THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL OF SELF-LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES IN NON-ACADEMIC STAFF IN PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN THAILAND

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Abstract: This research aimed to develop a model of Self-Leadership Competencies for non-academic staff at Thai higher education institutions. A preliminary model was developed from the theoretical literature to achieve the objective, incorporating the theory of Self-Leadership (Manz, 1986) and Self-Directed Leadership Development (Nesbit, 2012). The theoretical model was developed using a two-stage mixed methods research design, which began with interviews with senior non-academic staff and administrators (n = 10) and an additional quantitative survey of academic staff and administrators from six private universities in Thailand (n = 352). The qualitative research revealed that training and development was the most important factor in self-leadership competencies, autonomy, and other organizational culture aspects. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to find the significant external factors affecting self-leadership behaviors. This model was substantial and moderately predictive (R^2 = .343), with 34.3% of the variance in overall behavior strategies predicted by variance in external factors. Significant factors included *training and professional development, rewards and recognition* (negative), *emotional intelligence, and organizational climate and culture* (negative). The strongest effect was *emotional intelligence*, followed by *training and professional development*. The model was validated by experts and finalized. Implications for universities point to training and development benefits self-leadership competency development for non-academic staff.

Keywords: Self-leadership competencies, non-academic staff, Thai private universities

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Introduction

Thailand's higher education institutions (HEIs) are becoming increasingly competitive internationally. According to the QS World University Rankings, Thai universities, including Chulalongkorn University and Mahidol University, have reached the top 300 universities in the world, with several other Thai universities ranking in the top 1000 institutions (Quacquerelli Symonds, 2021). Thai universities are in a similar position in other global rankings, including Times Higher Education (THE) World University Rankings (Times Higher Education, 2021). The increasingly high profile of Thai universities has led to the better educational quality available for Thai students. It has also increased the country's attractiveness to foreign students. By 2018, Thailand hosted 30,000 international students, mostly from other ASEAN countries and China (Seneviratne, 2018). Thus, Thailand's universities are on an upward climb toward global reputation and performance. Nonetheless, the quality of Thai universities is not only based on academic staff.

To maintain the upward momentum, the contributions and effectiveness of non-academic staff members are also essential. Non-academic staff members contribute to the student study experience, and the perceived quality of education received (Ahmad, 2015). Additionally, non-academic staff contributed to student degree completion, which in turn supported the university's reputation (Baltaru, 2019). Non-academic staff was also crucial in their roles as contact points for international students, thus contributing to program internationalization (Brandenburg, 2017). In short, the non-academic staff of an HEI is part of the critical resources it needs to improve its standing and performance. Many of the non-academic staff at Thai universities are in management positions, where leadership abilities are critical. Yet, they face the same barriers to self-leadership development as leaders in other fields. These challenges include the time and effort required to develop leadership skills and that primary work requirements and personal motivations tend to prioritize immediate performance over long-term development of leadership capacity (Nesbit, 2012). Non-academic staff at Thai schools will need strong leadership skills to manage the education reform process, and they will probably have to develop these competencies independently.

In order for non-academic staff to be fully effective, they must be adequately prepared and supported. One of the preparation domains is self-leadership or self-guided development of competencies and leadership competencies. Self-Leadership is a challenging development domain because it has many barriers, including a significant demand for time and effort, along with the prioritization of immediate performance goals over long-term personal and professional

development goals. These priorities often preclude the development of self-leadership skills, a long-term process where results may not be immediately noticeable (Nesbit, 2012). Despite these barriers, self-leadership is still a critical aspect of professional development and learning for administrators and development staff like university non-academic staff (Goldsby et al., 2021). Although self-leadership is important for universities, there have not been any prior efforts to develop a self-leadership model for Thai university non-academic staff. This is the problem that the current study addresses.

Research Objectives

1. This research is based on the following objectives:
2. To identify the expected self-leadership competencies needed for non-academic staff in private higher education institutions in Thailand.
3. To explore the factors that influence the development of self-leadership competencies.
4. To examine the current self-leadership competencies in non-academic staff in private higher education institutions in Thailand.
5. To determine the factors that influence the development of self-leadership competencies in non-academic staff in private higher education institutions in Thailand.
6. To develop a model for self-leadership competencies in non-academic staff in private higher education institutions in Thailand.

Literature Review

Self-Leadership

Self-Leadership was initially proposed to understand the process of individual Self-regulation and Self-influence, through which individuals not just meet standards through their behavior (termed Self-management) but address intrinsic reasons for the behavior (Manz, 1986). Self-Leadership can be formally defined in several ways, including "a Self-influence process by which people achieve the Self-direction and Self-motivation necessary to perform (Goldsby et al., 2021, p. 1)" or "a comprehensive Self-influence process capturing how individuals motivate themselves to complete work that is naturally motivating or work that must be done but is not naturally motivating (Stewart et al., 2019, p. 47)." Although these definitions are slightly different, they still retain a central core of meaning: Self-Leadership is a process of Self-motivation, Self-influence, and Self-direction, through which individuals can achieve various goals under their direction.

Effective Self-Leadership has implications for individual performance within the organization, which may be reflected in overall organizational performance. A multilevel review of Self-Leadership found that it was a

significant factor in individual performance, especially specific work performance and improved affective (emotional) response (Stewart et al., 2011). These outcomes are not due only to Self-Leadership; instead, Self-Leadership Competencies interact with professional development, certification, and time management skills to contribute to job performance (Goldsby et al., 2021). Self-Leadership also plays into the individual's external leadership skills and ability to collaborate with others effectively (Stewart et al., 2019). At the same time, there are some challenges to understanding Self-Leadership, which one author frames as a series of paradoxes (Stewart et al., 2019). One of the most problematic is what the authors call *needing Self-Leadership to improve Self-Leadership* – in other words, individuals need appropriate Self-motivation, Self-regulation, and Self-influence to improve the outcomes of Self-Leadership exercises. Thus, it is not immediately clear that individuals can simply improve Self-Leadership skills from their own resources; instead, training may be needed to activate Self-Leadership (Stewart et al., 2019). There are also cross-cultural differences in Self-Leadership Competencies and perceptions (Alves et al., 2006), meaning that generic models of Self-Leadership cannot be applied.

There are three dimensions to effective Self-Leadership, which can be classified as thought, behavior, and reward (Neck et al., 2019; Stewart et al., 2011, 2019). Thought strategies are constructive thought patterns or cognitive management strategies that contribute to effective performance, serving as Self-influence strategies (Neck & Manz, 1992, 1996). The two main thought strategies identified in Self-Leadership are Self-talk, in which individuals support and motivate themselves through Self-dialogue, and mental imagery, where individuals support and motivate themselves through imaginative processes (for example, imagining a goal achievement). The reward strategies of Self-Leadership, or Self-motivation strategies, are typically focused on natural or intrinsic rewards rather than extrinsic rewards (Goldsby et al., 2021). For example, individuals may consider task mastery an intrinsic reward for goal achievement. Finally, behavioral strategies are the Self-regulation strategies individuals use to achieve their internal goals in Self-Leadership (Neck et al., 2019). These behavioral strategies can include Self-goal setting, Self-reward and Self-punishment for goal achievement or non-achievement, Self-observation or Self-awareness (also known as critical reflection), and Self-cueing to perform specific aspects of their tasks. Through these three types of Self-Leadership strategies, individuals can set their own internal goals, motivate themselves to achieve them, and reward themselves for achievement without reference to an extrinsic framework.

Self-Leadership Competency Development

Self-Leadership Competency Development is not necessarily straightforward, especially as it does require some existing Self-Leadership Competency to enact (Stewart et al., 2019). This raises the question of how individuals can develop their Self-Leadership Competency. The Self-Directed Leadership Development (SDLD) model offers insight into how individuals learn leadership competencies (Nesbit, 2012). The SDLD learning framework argues that learning Self-Leadership is a two-part cycle of Self-understanding and Self-change. In the Self-understanding phase, the individual uses Self-reflection and Self-awareness, along with feedback from others, to recognize gaps between their desired performance and current performance. The Self-change process includes goal formation, goal striving, and monitoring and evaluating their outcomes. This cycle is then coupled with Self-reflection to understand performance and continue to improve. Nesbit (2012) identifies several Self-regulatory processes, including managing emotions, Self-reflection and Self-awareness, as part of the cycle of Self-Directed Leadership Development. Nesbit's model is designed to explain the development of traditional leadership, which is outwardly directed, rather than Self-directed. However, it is consistent enough with the Self-regulation, Self-motivation and Self-influence processes of the Self-Leadership framework that incorporating its learning mechanisms works well within the model. Therefore, it was adopted to understand Self-Leadership Competency Development as a continual learning cycle.

Factors in Self-Leadership Competency

Although Self-Leadership is a set of individual practices, it takes place within an organizational and social context that needs to be accounted for (Neck et al., 2019). The conceptual framework of this study investigated three categories of factors that could influence Self-Leadership Competency Development: individual, organizational, and demographic factors. Individual factors that could be identified included analytic competency, emotional intelligence, and social intelligence. Analytical competency refers to the ability to identify and solve problems, which is also a core external leadership competency (Smith & Wolverton, 2010). As these authors noted, this is a critical leadership competency in the HEI context.

Furthermore, analytical competency improvement is a common part of leadership development programs because of the high demand for it as a leadership competency (Yamazaki, 2014). Communication is also a leadership competency, considered a possible Self-Leadership Competency (Yamazaki, 2014). Emotional intelligence is knowledge and understanding of the emotional states of self and others, including how these emotional states can

be used to achieve specific goals (Goleman et al., 2013). Several previous studies have shown that emotional intelligence is one of the key factors in effective Self-Leadership, enabling the emotional regulation and thought strategies demanded by the Self-Leadership process (Kramer, 2012; Vann et al., 2017). Social intelligence is related to emotional intelligence, but it is more about understanding social interactions and norms, including cultural norms that influence the behavior of oneself and others (Emmerling et al., 2012). Social intelligence has weaker evidence than emotional intelligence, but there is still some. For example, one study identified social judgment as a factor in Self-Leadership (Bartone et al., 2009). Therefore, social intelligence is studied alongside emotional intelligence.

Organizational factors include the organizational climate and culture, the work environment, training and development programs, and reward and recognition programs. These factors can be traced theoretically to social cognitive theory, which acknowledges that the social environment of learning directly influences what is learned (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1991). The organizational climate and culture set expectations for Self-Leadership, for example, through norms surrounding creativity, innovation, and learning (Ghosh, 2015). It also creates conditions where Self-Leadership can succeed or fail; for example, Self-Leadership cannot succeed if Self-control of an individual or team environment is discouraged (Stewart et al., 2011), while it thrives in collaborative environments where autonomy is encouraged (Stewart et al., 2019). The work environment (including the team and group environment, management and coworker relationships, working hours and conditions, and related factors) also could have a direct influence on how individuals can learn leadership skills, including Self-Leadership skills, and how these may be applied to their work (Horne et al., 2015).

Furthermore, Self-Leadership enables the employee to structure and control the work environment (Manz, 1986; Neck & Manz, 1992). Therefore, it is worth considering separately. There is evidence for workplace policies, including training and development and reward and recognition policies, to support Self-Leadership. Self-Leadership is a learned skill and, therefore, one that typically requires external learning support to begin to develop (Goldsby et al., 2021; Stewart et al., 2019). Therefore, it is unsurprising that training and development programs are a factor in Self-Leadership Competency Development in other contexts (Arista & Parahyanti, 2018). Similarly, reward and recognition policies could potentially encourage – or discourage – the development of Self-Leadership Competencies, depending on how they are structured within the organization, how they treat intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and other factors (Goldsby et al., 2021; Stewart et al., 2011, 2019).

For example, excessive reliance on financial rewards, which typically prioritize short-term performance, could negatively affect long-term focus on developing Self-Leadership (De Gieter et al., 2008). On the other hand, using non-monetary rewards that focus on long-term achievements, such as career progression paths and intrinsic rewards, can positively affect the development of Self-Leadership (Fisher, 2015). (Organizational financial reward and recognition policies should not be confused with the Self-reward strategies incorporated into the Self-Leadership Model.)

As far as demographics are concerned, the evidence on its role in Self-Leadership is mixed. Neck and Manz (1996) did not find demographic influences, but other studies have found such differences. One author has found a weak negative correlation between Self-reward and age, which suggests that younger people may be more prone to use tangible Self-reward (Politis, 2006). However, Politis' study did not find gender and educational level influenced Self-regulation. A recent study found differences in Thai and American elementary school teachers, although the demographic and other factors varied between cultures (Kunagornpitak et al., 2019). These differences were due to cultural differences in limited access to leadership roles, as Thai women had more access. A third study found a complex interaction between demographics and team composition in Self-Leadership Competency (Muethel et al., 2012). These authors also suggested demographic differences are under-investigated. Thus, there is an opportunity for this research to include these factors for a better understanding.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) is defined in three stages. First, the components of Self-Leadership Competencies that could be identified from the literature form the first stage of the framework. These include the behavior, thought, and reward strategies used for Self-Leadership, as well as the components of Self-regulation and feedback inherent in the SDLD learning cycle (Nesbit, 2012). The second component of the framework is the factors that influence Self-Leadership Competencies, as identified in the literature. These include individual influences (analytic competency, communication, emotional intelligence, and social intelligence) and organizational influences (the organizational climate and culture, work environment, training and development and reward and recognition programs). Finally, the framework considers individual characteristics, including demographics (age, gender, and education level) and work experience. These factors contribute to a model of Adapted Non-Academic Staff Self-Leadership Competencies (ASLQ).

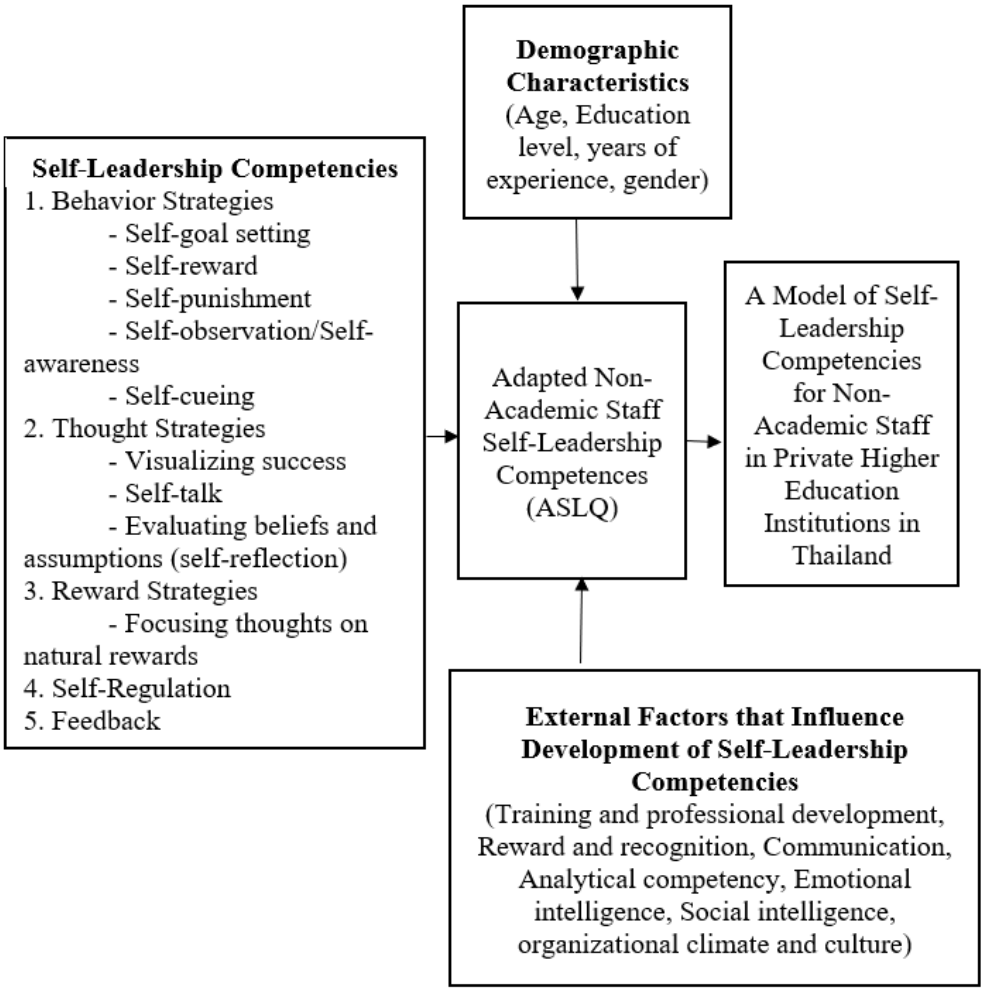

Figure 1: ***The Conceptual Framework of the Study***

Research Design

The study used a mixed-methods approach. There are various reasons for using mixed methods research, which was advantageous for this research. One of these reasons is that mixed methods can quantify a particular phenomenon (for example, how frequently it occurs or how strongly phenomena are related) and explain why this phenomenon occurs (Creswell, 2015). This is useful for this research, which had somewhat different objectives. Another reason for using mixed methods research is that it balances qualitative and quantitative research's strengths and weaknesses, providing broad and generalizable findings and specific explanations and context. This study deployed a three-stage (qualitative-quantitative) design with model validation as the last stage. During the qualitative stage of the study, data was collected using interviews

with senior non-academic staff and administrators from a single private HEI in Thailand (n = 10). Senior staff members had at least five years' in-role work experience. Participants were drawn from various administrative and functional areas of the university. The interviews were conducted using a semi-structured approach, which allowed the researcher to direct but not limit the interviews (Galletta, 2013). Data were collected using face-to-face interviews, which were recorded and then transcribed for analysis. Qualitative content analysis (QCA) was used due to its ability to identify shared viewpoints regardless of the exact language used (Schreier, 2014). A directed approach was used, with the initial coding frame established from the literature review (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The qualitative results were used to refine the Self-Competency Development Model and develop the questionnaire for the quantitative research stage.

The quantitative study was conducted as a self-administered survey, with data collected online and walk-in using a questionnaire developed from the qualitative findings and previous sources, including the Adapted Self-Leadership Questionnaire (Houghton & Neck, 2002), the SDLD framework (Nesbit, 2012) and theoretical work on Self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 2002). The questionnaire included 67 5-point Likert scale items, rated from (1) completely inaccurate/strongly disagree to (5) completely accurate strongly agree. A pre-test was conducted using a panel of five expert raters, using an index of item-objective congruence (IOC) approach to assess content validity (Rovinelli & Hambleton, 1977).

The population was the non-academic staff at private HEIs in Thailand. A sampling frame was placed to include only institutions with more than 10,000 students to control the effects of institutional size. The estimated non-academic staff at the six universities falling into this category was 3,765 employees (as of 2019). A sample of 352 non-academic staff was selected from these universities. Data was collected using an online platform and walk-in. Data were analyzed using a combination of descriptive statistics and multiple regression. These findings were used to further develop the conceptual model, with a final stage of expert validation used to confirm the model. The expert validation process returned to the participants in the qualitative interviews, with the new model presented to the participants for comment before refinement of the final model. The third stage involved the development of a model from all the previous qualitative and quantitative findings. The model was then sent to experts for model validation. A final model was then proposed.

Findings

Interview Findings

There were four key themes identified in the interviews. These themes included Self-Leadership Competencies, Self-Leadership Competency Development, external factors in Self-Leadership Competency Development, and support for Self-Leadership Competency Development. A total of 25 different Self-Leadership Competencies were identified from the interviews. Many of these competencies were identified by only one participant. Those identified by two or more participants included: achieving organizational goals, adaptability, confidence, decision-making, developing relationships, leading, listening, on-time task completion, self-belief, self-development, and setting goals.

Regarding Self-Competency Development, the most common activity identified was training, including in-role job training and staff interest-led training. Career path planning and personal goal-setting were also commonplace, with administrators and staff members able to set career paths and personal goals to some extent. However, administrators noted they had limited authority, for example, only being able to give employees limited autonomy and having few organizational supports for Self-Leadership Competency Development. There were few internal and external factors in Self-Leadership Competency Development. Instead, most of the factors identified were related to external leadership. However, some participants identified incentives and rewards, acknowledgment and feedback systems, and other motivational systems. The organizational culture and environment also were viewed as influences, as was the work environment (especially managerial support and good relationships with supervisors and coworkers. However, there was also information given that suggested these were limited. Finally, participants provided information about how Self-Leadership Competencies were supported at the university. The most common tool for Self-Leadership Competency Development was training and development participation. For example, one of the administrators remarked that participation in training and development was the employee's responsibility, who selected and managed their training activities. Other managers identified more comprehensive development programs, including career path development, motivation, mutual respect, and autonomy for goal-setting and activities. However, this was the exception, with most administrators not reporting such a program. A major barrier was identified at this stage: non-academic staff did not have equal access to the university’s training and development programs, reward programs, and other systems designed to support learning and development. Thus, non-academic staff cannot fully take advantage of university programs for Self-Leadership Development.

Demographic Results

The target minimum sample size for the research was 352 members, who were selected using simple random sampling from staff lists of the six Thai private universities. Demographic information, including gender, age, and education level, was collected from all participants. These demographic statistics show that about two-thirds of the sample was female (65.9%). There were participants from a range of age groups. The most common age group was 41 to 50 (42.9%), followed by 31 to 40 (36.6%). The smallest groups were aged 20 to 30 years (11.9%) and over 50 years (8.5%). Most of the participants held a bachelor's degree (89.8%), with smaller groups reporting lower (8.2%) and higher (2%) educational levels. Thus, demographically the average participant in the study was female, aged 31 to 50 years, and held a bachelor's degree.

Professional data was also collected from respondents, including position, years of experience, and recent experience in training and development activities. Most participants were non-administrator staff members (89.8%), with most remaining participants being administrators (9.7%). Two of the participants declined to respond to this question. The respondents were, in general, highly experienced. The largest group had the experience of 11 to 20 years (52.3%), followed by those with 6 to 10 years of experience (26.4%). About one in six participants had between one and five years of experience (13.1%), while a small number had more than 20 years of experience (8.2%). The final question, on participation in training and development activities, is somewhat concerning. About three-quarters reported they had not participated in workplace training activities within the past year (74.7%). Of those who participated, the most common activities were training or on-the-job training (12.8%) or seminars (7.7%). Only a few participants attended certificate programs, university courses (2%), or other development activities (2.8%). This indicates that only one in four participants has had any training and development in the past year, of which most are job-related or short activities such as seminars.

Quantitative Statistics Results

The first regression tests identified the significant contributing factors to each component of Self-Leadership Competencies. This test showed that Training and Professional Development, Emotional Intelligence, and Organizational Climate and Culture were the most consistent predictors of Behavior, Reward, Thought Strategies, Self-Regulation, and Feedback. Social Intelligence and Reward and Recognition also predicted several of the Self-Leadership Competencies. However, communication and analytical competency were not significant for any Self-Leadership Competencies. The second regression test investigated the effect of individual and organizational factors on the ASLQ composite score. In this model, the significant factors ($p < .05$) included

training and professional development (β = .338), rewards and recognition (β = -.132), emotional intelligence (β = ..445) and organizational climate and culture ((β = -.14). The goodness of fit was moderate (adj. R-square = .405), indicating that these factors predicted 40.5% of overall variance in ASLQ composite score. The results of the regression analysis are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Regressions for External Factors and Behavior Strategies

External Factors	Self-Goal Setting	Self-Reward	Self-Punishment	Self-Observation	Self-Cueing	Overall Behavior
Training and Professional Development	.293***	.416***	.179*	.206***	.379***	.353***
Rewards and Recognition	.281***	-.243**	.033	-.082	-.174*	-.179**
Communication	-.045	-.083	-.125	-.052	-.016	-.076
Analytical Competency	.047	-.063	.035	.064	.034	.027
Emotional Intelligence	.468***	.378***	.372***	.446***	.399***	.491***
Social Intelligence	.161*	-.105	.164	.145*	.013	.089
Organizational Climate and Culture	-.172*	-.085	-.380***	-.094	-.067	-.188**
R^2	.339	.170	.198	.389	.333	.356
Adj. R^2	.326	.153	.182	.377	.319	.343
F	25.230***	10.082***	12.140***	31.286***	24.507***	27.147***

Note: *p <.05; **p <.01; p < .001***

Model

Following the qualitative and quantitative findings, a Model of Self-Leadership Competency for non-academic staff at private HEIs in Thailand was developed (Figure 2). This model was based on the conceptual framework (Figure 1), incorporating the empirical findings. The core Self-Leadership Competencies remain consistent within the model, as there was no strong evidence to remove these factors. The individual and organizational factors on Self-Leadership Competency Development are arranged as opposing factors. The positive factors include training and professional development, emotional intelligence, and social intelligence. The negative influences include the rewards and recognition system, organizational climate, and culture. Finally, the demographic components of the study, including education (higher), age (older), experience (more), and gender (female), are proposed. Communication and analytical competency, which were insignificant for any individual factor or ASLQ, were eliminated from the model.

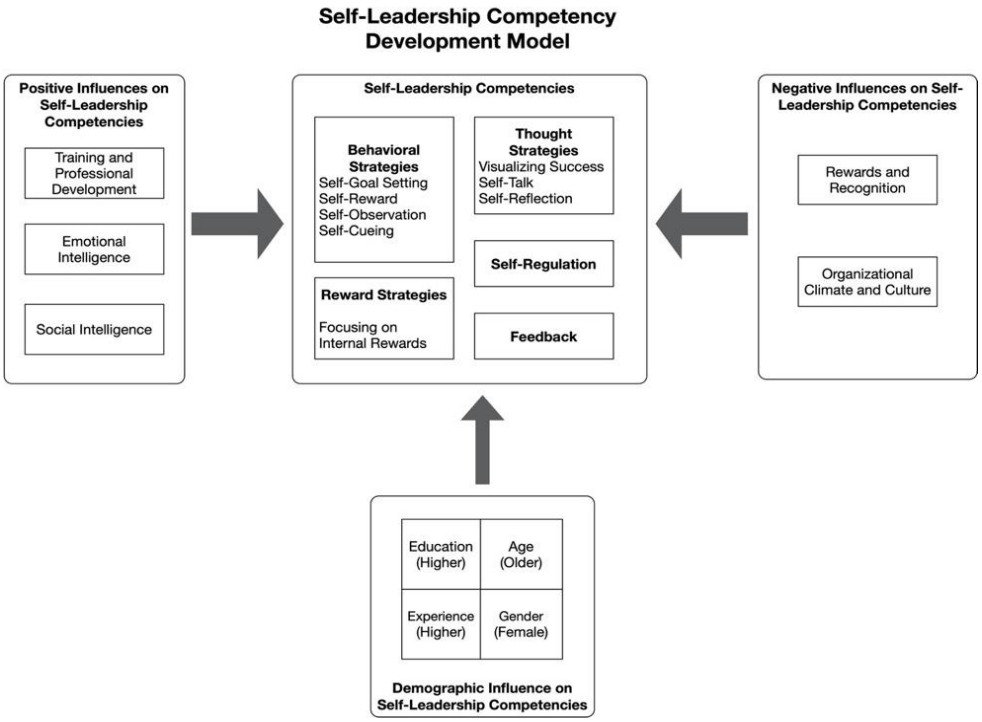

Figure 2: ***A Model of Self-Leadership Competency Development in Non-Academic Staff in Private Higher Education Institutions in Thailand***

Discussion

The qualitative and quantitative findings have generally supported the inclusion of the components identified within the theory of Self-Leadership, which include behavior strategies, thought strategies, reward strategies, self-regulation, and feedback (Goldsby et al., 2021; Manz, 1986; Neck et al., 2019; Neck & Manz, 1992; Stewart et al., 2011, 2019). Notably, however, the ratings of these factors were not very high in the descriptive statistics. This suggests that there could be significant barriers to developing Self-Leadership Competency among non-academic staff in Thailand. This raises the question of why this is so low. As noted in the qualitative and quantitative findings, one of the major barriers to development may be a lack of access to training and development programs. This was one of the strongest influences on ASLQ and influenced all the individual components of Self-Leadership Competency, consistent with the knowledge that access to training is key to beginning the development of Self-Leadership (Stewart et al., 2019). Thus, if there is an organizational barrier, such as a lack of equitable access to training and development programs for non-academic staff, this could be one of the reasons for low overall Self-Leadership Competence. Another surprising finding was the negative effect of reward and recognition and organizational culture and climate. Given what is known about the organization's role in supporting the development of Self-Leadership Competency (Goldsby et al., 2021; Neck et al., 2019), it was initially expected that these would be positive influences, but this was not the case. One possible explanation comes from the original definition of Self-Leadership, which is that it motivates individuals to achieve goals that are not extrinsically rewarding (Manz, 1986). Thus, if individuals are externally rewarded for achieving certain tasks, they may not be as intrinsically interested and may not develop Self-Leadership Competencies. This is not necessarily negative; instead, it simply suggests that there may be complementary effects between extrinsically motivated achievements and the drive toward Self-Leadership and achievement of intrinsically motivated goals, which was not addressed here.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This research has investigated Self-Leadership Competency Development in a non-academic staff of Thai private HEIs to develop a preliminary Model of Self-Leadership Competency. The model developed from the research incorporates the classical model of Manz (1986) with the model of Self-Directed Leadership Development established by Nesbit (2012). It also incorporates several positive and negative influences on Self-Leadership Competency Development, which were confirmed as playing a role in the outcome. Furthermore, the study also incorporated demographic influences, which have been under-investigated.

The academic value of this research is not just the core integrative model but also the incorporation of multiple perspectives from different organizational research fields on what could influence Self-Leadership Competency Development. The resulting model, which fills several gaps in the literature on Self-Leadership, provides support for academics studying this question. It also demonstrates the particular cultural context (national and organizational), which could significantly affect the development of Self-Leadership. There is also some practical value in the findings, particularly as it relates to organizational culture and support for non-academic staff. The study showed low levels of Self-Leadership Competency as Self-reported by non-academic staff, coupled with reports of low organizational support in key areas like organization and training. This is concerning because it deprives Thai universities of some of the potential value of their non-academic staff to their work outcomes and the organization's performance. Thus, it is highly recommended that universities reassess policies that create barriers to access for non-academic staff to participate in training and development, among other activities. The model presented here is a preliminary theoretical framework and requires additional development work. Therefore, the next steps in research are to assess the derived model in a larger sample, including smaller and public HEIs, to determine how well it reflects Self-Leadership Competency Development in different contexts.

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