CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

Buddhist monastery is the place for living, training and studying the Doctrine and the Discipline of monks and novices, and it is the main resource to transmit the morals, cultures and traditions of community from one generation to another (Wilai Wityanarathapaisal, 1995). The management of an educational system in the Buddhist monastery is the main way to develop the Buddhist monastery to be the community center. As the Buddhist monastery is a main institution of Thai society, it is a resource, which can serve all people in seeking and advancing knowledge and it is also a place for refuge to be the community center and to be the resource that can serve all kinds of academic matters for the community. Finally, it could be preserved to help in transmitting the culture and moralities for the community (Kamol Rodclai, 1996). Khammai Dhammasami (2004) presents in this point that “not only would that help individual members, it would also bring esteem to monastic education from those who were in contact with those individuals. Not only would these individuals become better citizens, but the Order could also count on them to spread, through the society in which they lived, the knowledge of the Dharma and Vinaya they had acquired as monks.”
Similarly, Watsan (1980) has noted that “Education in Thailand was in the hands of the Sangha. Wherever the monks settled and established monasteries, they also established schools. The monastery not only taught Buddhist scriptures but also secular subjects such as traditional medicine, law, language, fine art, astrology, construction, and the art of self-defense. Religious instruction as well as secular ones was given solely by the monks. The popular primary education was the sending of young boys to the monasteries to learn elementary dharma, reading, writing, and arithmetic.”

The Buddhist monasteries were centers of learning and transmission of religious and cultural values. They are not only producing the educated specialists who served the country at large but also provided the secular knowledge for monks or novices who spend their life as monk-hood for a period before disrobing. This kind of service of the monasteries is a benefit for them and the country as they are able to put to good use of those knowledge. Chamnong Tongprasert (1990) has given an opinion about the importance of the Thai monastery to people that “Wat” or the temples were the centres of Thai education. These were no lay school at all. When Thai men were young, they served as temple boys in the monasteries and were given instruction in reading, writing and simple arithmetic as well as in religion and morals, through traditional ordination which is still being observed today.”
1.1.1 THE ECCLESIASTICAL EDUCATION

The Ecclesiastical Education, in the present days, has various systems. It can be divided according to the authority which are responsible of those systems as follow (Samret Uddaeng, 1994):

1. Ecclesiastical Education which is a particular responsibility and running by Sangha (Buddhist Holy Order). They are not depending on the bureaucratic system i.e.

1.1 Ecclesiastical education, Dharma and Dharmasuksa Division called “Phrapariyattithamsuksa Phanaek Dharma and Dharmasuksa”. There are three levels: Naktham Chan Tri (Beginning level), Naktham Chan Tho (Intermediate level), and Naktham Chan Ek (Advanced level).

This system, mainly, studies about the Dharma – Vinaya which can be divided into many subjects viz. the history of the Buddha, Dharma (the Buddha’s teaching), Vinaya (the disciplines for monks and novices). Including Riengkwamkratootham (Composing essay which is the way for preaching) etc. (Chamlueng Wutthijun, 1983).

1.2 Ecclesiastical education, Pali Division called “Phrapariyattithamsuksa Phanaek Balee”. There are nine levels: Prayok 1 – 2 through Prayok 9 (Samret Uddaeng, Ibid).

For this system, students study Pali language which is the language used in the Buddhist Scripture called “Tripitaka” (the ultimate scripture of Buddhism).
It is the nine-level examination system with Annual examination, based on the fact that the Teachings of the Buddha in the Tipitaka are of nine different types. It can be divided into many subjects as follows: Vaiyakorn (Grammar), Translation Pali language into Thai language, Translation Thai language into Pali language, including, composing poetry in both Thai and Pali languages (Chamlueng Wutthijun, Ibid).

2. The Ecclesiastical Education that affiliates the bureaucratic system can be divided into two types (Samret Uddaeng, Ibid) as follows:

2.1 The education that the Buddhist Ecclesiastic provides for monks and novices, it must conformer to bureaucratic system (Secular education). They are running by the Buddhist organisation or personnel i.e.

2.1.1 The education that accepted to be Buddhist Ecclesiastical Education. There are two monk’s universities: The Mahachulalongkorn Rajavidyalaya University and Mahamakut Buddhist University.

2.1.2 The education that the government carries on monks and novices’ need: the Ecclesiastical - General Education System. There are six levels as usual called “Matthayomsuksa 1 – 6” (Grade 7 – 12).

2.2 The education that is running by bureaucratic system (Secular education). Those organisation or personnel provide for monks and novices by asking for permission from the government (bureaucracy): Adult Education for monks and novices, and some open university.
3. The education that is independent from neither the Ecclesiastical Education nor from the government (Bureaucracy): Jittabhavanvidyalaya, and Abhidhamma Study etc.

THE ECCLESIASTICAL-GENERAL EDUCATION

The Ecclesiastical-General Education System provides the education for monks and novices who want to study in general subjects (Secular subjects). It is the parallel of the government schools; it providing secondary education, grades 7 – 12. The students have to study a substance which have divided into 8 subject groups such as: 1)Thai language; 2) Mathematics; 3) Science; 4) Social study, religion and culture; 5) Health and physical education; 6) Art; 7) Career and technology; and 8) Foreign language. They also have to study in Dharma – Vinaya (History of the Buddha, His teaching and Order discipline) and Pali language as the optional subjects which is compulsory in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System.

The Ecclesiastical-General Education System is one of the important educational systems of Thai monastic order. This system is the one that the government carries on monks’ need. It was started in 1971 by the Member of Parliament and the Department of Religious Affair. Their agreement was to start performing the school for monks and novices for the sake of providing opportunity to study in the same programme performed by Ministry of Education in both lower secondary school and upper secondary school levels. The subjects in such a
programme depend on the status of monk and novice students as the above
description. There, however, will not be any conflict with the Doctrines and the
Disciplines which are necessary for Buddhism. This is a programme which can be
studied in both the Ecclesiastical and General system (Kamol Rodklai, 1989).

In the earlier, of its enforcement this Act (20 July, 1971), there were 51
Buddhist monasteries across country asked for registration to running this kind of
school (Kitti Theerasan, 1996). This system is spread across the country,
nowadays, there are 400 schools, 4,000 teachers and 52,536 students (The Office
of National Buddhism, 2005).

The aim of the Ecclesiastical - General Education System is to help or
support both the society and the religious community that is the religious side,
monks and novices who will become a good religious heir and could preserve,
protect and develop the Buddhism as long as they can. In other words, if they
decide to leave the monk-hood, they can continue their education at a higher level
and work as a government official and can give more benefits for the society and
themselves (Kitti Theerasan, 1996). By this way it could be achieved as the aims
of the Religious Education Section which is held for responding to the monks and
novices need in seeking to study. Though, they become laymen, they are still the
good citizens of the Nation (Religious Education Section, 1984).

Although, there are many benefits from this educational system which
students can pursue for it but they still face some other problems e.g., the
administrative and management problems, lack of the union group and plan of work and lack of financial support from the government (Choey Bodhisita, 1989). Similarly, the findings of Sujit Hemwal (1993) revealed that they had problems in all the areas of curriculum administration. The school administration at each level lack knowledge and understanding of the educational administration. The teachers are inefficient in working and they lack experience in teaching and providing the instrument for learning and lack knowledge of the evaluation and measurement. The management of the administrative side and financial side are too late in working. Moreover, the information system isn’t working properly including preserving and destroying the documents. The government orders are not observed by the officials and are less implemented. The financial supports are not sufficient to the working plans of schools (Department of Religious Affair, 1996).

In fact, the Ecclesiastical-General Education could be developed in the right way, as the order of Ministry of Education of Thailand (the Order on the Ecclesiastical-General Education System No.14) declared that the Department of Religious Affair* will share the financial supports as the committee meeting of Education of the Ecclesiastical-General Education had declared.

* The Department of Religious Affair was responsible for the Ecclesiastical-General Education System, at that time.
The Office of National Buddhism (ONAB)

The Office of National Buddhism has authority for responding to the Buddhist monk affairs and government, by maintaining, supporting, protecting, upholding and developing Buddhist affairs, looking after, administer Buddhism Property, developing Buddhamonthon to be a Buddhist centre as well as supporting for religious personnel development.

According to the Act having implications on Sections 45 of the Department Improvement Act B.E. 2545 (2002) and section 159 of the Royal Decree for transferring the Authority of bureaucracy B.E. 2545 (2002). It fixes to transfer some authority of the Religion Affairs to the Office of National Buddhism (ONAB). The ONAB consist of 6 sections i.e.

1. General Division,
2. Buddhism Education Division,
3. Buddhist Monastery Division,
4. Buddhamonthon Buddhist Centre Office,
5. Ecclesiastical Property Office, and
6. The Secretariat of the Sangha Supreme Council.

Buddhism Education Division

The Buddhism Education Division is concerned with the Ecclesiastical-General Education System as unit of control, supervision, and supporting the system and the Buddhist monk affairs as follows:
1. To coordinate, to control, to supervise, to administer for Buddhism education; to administrate for the Ecclesiastical-General Education System and to respond for the ecclesiastical education, the education aids, and others which concern with Buddhism education.

2. To provide religious teaching-learning aids, to analyse Buddhism academic which can be a systematic resource and reference.

3. To support for personnel development in all levels as well as to supervise, monitor, and to evaluate the education in all levels, and

4. To share or support other units which concerned or assign.

**Qualification of the Manager and Principal**

According to the Office of National Buddhism’s Regulation on the Ecclesiastical-General Education System, has been specified qualification of the manager, principal, and deputy principal of its system as follows.

**The Manager and Principal**

- Has been a monk more than 5 years.

- Got certificate in Pali section at least the 3rd level (Prapreantham 3 Prayok) or B.A. from MCU, MBU or B.Ed. or others in the same level but he must be a teaching professional.

- His age must be not exceeding 60 years.

\*1 Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University. (The Buddhist monk university for Mahanikaya Sect).
\*2 Mahamakut Buddhist University. (The Buddhist monk university for Dhammayuttikanikaya Sect).
The Deputy Principal

- Got certificate in Pali section at least the 3rd level (Prapreantham 3 Prayok) or B.A. from the two Buddhist monk Universities or B.Ed. or others in the same level but he must be a teaching professional.
- Can be either monk or layman.
- His age is between 21 – 60.

The Ecclesiastical - General Education is the educational system which commit implement to the government’s education policy by providing the education for people, especially boys, in both subject area and religious subjects (Dharma – Vinaya) and western secular subjects in its curriculum. It is administered by the temples which are ready to run these schools. As the Ministry of Education (2004) noted that it serves the public as a “source of semi-public education…, mostly male, received any formal education.” They are increasing rapidly, but unfortunately, in many schools there has been a lack of many factors which are important for running a school. If they do not get the implementation of these factors they may affect both the teachers and the school climate.

1.1.2 INSTITUTIONAL CLIMATE

The issue of school climate is not a new phenomenon but it has been a topic of interest internationally for more than a century. It not only plays a major role in the effectiveness of a school but school climate also has an influence on job satisfaction and teacher competence too. If the teachers in the Ecclesiastical -
General Education work under the negative climate situation and the schools are still running in this situation how can teachers deal with their work properly. According to Hoy et al (1996) have defined in their study that organisational climate was conceived as the “personality” of the school, that is climate is to organisation, as personality is to organisation. Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp (1991) state that school climate is the relatively enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants, affects their behaviour and it is based on their collective perception of behaviour in school.

A school is an organisation, which is regarded as a centre of changing where composed of many members working together in managing and providing education to students (Uthai Hiranto, 1990, and Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001). Moos (1979) defines that school climate as the social atmosphere of a setting or ‘learning environment’ in which students have different experiences, depending upon the protocols set up by the teachers and administrators. He divides social environments into three categories relationship, which includes involvement, affiliation with others in the classroom, and teacher support personal growth or goal orientation, which includes the personal development and self enhancement of all members of the environment system maintenance and system change, which includes the orderliness of the environment, the clarity of the rules, and the strictness of the teacher in enforcing the rules. Or we can say that there are three learning environments, namely, the physical environment; the psycho-social
environment; the learning environment (Procter et al, 1995). Friberg (1999) refers to the importance of school climate that a healthy school climate contributes to effective teaching and learning. These instruments for assessing climate can help schools make informed and meaningful changes for the better. It is an ever-changing factor in the lives of people who work and learn in school. “Much like the air we breathe, school climate is ignored until it becomes foul.” School climate can be a positive influence on the health of the learning environment or a significant barrier to learning. Thus, feedback about school climate can play an important role in school reform and improvement efforts.

The educators have defined the meaning of school climate in different ways due to what they want to study or indicate in particular aspects. According to Homana (2005) school climate refers to the impressions, beliefs, and expectations held by members of the school community about their school as a learning environment, their associated behaviour, and the symbols and institutions that the patterned expressions of the behaviour. It includes the explicit mission and policies expected to create positive relationships, attitude of dispositions and perceptions. Similarly, Gornder and Hymers (1994) defined that the climate of the school refers to the atmosphere within a school and reflects the attitudes (such as trust, respect, and cohesiveness for example) that are shared by members of subgroups such as the learners, educators, principal and school population as a whole.
Halpin and Croft (1963) had given the definition of climate in the school organisation that it is the social interaction between the principal and the teachers in their duties. Their research examined teacher disengagement from the teaching-learning process, the extent to which the principal burdens teachers with routine duties and demands, teachers’ perceptions that their personal needs are being satisfied and they are accomplishing positive things in their work, teachers’ enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other, principals’ aloofness and reliance on rules and policies rather than informal contacts with teachers, closeness of supervision of teachers by the principal, teacher perceptions that the principal is working to move the organisation in positive directions, and teacher perceptions that the principal treats them humanely.

Ninan (2006) states that every school has its own character, and a distinct identity of its own. This is the sumtotal of all the values and norms and the adherence to it, which have been internalized by all or most of the people associated with a school, which form a part of everyone’s psyche. When people refer to the ‘traditions’ of a school, they are actually speaking about these deeply embedded characteristics of the school. This becomes the ‘school climate’.

A school cannot be set up everywhere and anywhere. We have now realised that all environments educate, and the character of school buildings and grounds can be important elements in the child’s education. The school buildings are instructional equipment and, as such, they must be planned to implement the
educational objectives and philosophy of the community. Words pictures and even photographs are a very inadequate means of conveying the real beauty, the inviting atmosphere, the spacious comfort, and the functional usefulness of a school plant (Sidhu, 2002).

School climate welcoming and conducive teachers to conduct their work properly because when they fill of good reaction with the others they would feel free for performing or asking any problems that they face that would help them to resolve those problems. In this way they can also promote their communication and interaction to each other. The interaction also is one of an important climate in the school because it encourages teachers to communicate actively, colleagues, participation and also it would prevent and resolve conflicts in their school.

School climate can be considered as a heart and soul of the Ecclesiastical - General Education; the essence of a school that leads a learner, an educator and other staff members to enjoy and look forward to be at school each day. Thus the climate in the ecclesiastical education also is one of the various factors which should be solved and created to a positive way. It is said that if there is a good climate in the school it would enhance teacher job satisfaction and their competence.

1.1.3 TEACHER COMPETENCE

It is said that the quality of education is directly linked with the teacher. Good teaching depends on a good teacher. It can be also argued that who is the
good teacher. In the field of education and involving teacher, the term “competence” is very important. Because the competence can be developed in action that involves skills and skills are acquired through actual physical doings. Acquiring teacher competence involves active transaction of knowledge but rather as a disposition and attitude that is constantly developing and that one wants to develop. A teacher can develop himself to be a competent teacher in his/her subject area and any other kind of interaction to the principal, superiors, colleagues and subordinates, both within school and outside. Competence in teaching is a necessity for awarding tenure to a teaching faculty.

Melton (1997) suggested that in developing competencies, it was hoped that individuals should not only develop competencies within specific contexts, but also should be able to transfer the competencies acquired to other contexts within the same occupational area.

Competence is a job requirement which demands the ability to perform a given occupational task effectively and efficiently (SCID, 1990). Competence is documented by presenting a coherent and informative description of one’s teaching practice, evidence of sustained involvement in the practice and improvement of teaching, and summary data on teaching accomplishment.

Bosch and Alston (2001) presented in the workshop, which focused on several aspects of teacher competence: Two key aspects of teacher competence are an ability to convey the information to the students and enthusiasm for both the
subject and learning. These aspects reflect the conclusion that both content knowledge and educational principles are important. Grouping the mentioned characteristics leads to the following: A competent teacher should know the material being taught and teach at the appropriate level; be enthusiastic about the material and learning; be effective in communication; be perceptive and responsive to student needs, interests, and obligation; be professional in all respects; be consistent in behaviour, judgment, and assessment.

Donald (1982) states that the teacher competence as “those of knowledge, abilities and beliefs a teaching processes and brings to the teaching situation. Teacher competency differs from teacher performance and teacher effectiveness in that it is a stable characteristic of the teacher that does not change appreciably when the teacher moves from one situation to another.”

James (1977) states that the competencies are composite skills, behaviours, or knowledge that can be demonstrated by the learner and are derived from explicit conceptualizations of the desired outcome of learning competencies are stated so or to make possible the assessment of student learning through direct observation of student behaviour.

There are four terms often tread as synonymous: teacher competency, teacher competence, teacher performance and teacher effectiveness (Reddy, 1998). The teacher competency will be defined as any single knowledge, skill, or professional value, teacher competence is conceived as a matter of degree or
repertoire; how competent competencies he or she possesses (the teacher are “competent to teach”), teacher performance refers to what the teacher does on the job rather than how he or she does (how competent a teacher is), teacher effectiveness refers to the effect that the teachers performance has on pupils. Teacher competence is related to teacher effectiveness only by way of its effect on teacher performance.

It is important that schools become places where teachers are engaged in school reform or renewal efforts for improving the schools and where supervisory support encourages the entire staff to model behaviours that foster collegiality and a professional environment. The issue of teachers as a part of these professional communities must be addressed by supervisors who wish to improve their supervisory skill in building a more supportive climate for helping teachers realise their full potential (Bulach, 1994).

Thus, there is an important point which the administrators have to consider about teacher competence is that there is a link between teacher competence and students achievement too. As the major research finding of Kemp and Hall (1992) showed that “student achievement is related to teacher competence in teaching” it means teachers have the greatest potential to influence children's education also.

1.1.4 JOB SATISFACTION

In every organisation, the workers always need the inspiration (will power) to work. So the administrators have to give this for the group of workers (Charern
Wairawatchanakul, 1979). The job satisfaction of each worker is different according to the need and emotion of each individual (Chucheep Buddaprasert, 1999). This satisfaction gives rise to the success in working of the organisation. If the workers are not satisfied with their work in an organisation, it leads to work inefficiency (Preeyaporn Wonganutrarojna, 1992).

Job satisfaction is an affective reaction to an individual’s work situation. It can be defined as an overall feeling about one’s job or career or in terms of specific facets of the job or career (e.g., compensation, autonomy, coworkers) and it can be related to specific outcomes, such as productivity (Rice, Gentile, and McFarlin, 1991).

Teachers are arguably the most important group of professionals for our nation’s future. Therefore, it is disturbing to find that many of today’s teachers are dissatisfied with their jobs. It may be necessary to look beyond the school’s walls, particularly to questions of esteem and support networks, to identify other higher-order needs (Bishay, 1996). Even though, the building locations, curriculum and textbooks of the schools are the best, in fact, the workers lack an ability or satisfaction in using them to rise the more benefit, then these will become worthless for students. So that, we can summarize that the educational advancement depends on many workers in many duties, but there are only two most important workers i.e., the educational administrators and teachers (Pinyo Sathorn, 1976). The main tasks of an educational administrator are the
management on the money force, conveniences, workers and information. These
make to raise the difference about the advance of students from the others. The
income should be managed suitably with the worker’s satisfactions (Methee
Pilantanontha, 1986). Teacher satisfaction is associated with work that provides a
mental challenge, is varied, allows autonomy, is not physically fatiguing, allows
the person to experience success, provides a fair wage, and enables personal needs
to be satisfied while achieving work goals (Sinclair, 1992).

Simmons (1970) has identified teacher satisfaction factors and has
categorized them as content and context. Content factors relate to the teaching
process itself (e.g., achievement in teaching, the nature of the work itself, and
recognition), while context factors relate to the job situation (e.g., interpersonal
relations, school policy, salary, etc.). The context serves only to reduce pain in the
lower-order needs areas (e.g., physiological and safety) and cannot lead to
satisfaction. The content aspects correspond to esteem and self-actualization,
which are at the top of Maslow’s hierarchy (Maslow, 1954). Those factors that are
content-centered (i.e., intrinsic aspects of teaching) contribute most powerfully to
satisfaction.

Smith (1995) states that job satisfaction refers to psychological, physical,
and environmental effect which makes the conformist (in the organisation) can
frankly say that he satisfies the job. According to Koontz and Weihrich (1990),
satisfaction refers to the contentment experienced when a want is satisfied. They
explain that in the other words, motivation implies a drive towards an outcome, and satisfaction is the outcome already experienced.

The importance of job satisfaction in any profession is a universally accepted fact. If a person is satisfied with his job and if his mental health is of high order. Therefore, in a developing country there is a need to ensure the maximum job satisfaction of employees in general and of teachers in particular as the teacher is “the maker of man” (Selvam, 1998).

Every organisation should give the job satisfaction to the workers in such a way that the workers have the motivation to work. These are the results of the job satisfaction and a factor called “motivation”. All of the efficiencies in working arises from the needs and motivation (both of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) of each worker, because the motivation is the drive to create the work. The success development and survival of an organisation mainly depends on efficiency of workers. Job satisfaction and administration play a vital role in the success of an education system in the school. It causes the rises in eagerness, intention and will power of the workers. Teacher motivation is more important than student motivation in the teaching learning transaction, because if teacher is not motivated well in the class room then he cannot motivate the students for better learning (Surendranath Babu, 1999). According to Koontz and Weihrich (1990) describe the chain of Need – Wants – Satisfaction that “If possible, then, to look at motivation as an evolving a chain reaction: Felt needs give rise to wants or goals
sought, which give rise to actions towards achieving goals, which finally result in satisfaction.”

In the report of the National Commission on Teachers – I (1986) it states that “If teaching improves and becomes interesting many students may be saved and retained”. These affect the rise in efficiency in working and success of an organisation. Administrator occupies a very strategic position and the success and failure of the school depends upon them. Hence, the responsibility of an administrator is rivet complex. He should be aware of the importance to cultivate educative and collaborative competency among educators. Any formal programmes of teacher assessment needs to take cognizance of these two competencies as they both proved to be valid with high reliability, because professional responsibilities of an administrator are under four aspects. He must bear the responsibilities towards student, community, teachers and administration. (Preeyaporn W., 1995, Chanchai A, 1997, Wong Yu Fai, 1996 and Somsak D, 2000).

Handling the challenging situation in the class and outside the class makes teachers exhausted, which hinders the achievement of teachers. Being intrinsically and extrinsically motivated increases job satisfaction. So, motivation has an important role in his job of teaching. As Suslu (2006) notes that “It is said that motivation factors should be intrinsic which present tasks that are more enjoyable, interesting and psychologically rewarding. Achievement, recognition, work,
responsibility, advancement and possibility of growth take place in that group. On the other hand, other factors are extrinsic in terms of the context or setting where the work is performed. Organisation policy administration, technical supervision, salary, working condition, status, job security, effects on personal life, and interpersonal relations with superiors, peers and subordinates are in that group.

Although teachers can take steps individually to preserve their professional satisfaction and morale, they must also be nurtured, supported, and valued by the broader school community. When teachers are provided with what they need to remain inspired and enthusiastic in the classroom, students as well as teachers will be the beneficiaries (Bishay, 1996). Ma (1999) has suggested in his work that “knowledge of the job and teaching competence are relevant for teacher job satisfaction.”

From the above reviews, the researcher would like to discussed that those factors are prevailing in the Ecclesiastical - General Education system of Chiang Rai province, Thailand too. They are the factors which the administrators either of school or superior can not look over or ignore them. Because the teacher not only being occupied with means but also with ends of entire the students’ life in the school.
1.2 NEED OF THE STUDY

The teacher is a vital component of school administration. He stands at the most important point in the educational process, as if the educational parent of the students and undertaker of the great task of educating of the students who look to him for knowledge, wisdom, manners, morals, inspiration, and enlightenment. Even though the teacher is named as the back-bone of society, the superior guide, the nation engineer etc., but he still suffers from poverty, neglect, indifference and insecurity. The expected social status, the salaries, and the general service conditions of teachers are still far from satisfaction.

There are many factors, in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System, which affect the teachers, such as personnel who are quantitatively sufficient but qualitatively inadequate.

Administration, schools have comprehensively undertaken planning organizing, coordinating and controlling tasks. However, such undertakings are still far from complete. Particularly, the administrative structure was still congruent with the uniqueness of educational provision and management tasks cater to students.

An adequate budget is very much lacking and the schools do not receive sufficient support from the Sangha Council and concerned authorities that effect to the instrumentalities - which are inappropriate, lack of materials and equipment-the buildings are inadequate.
Teachers receive very little supervisory support from outside agencies/organisations which effects their instructional development.

Working conditions also have positive relationship with the teacher’s job satisfaction so schools should be such as to enable teachers to function at their highest level of efficiency.

Climate in the school is the human environment within that surroundings and affects to the teachers and organisation. It is the reflection of the quality of human interaction and the relationships in the schools, and it affects the job satisfaction and outcome of both teachers and students.

In the Ecclesiastical-General Education System in Chiang Rai province, there are 18 schools. It has a total population of 225 teachers, and a sample of 142 teachers were use in this study. All of the school administrators are monks who try to work with their hearts of the Buddhist young monks and novices. Many factors in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System are developed in the right ways, but many factors have not yet been found enough to realise the job satisfaction of the teachers.

According to the above reasons, the present study of “Institutional Climate, Job Satisfaction, Teacher Competence in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System in Chiang Rai Province, Thailand – A Correlational Study” is undertaken in order to improve the efficiency of teachers, which will help in improving the
administration of the system and ultimately resulting in better achievements of the students.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study is an attempt to study the Institutional Climate, Job Satisfaction and Teacher Competence of the Teachers in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System in Chiang Rai Province of Thailand and aimed at correlating the said variables and to find the outcomes, and to provide practical suggestions for any improvements. So the present study precisely the Institutional Climate, Job Satisfaction and Teacher Competence of the Teachers in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System in Chiang Rai Province of Thailand.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To study the institutional climate as perceived by the teachers working in selected schools under the Ecclesiastical-General Education.

2. To know the level of job satisfaction of the teachers working in the selected secondary schools.

3. To study the teacher competence of teachers working in the selected schools of Ecclesiastical-General Education.

4. To study the institutional climate, job satisfaction and teacher competence with respect to the following variables: a) Type of Teacher (Monk-hood), b) Gender, c) Qualification, d) Years of Experience, e) Type of Family,
f) Salary, g) Location of School, h) Marital Status, and i) Age of the Teacher.

5. To study the relationship between Institutional Climate, Job Satisfaction and Teacher Competence.

6. To identify the predictors of Teacher Competence based on the selected variables of the study.

1.5 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

1. There is no significant difference between Monk and Layman teachers in their perception on Institutional Climate.

2. There is no significant difference between Monk and Layman teachers in their perception on Job Satisfaction.

3. There is no significant difference between Monk and Layman teachers in their perception on Teacher Competence.

4. There is no significant difference between Male and Female teachers in their perception on Institutional Climate.

5. There is no significant difference between Male and Female teachers in their perception of Job Satisfaction.

6. There is no significant difference between Male and Female teachers in their perception on Teacher Competence.
7. There is no significant difference between Married and Unmarried teachers in their perception of Institutional Climate.

8. There is no significant difference between Married and Unmarried teachers in their perception on Job Satisfaction.

9. There is no significant difference between Married and Unmarried teachers in their perception on Teacher Competence.

10. There is no significant difference between teachers belonging to Nuclear Family and Joint Family in their perception of Institutional Climate.

11. There is no significant difference between teachers belonging to Nuclear Family and Joint Family in their perception on Job Satisfaction.

12. There is no significant difference between teachers belonging to Nuclear Family and Joint Family in their perception on Teacher Competence.

13. There is no significant difference between Low Salaried teachers and High Salaried teachers in their perception of Institutional Climate.

14. There is no significant difference between Low Salaried teachers and High Salaried teachers in their perception on Job Satisfaction.

15. There is no significant difference between Low Salaried teachers and High Salaried teachers in their perception on Teacher Competence.

16. There is no significant difference between Rural and Urban teachers in their perception on Institutional Climate.
17. There is no significant difference between Rural and Urban teachers in their perception on Job Satisfaction.

18. There is no significance difference between Rural and Urban teachers in their perception on Teacher Competence.

19. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Institutional Climate among the teachers belonging to different Age groups.

20. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Job Satisfaction among the teachers belonging to different Age groups.

21. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Teacher Competence among the teachers belonging to different Age groups.

22. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Institutional Climate among the teachers with various Educational Qualifications.

23. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Job Satisfaction among the teachers with various Educational Qualifications.

24. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Teacher Competence among the teachers with various Educational Qualifications.

25. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Institutional Climate among the teachers with various years of Experience.

26. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Job Satisfaction among the teachers with various years of Experience.
27. There is no significant difference in mean scores of Teacher Competence among the teachers with various years of Experience.

28. There is no significant relationship between Institutional Climate and Job Satisfaction.

29. There is no significant relationship between Institutional Climate and Teacher Competence.

30. There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Teacher Competence.

31. Institutional Climate, Job Satisfaction, Age, Location, Salary, Experience, Qualification, Type of Family, Monk-hood, Marital Status and Gender are not significant Predictors of Teacher Competence.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The measure of INSTITUTIONAL CLIMATE, JOB SATISFACTION and TEACHER COMPETENCE were limited to the questions provided by the selected survey instruments.

2. Study the correlation of Institutional Climate, Job Satisfaction and Teacher Competence in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System in Chiang Rai Province in Thailand only.
3. The population of teachers, of the Ecclesiastical-General Education System, had some hope about Education policy which would give impact to the levels of satisfaction and climate.

4. The study is limited to the secondary school teachers working in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System, Chiang Rai Province, Thailand during 2004-2005 only.

1.7 EXPLANATION OF THE KEY TERMS

**Job Satisfaction:** In this study job satisfaction is operationally defined as the pleasurable or positive feeling enjoyed by a teacher from his/her teaching profession.

**Ecclesiastical - General Education System:** The secondary schools which were established by Buddhist monastery in the land of Buddhist property for providing an education to Buddhist monks and novices according to the Basic Education Curriculum, which is conformers with the criteria and procedures stipulated by the Basic Education Curriculum B.E. 2544 (A.D. 2001) of the Ministry of Education.

**Job Experience:** The direct experiences of the teachers in the Ecclesiastical-General Education System, in the current school.
**Teacher Competence:** Refers to the set of knowledge, and abilities which are the teacher possesses and brings to the teaching situation such as considering the individual differences of the students, changing teaching strategies, and developing and utilizing materials effectively.

**Institutional Climate:** The perception someone has about the psychological and institutional attributes of an organisation or those psychological and institutional attributes which give an organisation its personality.

### 1.8 RESUME OF THE SUCCEEDING CHAPTERS

The second chapter deals with the review of related literature. It includes studies related to job satisfaction, institutional climate, teacher competence and summary of the studies. The third chapter deals with the methodology of study and procedure of the data correction and data analysis. Chapter four describes the detailed analysis data and testing of formulated hypotheses. The fifth and final chapter gives the summary of the study, major findings and conclusion of the study. This chapter concludes with the possible implications of the study and suggestions for further studies on similar lines.