชิ้นหนึ่งก็คืองานบริหารธุรกิจเพื่อสังคม ที่ทำให้กับนักศึกษาแต่คณะก็ได้รับชื่อเสียงไปด้วย คือ สอนให้นักศึกษา

ษาฝึกความเสียสละโดยใช้งานเข้ามาทำ แล้วก็ได้เงินแล้วก็มอบให้กับมูลนิธิต่างๆ ที่เป็นการกุศล ก็ทำมา 4 ปีแล้ว

Q22: ทำอย่างไรครับ

A: คือช่วงนั้นเศรษฐกิจตกต่ำแล้วก็นิยมเรื่องของการขายสินค้ามือสอง ก็เอาของมาบริจาคกัน ที่คิดว่ายังพอขายได้ก็เอามาขายกัน แล้วก็ยังมีซุ้มเกม ให้กับนักศึกษาและอาจารย์ เจ้าหน้าที่ ไปจนถึงร้านค้าในมหาวิทยาลัย บริเวณตึก 5 ชั้น 1 ก็จัดทุกปีให้มันสอดคล้อง มีหลายๆอย่าง รายได้ก็ให้มูลนิธิ ให้โรงเรียนตำรวจตระเวนชายแดนบ้าง มอบให้พวกกีฬาเอเชียนเกมก็มอบให้กับสมาคมที่จัดเฟสปิกเกม ส่วนปีนี้ที่จัดก็ได้เงินมาสองหมื่นกว่า มอบให้กองทุนนักศึกษาคณะบริหารธุรกิจที่ขาดแคลนทุนทรัพย์ ที่เราจะมอบให้งานปฐมนิเทศนักศึกษาใหม่ปี 2546 เป็นกองทุน ๆ ละ 3 พันบาท ก็ให้ฟรีไปเลย เพื่อช่วยเหลือมหาวิทยาลัยอีกทางหนึ่งด้วย ที่ภูมิใจอีกงานหนึ่งก็คือ ส่วนตัวแล้วเป็นคนที่ไม่ค่อยคิดว่าทำอะไรไปแล้ว คือทำเพื่อตำแหน่ง แต่อันนี้คือผลพลอยได้ คือครั้งแรกที่ทำก็ตั้งใจแค่ว่าจะทำอย่างไรให้คณะมีชื่อเสียงขึ้นมา ตอนนั้นคณะดีก็มอบหมายงานมา คือตอนนั้นมหาวิทยาลัยมีฉลองครบรอบ 30 ปี แล้วคณะบริหารก็ก่อตั้งมาพร้อมมหาวิทยาลัย ดังนั้นอายุก็เท่ากัน เราก็จัดบรรยายพิเศษ จัดนิทรรศการ จัดเมื่อปี 2543 มีการประกวดตราคณะ คณะก็จะมี Logo ใช้สำหรับทำกิจกรรม มันก็จะเป็น brand ของคณะขึ้นมา มงานฉลองครบรอบ 32 ปีนี้ ก็ริเริ่มทำโครงการนี้ให้มันเผยแพร่ชื่อเสียงให้มากขึ้นอีกในแง่ของวิชาการ แล้วก็ความสัมพันธ์อันดีของศิษย์เก่า ศิษย์ปัจจุบันและอาจารย์ ก็มีการจัดกิจกรรมเพื่อหารายได้เข้ากองทุนด้วย กับบางอย่างที่ไม่จำเป็นต้องให้เกิดรายได้มา 6-7 กิจกรรม งาน 32 ปี ก็โดยความร่วมมือของภาควิชาแต่ก็กว่าจะผ่านไปได้ก็เหนื่อยเหมือนกัน

กิจกรรมในวันงานครบรอบ 32 ปี ก็จะมี 1. ทำบุญเพื่อเป็นศิริมงคลกับคณะ 2. มีการแข่งขันตอบปัญหาวิชาการทางธุรกิจ มีการประกวดเพลงประจำคณะ แล้วก็จัดนิทรรศการ เป็นการเผยแพร่ชื่อเสียงของคณะ ในเรื่องของอนาคตคณะบริหารธุรกิจกับการบริหารธุรกิจไทยในวันนี้ อันนี้มอบหมายให้ภาควิชาทำ อันนี้คือ 4 งานที่ไม่ทำให้เกิดรายได้คือชิงบประมาณของมหาวิทยาลัยที่มาสนับสนุน ส่วนอีก 2 กิจกรรมคือจัดสัมมนาเชิงปฏิบัติการทาง HR ผู้ร่วมสัมมนาเป็นบุคคลภายนอกทั้งหมดจะเก็บค่าลงทะเบียน แล้วหักรายจ่ายทั้งหมดไป ที่เหลือก็จะให้มหาวิทยาลัย 30% อันนี้เป็นเงื่อนไขว่าต้องให้ในส่วนของสถานที่ บุคลากรสนับสนุน ที่เหลือก็เข้ากองทุน กับอีกงานหนึ่งก็คืองานบริหารธุรกิจสังสรรค์ ที่จัดเพื่อให้ศิษย์เก่า ศิษย์ปัจจุบันและอาจารย์ได้พบเจอกัน ก็ขายบัตรเป็นโต๊ะจีน ก็ได้รายได้มาพอสมควร ก็จะริเริ่มทำที่มันเป็น tradition ว่าคณะมีอายุมา 32 ปี เราก็ควรจะทำอะไรที่มันประชาสัมพันธ์เผยแพร่ชื่อเสียงแต่ก็ได้รับความร่วมมือกับทุกคน

Q23: ทำไมถึงทำ ถ้าพูดถึงเรื่องงานวารสาร

A: คือคนที่ทำคืออาจารย์ทั้งหมด กลุ่มเป้าหมายก็คือตัวอาจารย์ได้พัฒนาในเรื่องของการเขียน มีเวทีในเรื่องของการแสดงความคิด คือจริงๆ เราควรจะพัฒนาว่า จากที่ไปเสาะหาจากที่อื่นแล้วก็มาเรียบเรียง ก็ควรพัฒนาเป็นว่าฝึกที่จะเขียนเป็นวารสาร แต่ได้รับผิดชอบไปได้ปีเดียวแล้วก็เปลี่ยนกองบรรณาธิการ ตัวเองก็จะมีหน้าที่ส่งบทความตัวเองเข้าไป อันนี้ก็อยากให้มีทีมของอาจารย์มากกว่า นักศึกษาเขาจะได้ภูมิใจว่าอาจารย์ในคณะมีความรู้ความสามารถ เพราะว่าการเรียนมันก็ขึ้นอยู่กับความศรัทธาด้วยเหมือนกันระหว่างครูกับนักศึกษา

Q24: งานบริหารธุรกิจเพื่อสังคมล่ะครับ

A: ก็เป้าหมายคือนักศึกษา การเป็นคนเก่งอย่างเดียวไม่พอ คือต้องเป็นคนดีด้วย การที่รู้จักเสียสละไม่หวังสิ่งตอบแทน แล้วมันก็ใช้แรงกายอย่างเดียวกับสมองที่จะคิดเรื่องของกิจกรรมที่จะมาหารายได้ ได้มนุษยสัมพันธ์กับคนอื่นด้วย ต้องการจะฝึกให้นักศึกษาทำงานเป็นทีมและเสียสละ

Q25: แล้วงานครบรอบ 32 ปีล่ะครับ

A: ใครๆ ก็รู้ว่าคณะบริหารธุรกิจเป็นคณะที่ใหญ่ที่สุดในมหาวิทยาลัย รองลงมาก็คือคณะวิศวกรรมศาสตร์ แต่ว่าในส่วนของบุคคลภายนอก ภาพลักษณ์ของคนทั่วไป ที่มันก็จะมามีผลกับความเข้มแข็งของมหาวิทยาลัย ความเข้มแข็งของบัณฑิตที่จบไป ถ้าเราอยู่เฉยๆ ก็มีคนรู้จักเหมือนกัน แต่ดีที่เราอยู่เฉยๆ แล้วไม่ได้ทำอะไรขึ้นมา มันก็ต้องมีกิจกรรมเพื่อประชาสัมพันธ์ว่าคณะเป็นอย่างไร มหาวิทยาลัยเป็นอย่างไร คนอื่นเขาจะได้รู้จัก

Q26: ในความรู้สึกสักๆ ของอาจารย์ ถ้าไม่ทำกิจกรรมเหล่านั้นจะรู้สึกอย่างไรครับ

A: บางทีเวลาทำงานไป เวลาประสบปัญหา ก็จะคิดว่าความจริงไม่ต้องทำก็ได้ อยู่เฉยๆ แต่พอทำไปก็อดไม่ได้ ถ้ามีอะไรให้ทำมันก็ต้องดีกว่า แต่มันก็อดไม่ได้ ในเรื่องของคณะอาจจะถอยแต่ในเรื่องของการเรียนการสอน ในเมื่อคุณต้องมีกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตรให้กับนักศึกษา คือต้องทำกิจกรรมบรรยาย ศึกษาดูงานหรือให้เด็กจัดนิทรรศการ คือต้องมี แต่ในส่วนที่จะไปมีส่วนร่วมกับคณะก็อาจจะน้อยลง แต่ก็ไม่น่า พอได้ตำแหน่งใหม่ก็ไม่รู้ ไม่ทำก็ได้ คือจริงๆ สักๆ เราอยากจะทำไปเป็นอาจารย์ประจำ เพราะอย่างน้อย 1. ตัวเองก็ทำหน้าที่ผลิตบัณฑิตให้มันดีๆ ก็พอแล้วกับอะไรที่คณะขอความร่วมมือเราก็เข้าไปมีส่วนร่วม แล้วเราจะต้องมาทุ่มเทในการทำงานวิจัยอะไรพวกนี้ เพราะของพวกนี้มันต้องใช้เวลามาก มันต้องมีเวลา เวลาเรามีเท่ากัน แล้วงานเรามีหลายชิ้นแล้ว ทำแล้วก็ต้องทำให้มีคุณภาพด้วย เป็นคนที่ชอบทำอะไรแล้ว อยากให้มันออกมาดีที่สุดแล้วเราเองก็เหมือนกัน เราก็อยากจะเปลี่ยนไปเรื่อยๆ ถึงแม้กิจกรรมเดิมแต่พอเปลี่ยนกลุ่มนักศึกษา มันก็ต้องเปลี่ยนอีก เพราะคนที่ได้รับมอบหมายไม่เหมือนกัน ในขณะเดียวกันมันก็ต้องมีความคิดอะไรใหม่ๆ ขึ้นมาเรื่อยๆ วิธีการที่ดีขึ้น

Q27: อาจารย์ต้องการให้ข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมอีกไหมครับ

A: ไม่ค่ะ

Q28: ผมอยากจะเปลี่ยนแนวคำถาม ในฐานะที่อาจารย์เป็นหัวหน้างานที่มีลูกภาคจะต้องดูแล 3 ท่านด้วยกัน คืออาจารย์ 5 อาจารย์ 9 และอาจารย์ 12 ในบทบาทของการเป็นอาจารย์ อาจารย์ ทั้ง 3 มีบทบาทอะไรบ้างที่ต้องทำในงานของเขา

A: ในบทบาทหน้าที่เป็นลูกภาค คือต้องเป็นอาจารย์ประจำ คิดว่าทุกสาขาก็คงเหมือนกัน ก็ต้องดูแลเรื่องของการสอน เตรียมสอน เป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา รวมทั้งคุณอาจจะเป็นผู้ที่ให้คำปรึกษาชมรม ผู้ทำวิจัย แต่งตำราได้ ก็เป็นหน้าที่ที่อาจารย์ประจำควรต้องทำให้มีประสิทธิภาพ และประสิทธิผล แต่ถ้าในฐานะของภาควิชาการจัดการทรัพยากรมนุษย์ เคยมีการคุยกันว่าเราต้องจำลองโครงสร้างเหมือนของคณะหรือมหาวิทยาลัย เช่น เป็นอาจารย์ทางฝ่ายวิชาการ ฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา ฝ่ายประชาสัมพันธ์ แต่มันไม่ work มันก็เลยมีงานเดียวที่ทุกคนจะต้องทำคือ เลขานุการภาค ในเรื่องของการจัดประชุม แล้วก็ทำรายงานการประชุมเพื่อเสนอคณะคิดว่าในภาคได้มีการสื่อสาร พูดคุยในเรื่องแจ้งเพื่อทราบอะไรที่คณะได้มอบหมายมา ควรจะต้องมีการแจ้งให้อาจารย์ในภาคทราบอะไรบ้าง อันนี้ก็คือแบ่งหน้าที่กันไป พอดีมีอาจารย์ 3 ท่านก็เลยหมุนกันคนละ 4 เดือน เพื่อทำ

Q29: โดยรวมๆ ก็คือเหมือนกัน อาจารย์คิดว่าอาจารย์ 5 มีพฤติกรรมการทำงานอะไรที่นอกเหนือหน้าที่บ้างครับ

A: นอกเหนือจากหน้าที่ประจำ ยังเป็นคณะอนุกรรมการฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษาของคณะ ซึ่งมีความสนใจในเรื่องของกีฬา ก็ส่วนใหญ่ก็จะรับผิดชอบเกี่ยวกับเรื่องงานกีฬา ระหว่างสาขา ระหว่างคณะ อาจารย์กมลและอาจารย์ดารา เป็นคณะกรรมการฝ่ายสวัสดิการของบุคลากรของมหาวิทยาลัย นี่คือสิ่งที่อาจารย์ได้รับมอบหมายนอกเหนือจากอาจารย์ประจำ

Q30: ทำไมเขาถึงเข้าไปทำงานตรงจุดนั้น

A: ในส่วนของคณะอนุกรรมการฝ่ายกิจการนักศึกษา คืออาจารย์ทุกท่านต้องทำแต่จะอยู่คนละส่วนแต่อาจารย์กมลชอบด้านกีฬา ก็จะได้รับมอบหมายให้เหมาะสมกับงาน

Q31: ส่วนของอาจารย์ 9

A: มีงานที่เป็นที่ปรึกษาชมรมคอรัส ซึ่งก็เป็นพันธกิจของอาจารย์ประจำ แต่ก็ไม่ใช่อาจารย์ทุกคนได้เป็น เพราะว่าสัดส่วนชมรมกับอาจารย์มันไม่สอดคล้องกัน

Q32: อาจารย์ 12

A: อาจารย์เพิ่งย้ายกลับเข้ามาเป็นอาจารย์ในภาคการศึกษานี้ ในส่วนที่นอกเหนือจากงานอาจารย์ประจำก็มีแค่เป็นคณะอนุกรรมการการประกันคุณภาพของคณะ แต่ก็ยังเป็นพันธกิจเหมือนกันที่ทุกคนต้องทำที่นอกเหนือมาจากตรงส่วนนี้ ในส่วนของทางมหาวิทยาลัยก็คงไม่ได้รับมอบหมายงานอะไร

34th participant (Head of HRM1)

Q1: How old are you?

A: 34 years old

Q2: How many years have you been employed by the university?

A: 6 years

Q3: What is your highest academic qualification?

A: Master degree in Public Administration (MPA)

Q4: What is your job title in the university?

A: Head of Human Resources Management Department

Q5: What are your responsibilities within the university?

A: Although I am the head of HRM Department, I also have the responsibility in teaching. In the role of head of department, I must well organise for timetables in the department, accept the exam papers, pass the exam papers to the committee. Backward and forward communication always play as the core role in my position as I have the responsibility to manage the jobs from the department to the lecturers and if the lecturers have any problem, they will come to me. If you are the lecturer, you will have the responsibility only teaching the subjects, being the advisor of the students and arranging some projects for faculty.

- What kind of activities have you got from the faculty?

Invigilate the exam and the activities of faculty, for example, induction, farewell induction.

- Have you got to do anything else?

Doing the teaching plan for each lecturer and have the responsibility in supporting subjects' activities.

- Do they obviously appear to be your job requirement?

Job description did not mention about that but the teaching load. However, the budget of supporting subjects' activities is mentioned in the policy of university. Thus, policy of university is composed to the policy of faculty.

- Have you got the requirement to do any academic work?

It is also policy of the university to do the research or position in academic. The university has the budget for those activities. For my personal part, I am creating textbook.

- You mean the university doesn't compel you to work on it.

Yes. In the part of faculty, Dean of the Faculty tries to stimulate the lecturers who teach for a long time to have the academic results.

- Do you have other responsibilities that delegated by the university such as internal and external counselling?

Yes. I can say that it is one of my job descriptions which is the advisor of clubs. The procedure of university is that one club needs to have two advisors. As the result, the proportion of lecturers and clubs are not consistent with the procedure. Thus, it depends on the lecturer who would like to take this responsibility. For me, I am one of the committee of Sripatum University Foundation.

Q6: How do you know what are your responsibilities?

A: From the job description of university and from my own experiences, for examples, we must have the meeting of the faculty one a month as same as the meeting between head of faculty, committee of faculty, lecturers and staff. Therefore, I will know from my job that what I have to do. As the result, I know that in one year I have to do the timetables for 3 semesters, accept the exam papers from lecturers and pass them to committee, bring the exam results from committee to the external committee. Further, I also notice that every 5 years, we have to improve the curriculum. That's my main responsibility.

Q7: Do you think, what you have done cover entire of your requirement?

A: I don't think I can't fulfil all of my responsibility at this moment. What I still do not complete are that creating textbook, do research, and the advisor of clubs.

- Can I summarise from above, you know your responsibilities from job description and your own experiences. Do you have any other sources?

My superior who is the Assistant Dean for academic Affairs and Assistant Dean of Student Affairs also provide the tasks direct to me. If I have any questions, I will ask my superior. I also can discuss the responded task with my colleagues in the faculty.

other Head of Department, because the task may differ in practical but the same in theory. The means responsibilities are the same so we can cooperate.

Q8: As the member of the university, could you tell me who are the key people?

A: My duties are lecturer, Head of HRM Department, Committee of Faculty by position of Head of Department. Therefore, the important person in my opinion are my superiors - Dean of Faculty, 2 Assistant Dean of Faculty – students, organisations that support the faculty or university. Further, the person that we have to cooperate with is also important to us, e.g. staffs from various departments (building, information, sound lab).

Q9: Which of those people have a greater influence on your work?

A: Dean, 2 Assistant Dean, students and Director of General Affairs Office.

Q10: Who is the most important person to you?

A: Students

Q11: Are there any persons / organisations who monitor your performance?

A: Yes, we have both internal and external control. There are 3 components for internal control, the Quality Assurance Office, Academic Affairs Office and Students. The Quality Assurance Office goes through the standard of lecturers, in areas of teaching and teaching plans. Academic Affairs Office takes care those teaching schedule, class cancellation and class making up, while students would mainly perform the teaching appraisal.

In addition to the Quality Assurance (QA) by Ministry of University Affairs (MUA), we are automatically controlled by ISO system too. The reason that we have to use ISO is the incomplete QA by MUA.

Q12: What do these key people expect from you?

A: I think all of them. Both of university or my superior must have the same policy to expect that the lecturers which is included the head of department who are the lecturers have to educate the students to have the specialise in those area and can use all the knowledge to gain their own opportunity in careers. Further, the duty of Head is that I have to manage the timetables to match with time requirement on teaching and improve the teaching strategies of each lecturer to meet with the standard. In the part of committee, I have to inspect of budget using for the most efficiency and effectively for

the following activities: producing philosophers, creating textbooks and researching provide the general academic to the social and support the art and cultures.

I tried to describe duty of Head of Department that is included in my job description that (1) I have the responsibility to be one of committee by the position of head of department; (2) I have to be the lecturer in addition to head of department, however, the teaching time may less than general lecturers. Thus, the persons in the university will expect from my 3 roles responsibility (head of department, committee, and lecturer).

Most of the students are not understand the different duties between Head of Department and general lecturers. What they know are that if they would like to transfer from the one department to our department, they must contact Head of Department. I must have ability to explain to them about the rules and policy of university. For the part of lecturer, they always expect to gain quality knowledge and activities that will support their future career.

Q13: Do you think it was reasonable on their expectation?

A: In my opinion, being the lecturer is no flame because the duties must change according to the situation and environment, e.g. need of the parents and students have change as they have the better view, which is reasonable. In practical, I must do the researching and creating the text as well as provide teaching qualifies to the students in order to meet their needed.

Q14: What do you, in turn, expect of your key people?

A: I would like Dean and his two Assistants have the policies and views that can improve and guide our faculty. I also expected that they can advise and supports in some cases as well as be the good leaders. In part of students, I would like them working hard, get the good grades and be a good person for the society. For other support departments, we expected them to support our faculty's activities.

In terms of Academic Affairs Office, Vice President for Academic Affairs will organise the policies and procedures, e.g. teaching, registration, etc. She also controls the policies to be practical.

The administrators are good in terms of supporting the instructors and corporate.

Q15: Can I ask you what you do on typical day?

A: Mainly I do the job of lecturer, which is checking homework. For head of department's duty, I have to organise the next semester's timetables, provide the part-time lecturers, meeting (I have the meeting with lecturers, committee and other head of department every Thursday). I also have to contact the external organisation in order to support the academic activities, e.g. invited external academic standing, Information, etc. I always have some things to do over the day. Yes, I do teaching and prepare for the next classes.

Q16: What did you do mainly on last Wednesday?

A: The part-time lecturers submitted the exam paper so I have to discuss with them whether the exam papers are related to the course curriculum or not. We have to insure that the exam papers must related to what the lecturers taught in the classes. We also discuss about format of the exam papers. Then I had class at 14.50 pm. However, I did arrange exhibition regarding the support activity on 10 and 17 October 2002.

Q17: Have you met your key people on that day?

A: I met Dean at my office. I also follow up about the invitation card for Dean and Assistant Dean of student affairs on 13 November 2002 with department's staff. I also have to join rehearse of congregation on Saturday and on 4th-5th for the congregation day. Moreover, I have class on the same day.

Q18: Do you think what you did on last Wednesday:

18.1 Which of the expectations did you intend to meet?

I felt comfortable that my appointment with part-time lecturer to submit the exam paper is completed as we still have time before dead line (Monday 4) to adjust or approve the exam paper. We will have the exhibition on 13 of this month so I have to support the students for the project.

18.2 Which of the expectations did you perhaps don't meet?

I plan to post the time schedule of next semester's registration and teaching plan but every thing are not ready. Further, the university will sell the handbook of registration of next semester tomorrow.

18.3 Which of the expectations did you exceed?

Mostly, I can do what I plan to do. However, I think I do the exhibition more than initial plan, as I have to help the students arrange the exhibition in order to complete it on time.

Q19: On last Wednesday, would you say that you would do anything beyond the normal of your key people expectation?

A: From my point of view, I don't like to teach as theory but activities. For example, I arrange 3 groups of student to manage their own boards and do the competition. However, it's hard for them to create and it make me strain as we have to think what shall I do to make 3 different concepts to be united. I don't like to compare with other lecturers as each person has one style. However, if someone does something good, we use as our lessons but if it bad we can ignore it. For my style, I like the students to work as teams. And it depends on the assignment. I myself like to assign some thing different than other lecturers. I always emphasise in teamwork. In my opinion, learning is not competing with other persons but yourself. Further, you must know how to work as team and improve your creation.

Q20: What inspire you to exceed it?

A: I just think that the students are important, as they will be the future of our country. As the result, I would like them to work hard so that they can gain some experience for their future career. I like to arrange the support academic activities, e.g. invite the external to do the speech. This time we can invite Privy Councilor to the university so we must have well prepare.

Q21: Can you give me for examples when you think you do something beyond what the requirement?

A: I've been working for this university for 6 years. The first year that I joined this organisation, Dean asked me to do the faculty newsletter. I have to corporate with lecturers from 6 departments. It's good experience and much appreciate for me to have chance did this project. It's not a surprise if I tell you that we also have the problem with other lecturers but we can get through those problems together. I did it for whole year. Another project is that Business Administration for Society. This project I have to coordinate with the students and work for the public foundation. Up to now, this project is 4 years long.

Q22: How you did it?

A: We planned to sell second hand products during the economic crisis. We asked for the donation of goods that still OK to sell them to students, lecturers, and staff. We organise a car boot every year and we donate the income to charity. This year we got more than 20,000 baht, we plan to give as the scholarship of our students on first orientation day. We divided the scholarship to 3,000 baht each. Another project that I am proud is that I have chance to arrange the exhibition and speech for 30 years birthday of university and our faculty. The exhibition holds on year 2000. We also have the competition of logo of the faculty. This year we will have the celebration for 32 years birthday. I try to make the faculty to be well known in academic aspect. Further, we would like to create the good relationship between alumnus, students, and lecturers. We also have the activities to raise funds for donation. We create about 6-7 activities for this 32nd anniversary. The activities on 32 years birthday of university and faculty are (1) Merit as the believe of religious; (2) Academic questions contest; (3) Music of faculty contest; (4) Exhibition. These four activities are supported by the university budget. For other 2 activities will provide some money for foundation. Those two activities are Human Resource Seminar and Business Administration Party. The money will come from the registration of Seminar from external persons. After deduct all the expenses, 30% will give to the university for operation cost and the rest will give to foundation. For the Business Administration Party, we will sell the tickets. I will try to build it up as faculty's tradition as well as create a good relationship between alumnus, students, and lecturers.

- What are you appointed to do?

I did the procedure, take the responsibility of the projects and be coordinator with another lecturers.

Q23: Back to the earlier, why did you do the faculty newsletter?

A: The people who do it are lecturers. The objective is that the lecturers can improve their writing ability. I did it only one year then change the editor. I am now just sending the article. In my opinion, the editor's team should be lecturers as the student can be proud of their lecturer.

Q24: And how about the Business Administration for Society?

A: The target group is the students. I would like our students not only smart but good as well. For them, joining the activities will make them develop interpersonal skill, creativities and working as team.

Q25: And how about the 32nd University Anniversary?

A: Known by public that Faculty of Business Administration is the biggest faculty in this university and second one is Faculty of Engineering. However, we still need to have Public Relation to create the well known of the university. If we do nothing, public may know that and us less will affect with our reputation as well as the students who graduate from our university. As the result, the activities for Public Relation are needed.

Q26: How do you feel if you have not done those activities?

A: Sometime when I have the barrier, it made me feel discourage and though that it did not need to be done. However, I always think that doing something is better than doing nothing. Further, I must create some academic activities to support the subjects. As the result, it might make me have less time for the faculty's activities. Anyway, it also depend on you position's duty. If I have promoted, I must do the best in my duty.

Sincerely, I would like to be only the lecturer because I would like to produce the best gradulators and do what the faculty asks me to support. As the result, I will have more time for my research, as the researches are time consume. At this moment, I have many duties that limited by time and quality standard. When I do something, I like to get good results. Furthermore, I like the challenge doing new things. At the same time, we should have creativity and better methods to support the students.

Q27: Would you like to add anything else?

A: No.

Q28: On your manager role of 5th, 9th and 12th respondent, could you tell me about their responsibility?

A: Their duty is to be full-time lecturers. The duties should be the same as every faculty which are, teaching, prepare the for next classes, advisor, advisor of clubs, researching, creating textbook- those are the duties that full-time lecturers must do with effectively and efficiency. We used to have the meeting regarding the procedure of HRM Department. We have an idea to manage the faculty as the university that is we will divided to difference section, such as academic section, activities section, public relation

section, etc. but it does not work with department. Finally, it has only one duty that lecturers must do which is secretary of department. Three lecturers help in this duty by 4 months rotate.

Q29: Can you tell me about anything that you know about 5th respondent that suggest he's done beyond the expectation of his role?

A: Accept from the normal duties, he is one of faculty's sub-committee for student affairs which mostly interesting in sport. Further, he and 9th respondent take care of university's welfare.

Q30: Why he was appointed to do that work?

A: All lecturers have to be the faculty sub-committee for student affairs; however, we try to assign the right job to the right person - for example, 5th respondent is interested in sport, he was assigned to take care of sport.

Q31: In the role of 9th respondent, could you tell me about anything that you know about 9th respondent that suggest she's done beyond the expectation of her role?

A: She is the advisor of chorus club, which is included in her job description. However, not every lecturer can be the advisor of club as the proportion in not match.

Q32: Again, could you tell me about anything that you know about 12th respondent that suggest she's done beyond the expectation of her role?

A: This is her first semester of full-time lecturers. As the result, except from her normal duty, the additional duty for her is faculty's sub-committee for quality assurance, which is included in her job description. She still does not have other duty from the university at this time.