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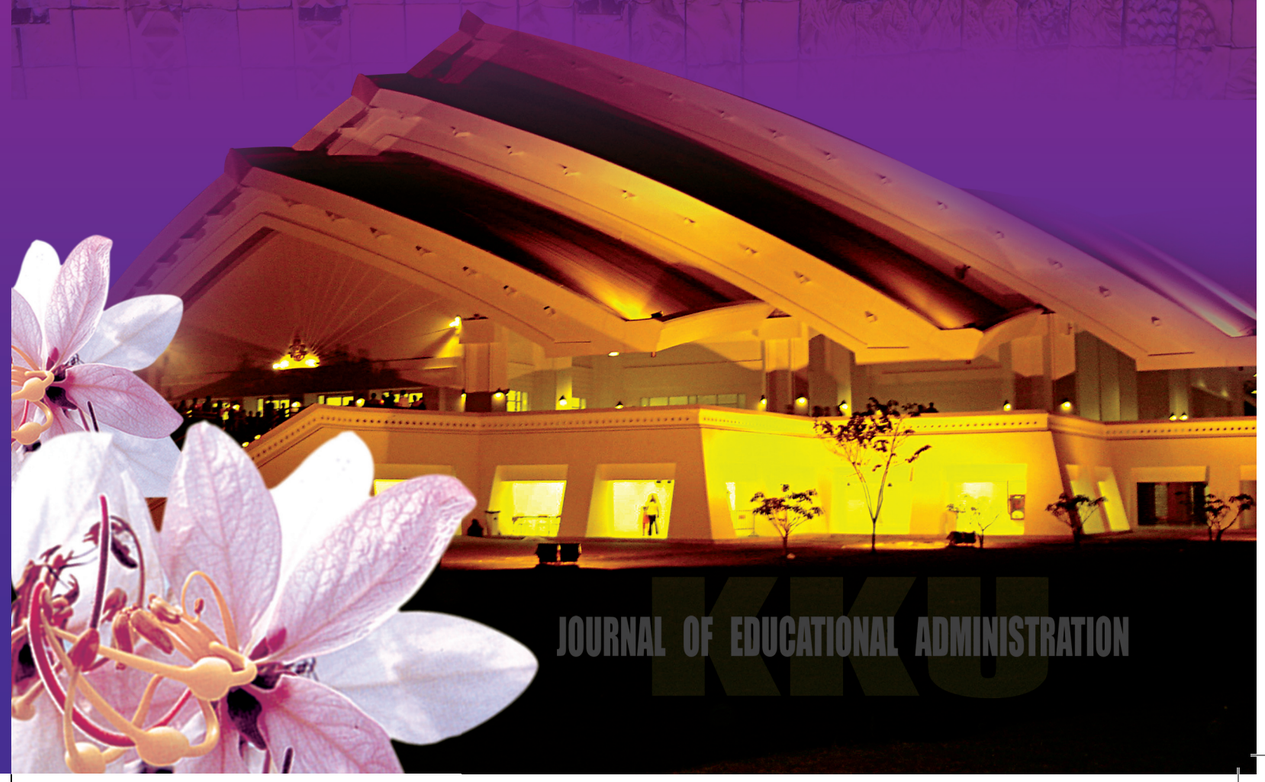
ศูนย์วิชาการและวิจัยทางการบริหารการศึกษา
โครงการปริญญาเอกสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษา
คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น

KKU



บรรณาธิการแถลง

ก้าวสู่ปีที่ 5 ของวารสารการบริหารการศึกษา มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น เป็นก้าวที่ยังมั่นคงและแน่วแน่ในวัตถุประสงค์ที่ร่วมกันกำหนดไว้ คือ “เพื่อเผยแพร่ความรู้ ทัศนะ แนวคิด นวัตกรรม ข้อค้นพบ แก่คณาจารย์ นักศึกษา สมาชิก และผู้สนใจ ในลักษณะบทความวิชาการ บทความวิจัย และอื่นๆ” และยังคงกิจกรรมการดำเนินงานที่คำนึงถึงคุณภาพของวารสาร โดยบทความวิชาการ กองบรรณาธิการได้ตรวจสอบรูปแบบและสำนวนภาษาสำหรับเนื้อหาสาระและข้อคิดเห็นในบทความวิชาการเป็นของผู้เขียนแต่ละท่าน ส่วนบทความวิจัย กองบรรณาธิการได้ตรวจสอบเป็นขั้นตอนแรก แล้วจัดให้ได้รับการตรวจสอบจากกรรมการภายนอกร่วมกลั่นกรอง (peer review) จำนวน 2 รายต่อบทความวิจัยหนึ่งๆ

สำหรับวารสารฉบับนี้ ในส่วนของบทความวิชาการได้นำเสนอเรื่อง กรอบแนวคิดพื้นฐานเพื่อการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากทางการบริหารการศึกษา เขียนโดย รศ. ดร. วิโรจน์ สารรัตนะ ในส่วนของบทความวิจัย ได้นำเสนอผลงานวิจัยในลักษณะที่เป็น Comparative Study ของนักศึกษาหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิตสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษา คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น รุ่นที่ 7 เป็นผลงานวิจัยที่กำลังยื่นเพื่อนำเสนอรายงานในการประชุมประจำปีของ American Educational Research Association (AERA) at Denver, Carolina, USA. May 2010 จำนวน 14 เรื่อง เป็นผลงานวิจัยของอาจารย์ประจำหลักสูตรการบริหารการศึกษาจาก Beijing Normal University, China 1 เรื่อง และของอาจารย์ประจำหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิตสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษา คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น อีก 1 เรื่อง

กองบรรณาธิการ ขอเชิญชวนคณะอาจารย์ นักศึกษา และผู้สนใจในสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษาส่งบทความวิชาการและบทความวิจัยทางการบริหารการศึกษาหรือภาวะผู้นำทางการบริหารการศึกษา เพื่อการตีพิมพ์เผยแพร่ในโอกาสต่อไปด้วย

รศ. ดร. วิโรจน์ สารรัตนะ
บรรณาธิการ

สารบัญ

บทความวิชาการ

บทความวิจัย

สารบัญ

ข่าวสารกิจกรรมในหลักสูตรทางการบริหารการศึกษา

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สำนักงานวารสาร

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วัตถุประสงค์

เพื่อเผยแพร่ความรู้ ทัศนะ แนวคิด นวัตกรรม ข้อค้นพบ แก่คณาจารย์ นักศึกษา สมาชิก และผู้สนใจ ในลักษณะบทความวิชาการ บทความวิจัย และอื่นๆ

การตรวจสอบคุณภาพ

บทความวิชาการ กองบรรณาธิการได้ตรวจสอบรูปแบบและสำนวนภาษา สำหรับเนื้อหาสาระและข้อคิดเห็นในบทความวิชาการเป็นของผู้เขียนแต่ละท่านสำนักงานวารสารไม่จำเป็นต้องเห็นด้วยเสมอไป

บทความวิจัย กองบรรณาธิการได้ตรวจสอบเป็นขั้นตอนแรก แล้วจัดให้บทความวิจัยหนึ่งๆได้รับการตรวจสอบจากกรรมการภายนอกร่วมกลั่นกรอง (peer review) จำนวน 2 ราย สำหรับวารสารฉบับนี้ มีกรรมการภายนอกร่วมกลั่นกรอง ดังนี้

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ออกแบบ-ปก

- น.ส. สุรีรัตน์ ชินพร

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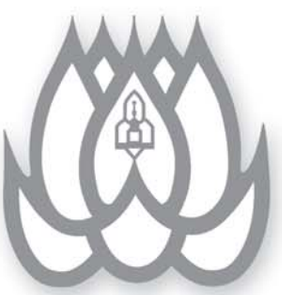


กรอบแนวคิดเพื่อการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก ทางการบริหารการศึกษา

ดร. วิโรจน์ สารรัตนะ*

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากเป็นชุดของการปฏิบัติที่ใช้เพื่อก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎีขึ้นมาอย่างเป็นระบบ เป็นทฤษฎีที่เป็นกรอบแนวคิดกว้างๆ เพื่ออธิบายกระบวนการใดกระบวนการหนึ่งของเหตุการณ์ กิจกรรม การกระทำหรือการต้องการได้ทฤษฎีใหม่ที่มีความเหมาะสมและสอดคล้องกับบริบท โดยยังไม่มีทฤษฎีใดจะนำมาอธิบายได้หรือมีแต่ไม่มีความเหมาะสมที่จะนำมาใช้ โดยในการดำเนินการวิจัยนั้น ข้อมูลในภาคสนามมีความสำคัญนักวิจัยจะต้องอยู่ใกล้ชิดกับข้อมูลและแหล่งข้อมูลตลอดระยะเวลาของการวิจัย มีความไวเชิงทฤษฎี มีการตรวจสอบย้อนกลับไปมาจนกว่าจะถึงจุดอิ่มตัว และจะต้องคำนึงถึงลักษณะที่สำคัญของการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก 6 ลักษณะ ดังนี้ คือ 1) เป็นวิธีการเชิงกระบวนการ 2) เป็นการเลือกตัวอย่างเชิงทฤษฎี 3) เป็นการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงเปรียบเทียบอย่างต่อเนื่อง 4) มีหมวดหลัก 1 หมวด 5) ก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎีและ 6) มีการบันทึกส่วนตัวของนักวิจัย

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก (grounded theory research) เป็นปฏิบัติการเชิงคุณภาพอย่างเป็นระบบของการรวบรวม “ข้อมูล” การจำแนกข้อมูลออกเป็น “หมวด” (categories/themes) และการ “เชื่อมโยง” หมวดเหล่านั้นเพื่อนำเสนอเป็น “ทฤษฎี” (theory) ที่เป็นกรอบแนวคิดกว้างๆ สำหรับอธิบาย “กระบวนการ” ของเหตุการณ์ (events) กิจกรรม (activities) การกระทำ (actions) หรือการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์ (interactions) ในประเด็นที่วิจัย ดังนั้น “ทฤษฎี” ที่เป็นผลจากการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากจึงเป็น “ทฤษฎีเชิงกระบวนการ” (process theory) ที่อธิบายถึงกระบวนการของเหตุการณ์ กิจกรรม การกระทำ หรือการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์ทางการศึกษาที่เกิดขึ้น (Schwandt, 2001; Creswell, 2008)

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก ใช้เมื่อนักวิจัยต้องการทราบถึงทฤษฎีหรือคำอธิบายอย่างกว้างๆ ที่จะนำมาอธิบายกระบวนการนั้นได้อย่างเหมาะสมและอย่างสอดคล้องกับบริบท เพราะเป็นทฤษฎีที่ได้มาจากข้อมูลฐานราก ไม่ใช่ทฤษฎีที่หยิบยืมมาจากเอกสารตำราเป็นทฤษฎีที่สอดคล้องกับสถานการณ์ กับการปฏิบัติจริง กับความรู้สึกนึกคิดของคนในที่ทำงาน และครอบคลุมถึงข้อเท็จจริงที่สลับซับซ้อน ซึ่งสามารถนำไปอ้างอิง (generalizable) ได้ในระดับหนึ่ง เป็นทฤษฎีในระดับกลาง (middle range theory) แม้จะไม่เทียบเท่ากับทฤษฎีใหญ่ (grand theory) อื่นๆ เช่น ทฤษฎีพฤติกรรมนิยมของ Skinner หรือทฤษฎีเกสตอลท์ของ Kohler เป็นต้น (Willis, 2007) หากเป็นทฤษฎีทางการบริหารการศึกษา เช่น ทฤษฎี X ทฤษฎี Y ทฤษฎีการจูงใจของ Maslow ทฤษฎีการบริหารโดยยึดโรงเรียนเป็นฐาน เป็นต้น

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก อาจใช้เมื่อต้องการศึกษากระบวนการใดกระบวนการหนึ่ง เช่น ศึกษาให้ทราบว่านักเรียนได้พัฒนาตัวเองเป็นนักเขียนได้อย่างไร หรือศึกษาเพื่อให้ทราบว่าครูได้พัฒนาวิชาชีพตนเองจนประสบผลสำเร็จได้อย่างไร เป็นต้น หรืออาจถูกนำมาใช้เมื่อต้องการอธิบายถึงกระบวนการกระทำ (action) ของผู้คน เช่น กระบวนการมีส่วนร่วมในการพัฒนาโรงเรียน เป็นต้น หรืออาจถูกนำมาใช้เพื่ออธิบายถึงกระบวนการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างบุคคล เช่น การสนับสนุนของหัวหน้าที่มีต่อผู้ร่วมงานในโครงการ เป็นต้น (Creswell, 2008)

ความเป็นมาของการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก เกิดขึ้นปลายทศวรรษ 1960 โดยนักสังคมวิทยาสองท่าน คือ Barney G. Glaser และ Anselm L. Strauss จากการศึกษาคนไข้ในศูนย์การแพทย์ของมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งแคลิฟอร์เนีย ซานฟรานซิสโก แล้วได้ตีพิมพ์วิธีการวิจัยในหนังสือชื่อ The Discovery of Grounded

* รองศาสตราจารย์ ประจำหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิตสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษา คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น

Theory ซึ่งได้เป็นพื้นฐานแนวคิดที่สำคัญของการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากที่ใช้กันในปัจจุบัน โดยในหนังสือเล่มนั้นได้ชี้ให้เห็นว่า ทฤษฎีทางสังคมวิทยาที่มีอยู่ ส่วนใหญ่เน้นการศึกษาวิจัยเชิงปริมาณ (quantitative research) ในลักษณะที่เป็นการตรวจสอบหรือทดสอบทฤษฎีมากกว่าการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพ (qualitative research) ในลักษณะที่เป็นการค้นหาแนวคิดหรือตัวแปรหรือสมมติฐานจากข้อมูลในภาคสนามเพื่อนำเสนอเป็นทฤษฎีใหม่ และชี้ให้เห็นว่าทฤษฎีที่ได้จากข้อมูลในภาคสนามจะมีความสอดคล้องกับบริบทมากกว่า และสามารถจะนำไปใช้ได้ดีกว่าทฤษฎีที่มีมาก่อน (Glaser & Strauss, 1967 อ้างถึงใน Creswell, 2008)

เพื่อให้เข้าใจในความแตกต่างที่สำคัญของการวิจัยเชิงปริมาณกับการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพ ในกรณีที่การวิจัยเชิงปริมาณมีจุดมุ่งหมายเพื่อทดสอบทฤษฎีอย่างไร และการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพมีจุดมุ่งหมายเพื่อพัฒนาทฤษฎีใหม่อย่างไร ผู้เขียนได้แสดงการใช้หลักการเชิงอุปมาน (inductive) ในการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพที่เริ่มต้นจากเก็บรวบรวม “ข้อมูล” จากหลากหลายแหล่ง เพื่อนำไปสู่ข้อสรุปเป็น “ทฤษฎี” และการใช้หลักการเชิงอนุมาน (deductive) ในการวิจัยเชิงปริมาณที่เริ่มต้นจากการ “สร้างตัวแบบจากทฤษฎี” เพื่อนำไปใช้เป็นกรอบในการสร้างเครื่องมือและเก็บรวบรวม “ข้อมูลมาทดสอบตัวแบบทฤษฎี” นั้น ดังภาพ 1 (ปรับจากแนวคิดของ Leedy & Ormrod, 2001)

ภาพ 1 เปรียบเทียบการใช้หลักการเชิงอุปมานในการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพกับการใช้หลักการเชิงอนุมานในการวิจัยเชิงปริมาณ

สำหรับ Glaser และ Strauss ในระยะต่อมาแยกเป็นอิสระจากกัน Strauss ซึ่งมีพื้นฐานทางการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพจากมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งชิคาโก สถาบันที่ให้ความสำคัญกับการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพ ได้ร่วมกับ Juliet Corbin เสนอเทคนิคและวิธีการใหม่เพิ่มขึ้น เช่น การจัดหมวดของข้อมูล การคำนึงถึงเรื่องความตรง (validity) และความเชื่อมั่น (reliability) เป็นต้น ส่วน Glaser ซึ่งมีพื้นฐานการวิจัยเชิงปริมาณจากมหาวิทยาลัยโคลัมเบีย แต่สนใจการพัฒนาทฤษฎีด้วยข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณและข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพ ได้วิพากษ์เทคนิคและวิธีการของ Strauss ที่ใช้ในการจัดหมวดข้อมูลและกำหนดกรอบแนวคิดไว้ล่วงหน้าว่าจะไม่ก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎีขึ้นได้ และให้ความเห็นว่า การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากควรเน้นการอธิบายถึงการกระทำอย่างเป็นธรรมชาติมากกว่าการกำหนดเป็นกรอบแนวคิดที่ชัดเจนหรือการเชื่อมโยงประเภทข้อมูลเพื่อก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎี

ประเด็นโต้แย้งดังกล่าวได้ก่อให้เกิดคำถามจากนักวิจัยอื่นๆ ขึ้นว่า การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากจริงๆ เป็นอย่างไร โดยเฉพาะคำถามจาก Charmaz (2000) ที่ได้เสนอวิธีการใหม่ เรียกว่าวิธีการสร้าง (the constructivist method) โดยให้ทัศนะว่า วิธีการทั้งของ Glaser และ Strauss

นั้น มีความเป็นระบบเกินไป เห็นว่าการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากควรจะเน้นวิธีการที่ยืดหยุ่น เน้นความหมายที่ได้รับจากผู้อยู่ในสถานการณ์ การยอมรับบทบาทของผู้วิจัยและผู้ที่เกี่ยวกับการวิจัย และควรเป็นการขยายองค์ความรู้เชิงปรัชญามากกว่าทัศนะเชิงปริมาณ

รูปแบบการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก

Creswell (2008) ให้ทัศนะว่า รูปแบบการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากนั้นมีหลากหลาย แล้วแต่ใครจะยึดถือรูปแบบใด แต่อย่างไรก็ตาม สามารถจำแนกได้ 3 รูปแบบ ดังนี้ คือ 1) รูปแบบเชิงระบบของ Strauss & Corbin 2) รูปแบบเกิดขึ้นใหม่ของ Glaser และ 3) รูปแบบการสร้างของ Charmaz ดังจะกล่าวถึงแต่ละรูปแบบดังนี้

1) รูปแบบเชิงระบบของ Strauss & Corbin (1990, 1998) เป็นรูปแบบที่มีเทคนิคและวิธีการเพิ่มขึ้นจากแนวคิดที่ Strauss & Glaser พัฒนาขึ้นในปี 1967 เป็นรูปแบบที่ถูกนำไปใช้อย่างแพร่หลายในการวิจัยทางการศึกษา เป็นรูปแบบที่เน้นขั้นตอนของการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลใน 4 ขั้นตอน ดังนี้ 1) การเปิดรหัส (open coding) 2) การหาแก่นของรหัส (axial coding) 3) การเลือกรหัส (selective coding) 4) การพัฒนารูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี (development of a logic paradigm or a visual picture of the theory generated) โดยมีสาระสำคัญในแต่ละขั้นตอนดังนี้

การเปิดรหัส (open coding) เป็นการนำเอาข้อมูลที่รวบรวมได้จากแหล่งต่างๆ เช่น การสัมภาษณ์ การสังเกต การบันทึก อนุทิน และการสนทนากลุ่ม เป็นต้น มาจำแนกเป็น “หมวด” (category/theme) กล่าวง่ายๆ คือ เป็นการจัดข้อมูลมารวมกันให้เป็นกลุ่มที่มีความหมาย (meaningful groups) โดยทั่วไปจะประกอบด้วย **“หมวดหลักและหมวดย่อย”** (core categories & subcategories) ในขั้นตอนนี้นักวิจัยจะสามารถกำหนดหมวดหลักและหมวดย่อยได้หลายหมวดหลักและหลายหมวดย่อย ทั้งนี้ในระดับหมวดย่อยอาจประกอบด้วย “คุณลักษณะ” (attributes or characteristics) ด้วยก็ได้ ดังกรณีตัวอย่างการเปิดรหัสเกี่ยวกับ “บทบาทของผู้บริหารสถานศึกษา” ในตาราง 1

ตาราง 1 การจำแนกข้อมูลเป็นหมวดหลักและหมวดย่อยในขั้นตอนการเปิดรหัส

หมวด (categories)	แหล่งข้อมูล (sources)
บทบาทเชิงวิชาการ (หมวดหลัก)	1, 3,7,9,10,11,13,16,18,19,23, M, F
● เป็นต้นแบบ (หมวดย่อย)	7,12,15,16,18,19,22,25,26, O, F
- รู้สึกในงาน (หมวดย่อยๆ - คุณลักษณะ)	6,8,9,11,15,17,19,21,25,28,29, M, F
- ปฏิบัติเป็น	4,6,8,13,14,16,19,25,27,30,36, J, M
- มีผลงานที่ยอมรับ	5,10,12,14,16,17,19, M
● พัฒนาการเรียนรู้นักเรียน	
บทบาทความสัมพันธ์บุคคล	8,9,12,13,15,17,18,19, F, J
● ทำงานเป็นทีม	9,12,15,24,26,31,35,36, M, J, O
● พัฒนาเครือข่าย	
บทบาทความเป็นผู้นำ	18, 19, 24, 26, 27, 33, M, J
● กระตุ้นส่งเสริม	14, 15, 18,19,22,25,29,34,36, J, O
● ท้าทายให้กำลังใจ	

สัญญบักษณ์แหล่งข้อมูล
การสัมภาษณ์
M การบันทึก
O การสังเกต
J อนุทิน
F การสนทนากลุ่ม

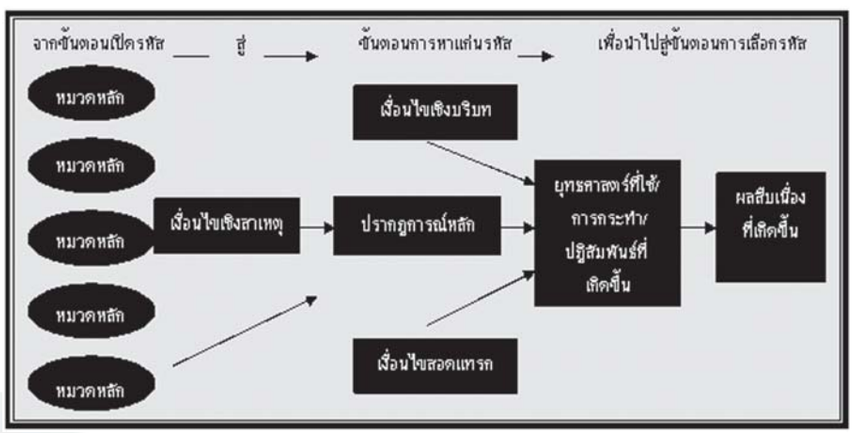
จากตาราง 1 มีข้อสังเกตว่า การจัด **"ข้อมูล"** รวมกันเป็นกลุ่มที่มีความหมายนั้น ระบบคิดและการดำเนินงานของนักวิจัยจะเริ่มต้นที่ **"ข้อมูลดิบ"** (raw data) ที่รวบรวมได้จากแหล่งต่างๆ เช่น การสัมภาษณ์ การสังเกต การบันทึก อนุทิน และการสนทนากลุ่ม เป็นต้น แล้วนำ **"ข้อมูลดิบ"** นั้นซึ่งส่วนใหญ่จะเป็น **"บันทึกข้อความ"** มาค้นหาประเด็นเพื่อกำหนดเป็นหมวดย่อยในระดับที่เป็น **"คุณลักษณะ"** (attributes or characteristics) บางครั้งเรียกว่า **"ตัวบ่งชี้"** (indicators) และเมื่อได้คุณลักษณะหรือตัวบ่งชี้เพียงพอแล้ว ก็นำเอา**"คุณลักษณะหรือตัวบ่งชี้"** ที่เข้าพวกเดียวกัน มากำหนดเป็นหมวดย่อยในระดับที่เป็น **"รหัส"** (code) บางตำราเรียก **"มโนทัศน์"** (concepts) เมื่อได้รหัสหรือมโนทัศน์เพียงพอ ก็จัด **"รหัสหรือมโนทัศน์"** ที่เข้าพวกเดียวกัน มากำหนดเป็นหมวดหลักในระดับที่เป็น **"หมวด"** (category/theme) -ดูภาพ 5 ประกอบ

ระบบคิดและระบบการทำงานเช่นนี้ เป็นไปตามหลักการเชิงอุปมาน (Inductive) ของการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพ (จากลักษณะเฉพาะไปสู่ลักษณะทั่วไป) โดยเริ่มจากการลงภาคสนามเพื่อให้ได้ข้อมูลดิบที่จะนำไปสู่กระบวนการตามลำดับดังนี้ **"ข้อมูลดิบ - คุณลักษณะ/ตัวบ่งชี้ - รหัส/มโนทัศน์ - หมวด"** หากหลายๆ "หมวด" จัดให้เชื่อมโยงกันก็จะเป็น **"ข้อเสนอเชิงทฤษฎี"** ที่ได้จากการวิจัย ซึ่งระบบคิดระบบการทำงานเช่นนี้จะตรงข้ามกับหลักการเชิงอนุมาน (deductive) ของการวิจัยเชิงปริมาณ (จากลักษณะทั่วไปสู่ลักษณะเฉพาะ) โดยเริ่มจากการศึกษาวรรณกรรมที่เกี่ยวข้องทั้งทฤษฎีและงานวิจัยเพื่อกำหนด **"ตัวแปร/ปัจจัย/องค์ประกอบหลัก - ตัวแปร/ปัจจัย/องค์ประกอบย่อย - คุณลักษณะ/ตัวบ่งชี้"** ในลักษณะที่เชื่อมโยงกันเป็น **"กรอบแนวคิดเชิงทฤษฎี"** ที่จะนำไปทดสอบกับข้อมูลเชิงประจักษ์ที่เก็บจากกลุ่มตัวอย่างของประชากรที่ศึกษา

การหาแก่นของรหัส (axial coding) เป็นการเลือก (select) หมวดหลัก จากหมวดใดหมวดหนึ่งที่กำหนดได้ในขั้นตอนการเปิดรหัส (one open coding category) เพื่อกำหนดให้เป็น **"ปรากฏการณ์หลัก"** (core phenomenon) ของ "กระบวนการ" ในเรื่องที่วิจัย จากนั้นเป็นการกำหนดความสัมพันธ์ของหมวดหลักอื่นที่เหลือเข้ากับปรากฏการณ์หลักที่กำหนดนั้น **โดยหมวดหลักอื่นเหล่านั้น**

- บางหมวดเป็นเงื่อนไขเชิงสาเหตุ (causal conditions) ที่ส่งผลต่อปรากฏการณ์หลัก
- บางหมวดเป็นยุทธศาสตร์ (strategies) ที่นำมาใช้ หรือเป็นการกระทำ(action) หรือปฏิสัมพันธ์ (interaction) ที่เกิดขึ้น อันเป็นผลจากปรากฏการณ์หลักนั้น
- บางหมวดเป็นเงื่อนไขเชิงสถานการณ์ที่มีอิทธิพลต่อการใช้ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ โดยจำแนกออกเป็นเงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท (contextual conditions) ที่มีความเฉพาะเจาะจง และเงื่อนไขสอดแทรก (intervening conditions) ที่มีลักษณะกว้างขึ้น
- บางหมวดเป็นผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น (consequences) จากการใช้ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์

ท้ายสุดจะได้ **"รูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี"** (development of a logic paradigm or a visual picture of the theory generated) เป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผล (logic) ระหว่างเงื่อนไขเชิงสาเหตุ ปรากฏการณ์หลัก ยุทธศาสตร์ เงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท เงื่อนไขสอดแทรก และผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น ซึ่งถือเป็น **"รูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎี"** (theoretical model) ดังแสดงในภาพ 2



ภาพ 2 รูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี

การเลือกรหัส (selective coding) เป็นการ **"เขียนทฤษฎี"** จากรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี หรือรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลระหว่างเงื่อนไขเชิงสาเหตุ ปรากฏการณ์หลัก ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ เงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท เงื่อนไขสอดแทรก และผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น ที่จัดทำได้ในขั้นตอนการหาแก่นของรหัส (axial coding) เป็นการเขียนทฤษฎีในลักษณะที่อธิบายถึง **"กระบวนการ"** ในประเด็นการวิจัย โดยใช้เทคนิค story line และใช้บันทึกส่วนตัว (personal memos) ที่บันทึกไว้เป็นข้อมูลประกอบการเขียน โดยนักวิจัยจะต้องตรวจสอบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผล (logic) ระหว่างเงื่อนไขเชิงสาเหตุ ปรากฏการณ์หลัก ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ เงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท เงื่อนไขสอดแทรก และผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้นอยู่ตลอดเวลาด้วย ซึ่งการดำเนินงานตามขั้นตอนดังกล่าว จะทำให้ "ทฤษฎี" (theory) ที่เกิดจากรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎีดังแสดงในภาพ 2 มีความชัดแจ้ง (explicit) ขึ้น

2) รูปแบบเกิดขึ้นใหม่ของ Glaser (1992) ดังกล่าวแล้วว่า Glaser ได้ร่วมงานวิจัยกับ Strauss ช่วงทศวรรษ 1960 และร่วมกันเขียนหนังสือชื่อ The Discovery of Grounded Theory แต่ในระยะต่อมาได้แยกเป็นอิสระจากกัน Glaser ได้เสนอแนวคิดเชิงวิพากษ์ต่อรูปแบบการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากของ Strauss ว่า เน้นความเป็นระบบ กฎเกณฑ์ การปฏิบัติที่ยึดกรอบแนวคิดในการจำแนกหมวด (categories) และมีแนวโน้มที่จะเป็นการตรวจสอบหรือทดสอบทฤษฎีมากกว่าการก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎี ดังนั้น จึงได้เสนอแนวคิดของเขาว่า ควรให้ทฤษฎีก่อเกิดขึ้นมาจากข้อมูลอย่างเป็นธรรมชาติมากกว่าการกำหนดเป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลก่อน ความเป็นทฤษฎีฐานรากอยู่ที่ตัวข้อมูลที่ไม่ควรนำเอาไปจัดเป็นหมวดๆ หากจะกำหนดเป็นหมวดๆ ควรกลั่นกรองให้มีน้อยเท่าที่จะน้อยได้ วัตถุประสงค์ในการวิจัยก็เพื่อให้นักวิจัยได้อธิบายถึง **"กระบวนการพื้นฐานทางสังคม"** (basic social process) อธิบายเหตุการณ์หนึ่งเปรียบเทียบกับอีกเหตุการณ์หนึ่ง (incident) หรือเหตุการณ์หนึ่งกับหมวดหนึ่ง (category) และหมวดหนึ่งกับอีกหมวดหนึ่ง เพื่อนำเสนอทฤษฎีที่เกิดขึ้นใหม่โดยการอภิปรายถึงความสัมพันธ์กันของหมวด (categories) ต่างๆ โดยไม่ต้องอาศัยรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผล ทฤษฎีที่เกิดขึ้นใหม่นั้นควรเป็นไปตามเกณฑ์ 4 เกณฑ์ คือ เข้ากันได้กับสถานการณ์จริง (fit) ตามการมองเห็นของนักวิจัย นักปฏิบัติ และผู้มีส่วนร่วมในปรากฏการณ์ สามารถที่จะนำไปใช้อย่างได้ผล (work) ตรงกับประเด็นหรือกับปัญหา (relevance) และสามารถปรับเปลี่ยนได้ (modifiability) หากพบข้อมูลใหม่เพิ่มเติม

3) รูปแบบการสร้างของ Charmaz (1990, 2000, 2006) เป็นนักวิจัยหลังยุคทันสมัย (postmodern researchers) ที่ให้ความสำคัญกับวิธีการ (methods) ซึ่งโดยภาพรวมรูปแบบนี้เน้นไปที่ความหมาย (meanings) ที่ได้รับจากผู้มีส่วนร่วมในการวิจัย ให้ความสนใจไปที่ทัศนะ (views) ค่านิยม (values) ความเชื่อ (beliefs) ความรู้สึก (feeling) ข้อสันนิษฐาน (assumptions) และอุดมการณ์ (ideologies) จากแต่ละบุคคล มากกว่าการรวบรวมข้อเท็จจริงและคำอธิบายการกระทำ อะไรก็ตามที่จะทำให้ประสบการณ์มัวลงหรือพร่าลง เช่น นิยามที่ซับซ้อนหรือไม่ชัดเจน หรือรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผล ไม่มีควรให้มีขึ้นในทฤษฎีฐานราก ควรนำเอารหัสอื่นที่ชัดเจนกว่า (active code) มาเป็นแนวคิดเพื่อเกาะติดประสบการณ์ของแต่ละบุคคล และในกระบวนการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากไม่ควรทำให้บทบาทของนักวิจัยลดลง นักวิจัยสามารถทำการตัดสินใจเกี่ยวกับ "หมวด" (categories) ได้ตลอดระยะเวลาของการทำวิจัย นักวิจัยจะมีคำถามที่ชัดเจนในตนเองเพื่อการเก็บข้อมูล พร้อมกับมีแนวคิดทางสังคมวิทยาหรือแนวคิดเชิงทฤษฎีติดตัวลงไปเพื่อให้มีความไวเชิงทฤษฎี (theoretical sensitivity) ในทุกขั้นตอนของการวิจัย นักวิจัยสามารถจะนำเอาค่านิยม ประสบการณ์ และการให้ความสำคัญ (priorities) ของตนมาใช้ได้ และข้อสรุปของทฤษฎีที่พัฒนาขึ้นจะมีลักษณะเป็นเชิงเสนอแนะ (suggestive) ยังไม่สมบูรณ์ (incomplete) และยังไม่มีข้อพิสูจน์ลงตัว (inconclusive)

ในการนำแนวคิดของรูปแบบนี้ไปใช้ นักวิจัยจะอธิบายถึงความรู้สึกของแต่ละบุคคลถึงประสบการณ์ที่มีต่อปรากฏการณ์หรือกระบวนการที่ศึกษา จะกล่าวถึงความเชื่อและค่านิยมของนักวิจัยเองละเว้นการกำหนดหมวด (categories) ไว้ล่วงหน้า เขียนคำพรรณนาเป็นเชิงอธิบาย (explanatory) ยืดยาว (discursive) และเป็นเชิงสวบสวน (probing) ถึงข้อสันนิษฐานและความหมายที่ได้รับจากบุคคลในปรากฏการณ์ที่ศึกษา ดังกรณีการศึกษาเรื่อง "What it means to have a disease" ของ Charmaz ในปี

1994 ซึ่งได้เขียนรายงานความรู้สึกของบุคคลในปรากฏการณ์ โดยใช้รหัสที่ชัดเจน (active code) เช่น awakening, accommodating, defining, preserving แสดงถึงกระบวนการพื้นฐานของประสบการณ์ โดยได้เชื่อมโยงความสัมพันธ์ของประสบการณ์ (experiences) เงื่อนไข (conditions) และผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น (consequences) เป็นคำอภิปรายเชิงพรรณนา (narrative discussion)

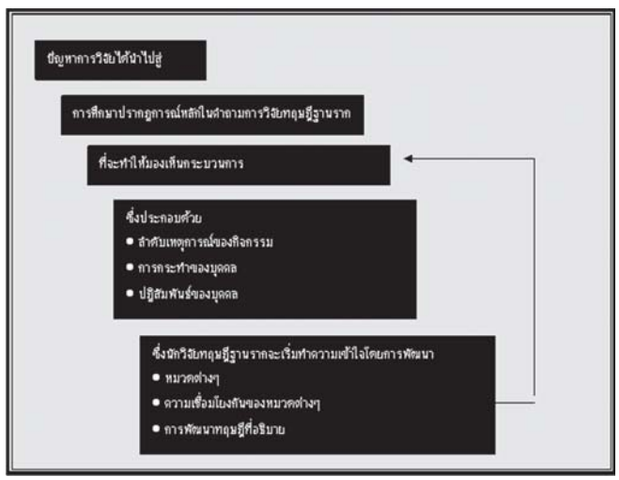
การเลือกใช้รูปแบบ

Creswell (2008) กล่าวว่า การเลือกใช้รูปแบบสามรูปแบบดังกล่าวข้างต้น มีข้อควรพิจารณาหลายประการ เช่น ต้องการเน้นกระบวนการเชิงระบบมากน้อยเพียงใด ต้องการกำหนดหมวดเพื่อการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลหรือไม่ สถานะของนักวิจัยเป็นอย่างไร วิธีการที่ใช้ในการสรุปผลการวิจัยจะเป็นการตั้งคำถามทิ้งไว้หลวมๆ หรือจะให้เป็นข้อสมมติฐานที่เฉพาะเจาะจง เป็นต้น แต่อย่างไรก็ตาม นักวิจัยหน้าใหม่ส่วนมากมักนิยมใช้รูปแบบเชิงระบบของ Strauss & Corbin เนื่องจากมีความชัดเจนในกระบวนการทำวิจัย แต่ก็มีข้อเตือนใจว่า รูปแบบนี้อาจจะทำให้ผูกพันกับ “หมวด” ต่างๆ ที่จำแนกได้ก่อนล่วงหน้า และอาจจะทำให้ขาดความลึกในกรอบแนวคิด และนอกจากนั้น ทุกรูปแบบต่างมีการใช้ภาษาที่แตกต่างกันที่นักวิชาการบางคนอาจยังไม่ชัดเจน จึงจำเป็นจะต้องมีการให้นิยามที่รอบคอบและชัดเจนขึ้น ขณะเดียวกันก็เกิดทัศนะใหม่อื่นๆ ขึ้นมาอีกอย่างต่อเนื่อง

ลักษณะสำคัญของการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากสามารถจะรวมแนวคิดสำคัญของทั้งสามรูปแบบเข้าด้วยกันได้ เป็น 6 ลักษณะสำคัญที่นักวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากได้ใช้เพื่อการออกแบบงานวิจัย คือ 1) เป็นวิธีการเชิงกระบวนการ (process approach) 2) เป็นการเลือกตัวอย่างเชิงทฤษฎี (theoretical sampling) 3) เป็นการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงเปรียบเทียบอย่างต่อเนื่อง (constant comparative data analysis) 4) มีหมวดหลัก 1 หมวด (a core category) 5) ก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎี (theory generation) 6) มีการบันทึก (memos) โดยจะกล่าวถึงสาระสำคัญของแต่ละลักษณะดังนี้ (Creswell, 2008)

1) เป็นวิธีการเชิงกระบวนการ (process approach) เนื่องจากโลกทางสังคมเป็นเรื่องของผู้คนที่มีปฏิสัมพันธ์ต่อกัน เป็นปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่นักวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากต้องการทำความเข้าใจถึง **“กระบวนการ”** ของผู้คนเหล่านั้นกับหัวข้อการวิจัยที่กำหนด ดังนั้น **กระบวนการในการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากจึงหมายถึงลำดับเหตุการณ์ของการกระทำและการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์กันของบุคคลและเหตุการณ์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับหัวข้อการวิจัย** (หัวข้อการวิจัยอาจเป็นเรื่องการป้องกันโรคเอดส์ การประเมินผลสัมฤทธิ์ของนักเรียน การให้คำปรึกษาของอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษากับนักเรียน เป็นต้น) ซึ่งจากหัวข้อการวิจัยนั้น นักวิจัยสามารถจำแนกและกำหนดการกระทำและการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์ของบุคคลออกเป็น “หมวด” (categories) ได้หลายหมวด ซึ่งคำว่า “หมวด” นี้ในนิยามของการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากหมายถึง แก่น หัวข้อ หรือใจความ (themes) ของสารสนเทศที่นักวิจัยกำหนดจากข้อมูลเพื่อใช้ทำความเข้าใจถึงกระบวนการใดกระบวนการหนึ่ง ซึ่งจากที่กล่าวมา แสดงภาพประกอบถึงวิธีการเชิงกระบวนการได้ดังภาพ 3



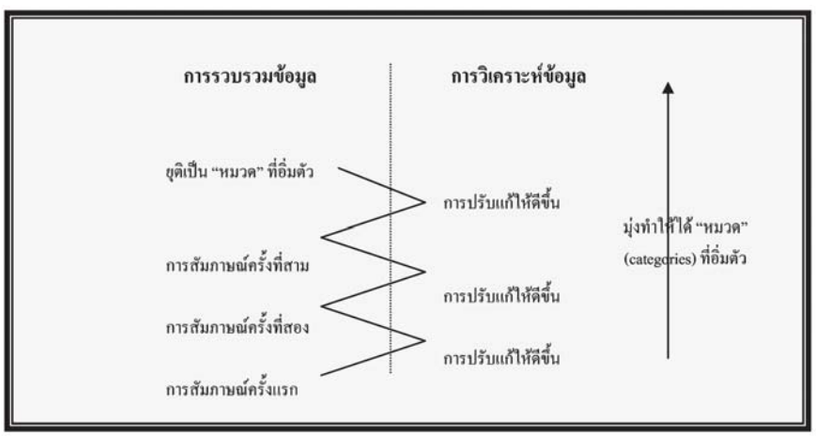
ภาพ 3 วิธีการเชิงกระบวนการในการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก

ยกตัวอย่างประกอบ เช่น หากต้องการศึกษาจากปัญหาการวิจัยว่า **"ผู้บริหารสร้างความสมดุลในชีวิตการทำงานและชีวิตส่วนตัวอย่างไร"** จากปัญหาการวิจัยนี้ได้นำไปสู่**ปรากฏการณ์หลัก คือ "ความสมดุลในชีวิตการทำงานและชีวิตส่วนตัว"** ในการศึกษาปรากฏการณ์หลักนี้ นักวิจัยจะกำหนดกรอบแนวคิดเป็นกระบวนการ (process) เช่น อาจเป็น "กระบวนการที่ผู้บริหารใช้เพื่อสร้างความสมดุลในชีวิตการทำงานและชีวิตส่วนตัว" **ซึ่งไม่ว่าจะเป็นกระบวนการอะไร จะเป็นกระบวนการที่แสดงถึงลำดับเหตุการณ์ของกิจกรรม การกระทำของบุคคล และการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์ของบุคคล** ในกรณีตัวอย่างนี้คือลำดับเหตุการณ์ของกิจกรรม การกระทำ และการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์ของผู้บริหาร ที่อาจได้ข้อมูลมาจากการสังเกต การสัมภาษณ์และหรือการสนทนากลุ่ม ซึ่งเพื่อให้เกิดความเข้าใจในกระบวนการที่ผู้บริหารใช้เพื่อความสมดุลในชีวิตการทำงานและชีวิตส่วนตัวนี้ นักวิจัยจะจัด "หมวด" โดยอ้างอิงเหตุการณ์มาสนับสนุน "หมวด" ที่จัดนั้น ขั้นตอนนี้ถือเป็นการเปิดรหัส (open coding phase) จากนั้นนักวิจัยจะจัดหมวดต่างๆ ที่จัดได้เหล่านั้นเป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี ซึ่งเป็นรูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎี (theoretical model) เป็นขั้นตอนการหาแก่นของรหัส (axial coding) การสร้างความเชื่อมโยงหรือความสัมพันธ์กันของหมวดต่างๆ เหล่านั้น แล้วเขียนนำเสนอ **"ทฤษฎี"** เพื่ออธิบาย "กระบวนการที่ผู้บริหารใช้เพื่อสร้างความสมดุลในชีวิตการทำงานและชีวิตส่วนตัว" ที่กำหนดไว้ก่อนหน้านั้น

2) เป็นการเลือกตัวอย่างเชิงทฤษฎี (Theoretical Sampling) เกี่ยวกับการรวบรวมข้อมูล ซึ่งในการวิจัยนั้นนักวิจัยอาจใช้วิธีการสังเกต การสนทนา การสัมภาษณ์ การบันทึกสาธารณะ บันทึกประจำวันหรืออนุทินของผู้ให้ข้อมูล รวมทั้งบันทึกความเห็นส่วนตัวของผู้วิจัยเอง (personal reflections) ซึ่งในบรรดาวิธีการเหล่านั้น นักวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากดูจะให้ความสำคัญกับ "การสัมภาษณ์" ว่าจะช่วยให้ได้ข้อเท็จจริงจากผู้ให้ข้อมูลได้ดีกว่า

ในการเลือกตัวอย่างบุคคลเพื่อการสัมภาษณ์หรือการสังเกต หรืออื่นๆ เพื่อการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลในการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากนั้นจะแตกต่างจากการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพอื่นๆ โดยการเลือกตัวอย่างเชิงทฤษฎี (theoretical sampling) ในการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากจะมุ่งไปที่บุคคลที่จะทำให้ได้ข้อมูลที่จะก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎีเป็นสำคัญ เช่น ในการศึกษากระบวนการเลือกเพื่อการเรียนต่อในโรงเรียน **บุคคลที่จะให้ข้อมูลได้ดีที่สุด** คือ นักเรียนและผู้ปกครอง สำหรับบุคคลอื่น เช่น ผู้บริหาร ครูผู้สอน เป็นต้น จะมีความสำคัญรองลงไป ดังนั้น ในการวิจัยเรื่องนี้ นักวิจัยจะเริ่มต้นเก็บข้อมูลจากนักเรียนและผู้ปกครองก่อนเป็นลำดับแรก

นอกจากนั้น ในการรวบรวมข้อมูลเพื่อก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎีนั้น อาจนำแนวคิดเกี่ยวกับกระบวนการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลจากรูปแบบเกิดขึ้นใหม่ของ Glaser มาใช้ได้ เรียกว่า **"วิธีการย้อนไปมา"** (zigzag approach) เป็นกระบวนการที่นักวิจัยได้รวบรวมข้อมูล และมีการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลในทันที ไม่รอจนกว่าจะรวบรวมข้อมูลได้ทั้งหมด ซึ่งการเก็บรวมรวบข้อมูลในลักษณะนี้จะทำให้เกิดการตัดสินใจได้ว่าจะเก็บข้อมูลอะไรอีก จากใครอีก ซึ่งจะทำให้มีการกลั่นกรองและปรับแก่ **"หมวด"** (categories) ที่กำหนดเป็นระยะๆ ย้อนกลับไปกลับมา จนเห็นว่าถึง **"จุดอิ่มตัว"** (saturation) ที่ไม่มีข้อมูลใหม่เพิ่มขึ้นอีก หรือไม่มีใครจะให้ข้อมูลนั้นเพิ่มเติมอีก ซึ่งกระบวนการดังกล่าว แสดงให้เห็นดังภาพ 4

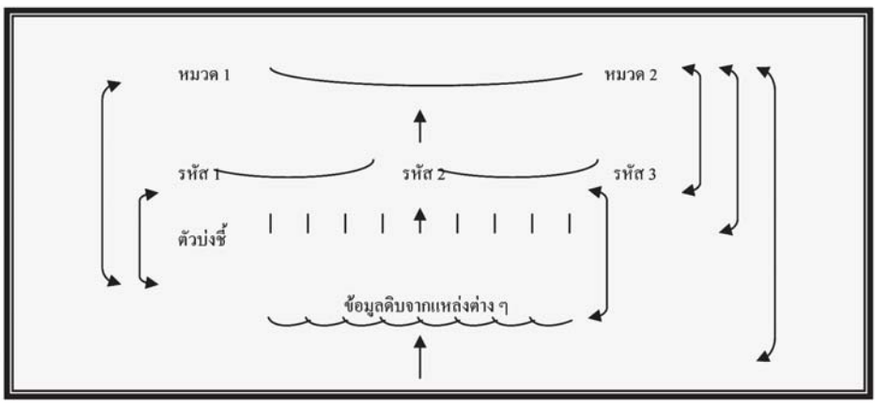


ภาพ 4 กระบวนการเก็บข้อมูลด้วยวิธีการย้อนไปมา (zigzag approach)

Locke (2001) ให้ทัศนะเกี่ยวกับแนวทางการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล การตรวจสอบข้อมูล และการตรวจสอบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลด้วยว่า นักวิจัยควรมีคำถาม Who? What? Where? When? Why? How? And with what consequences? อยู่ในใจเสมอ และให้คำนึงถึง **"ชุดของคำถาม"** ที่เขาเรียกว่า **"6 C's"** ดังนี้

C1 - Context: เกิดขึ้นในบริบทเช่นไร ?
C2 - Conditions: เกิดขึ้นภายใต้เงื่อนไขอะไร ? จะเพิ่มขึ้นหรือลดลงภายใต้เงื่อนไขอะไร ?
C3 - Causes: เกิดจากสาเหตุอะไร ?
C4 - Covariance การเปลี่ยนแปลงใน "หมวด" หนึ่งส่งผลต่อการเปลี่ยนแปลงใน "หมวด" อื่น หรือไม่ ?
C5 - Contingencies ขึ้นกับสถานการณ์อะไร ?
C6 - Consequences ผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้นคืออะไร

3) เป็นการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงเปรียบเทียบอย่างต่อเนื่อง (constant comparative data analysis) ในการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากนักวิจัยจะเกี่ยวข้องในกระบวนการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล การจัดกระทำกับข้อมูลเพื่อจำแนกเป็น "หมวดๆ" การเก็บสารสนเทศเพิ่มเติม และการเปรียบเทียบสารสนเทศใหม่ที่ได้กับ "หมวดต่างๆ" ที่กำลังเกิดขึ้น เป็นกระบวนการพัฒนา "หมวด" ที่เป็นปฏิบัติการเชิงเปรียบเทียบอย่างต่อเนื่อง (constant comparison) ซึ่งถือเป็นกระบวนการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงอุปมาน (inductive) จากกรณีเฉพาะให้เป็นกรณีที่กว้างขึ้น (from specific to broad) เป็นการเปรียบเทียบข้อมูลระหว่างเหตุการณ์กับเหตุการณ์ (incidents) เหตุการณ์กับหมวด (categories) และหมวดกับหมวด โดยมีจุดมุ่งหมายเพื่อให้ได้ "หมวด" ที่มีฐานราก (ground) จากข้อมูลที่ได้มาในลักษณะเป็นตัวบ่งชี้ (indicators) ที่ได้มาจากหลากหลายแหล่ง แล้วนำมาจัดกลุ่ม (grouping) เป็นรหัส (codes) ได้หลายรหัส (เช่น รหัส 1 - รหัส 2 - รหัส 3 เป็นต้น) โดยกระบวนการเปรียบเทียบนี้ นักวิจัยจะต้องเปรียบเทียบตัวบ่งชี้กับตัวบ่งชี้ รหัสกับรหัส และหมวดกับหมวด อย่างต่อเนื่องตลอดระยะเวลาของการวิจัย ทั้งนี้เพื่อขจัดการมีมากเกินไป (redundancy) โดยนักวิจัยจะมีคำถามอยู่ในใจเสมอดังนี้ 1) ข้อมูลที่ศึกษาคืออะไร 2) หมวดอะไรหรือคุณลักษณะอะไรของหมวดอะไรที่เหตุการณ์นี้บ่งถึง 3) อะไรที่เกิดขึ้นจริงจากข้อมูลที่ได้มา 4) อะไรที่เป็นกระบวนการเชิงจิตวิทยาสังคมพื้นฐานหรือกระบวนการโครงสร้างทางสังคมที่เห็นได้จากการกระทำ แนวคิดดังกล่าว แสดงให้เห็นดังภาพ 5



ภาพ 5 กระบวนการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงเปรียบเทียบอย่างต่อเนื่อง

4) มีหมวดหลัก 1 หมวด (a core category) ในบรรดา **"หมวด"** ต่างๆ ที่กำหนดได้จากข้อมูลที่รวบรวมมา นักวิจัยจะเลือกหมวดหลัก 1 หมวด (a core category) เป็น **"ปรากฏการณ์หลัก"** สำหรับเสนอทฤษฎีฐานราก นั่นคือ หลังจากกำหนด "หมวด" ได้จำนวนหนึ่ง (8-10 หมวด ขึ้นกับฐานข้อมูลที่ได้มา) นักวิจัยจะเลือกหมวดหลัก 1 หมวด เพื่อเป็นพื้นฐานในการเขียนทฤษฎี (ย้อนดูภาพ 2) โดยมีปัจจัยหลายประการที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการเลือก เช่น

ความสัมพันธ์กับหมวดอื่น ความถี่ในการเกิดขึ้น การถึงจุดอิ่มตัวไวและง่าย และมีความชัดเจนที่จะพัฒนาเป็นทฤษฎี เป็นต้น อย่างไรก็ตาม มีเกณฑ์ที่ Strauss & Corbin ได้กำหนดไว้มีดังนี้ 1) จะต้องเป็นหมวดหลักหรือศูนย์กลาง (core/central category) ที่หมวดอื่นๆ สามารถมีความสัมพันธ์ด้วย 2) แสดงขึ้นบ่อยครั้งจากข้อมูลที่ได้มามีตัวบ่งชี้ที่ต่างชี้ถึงหมวดนั้น 3) การอธิบายที่เกี่ยวข้องความสัมพันธ์ของหมวดต่างๆ มีความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลและคงเส้นคงวา 5) ชื่อหรือวลีที่ใช้อธิบายหมวดหลักนั้นควรมีความเป็นนามธรรมเพียงพอ (sufficiently abstract) 6) คำอธิบายยังคงยึดถือได้อยู่ แม้เงื่อนไขแปรเปลี่ยนไป หรือแม้ปรากฏการณ์ที่แสดงออกดูจะมีอะไรบางอย่างแตกต่างไปจากเดิม

เพื่อความชัดเจน ศึกษาได้จากกรณี **“การพัฒนารูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎีขั้นตอนการปรับปรุงหลักสูตร”** ที่กำหนด **“ขั้นตอนการปรับปรุงหลักสูตร”** เป็น **“หมวดหลัก”** ที่ประกอบด้วยคุณลักษณะหรือหมวดย่อยอื่นๆ คือ การกำหนดให้มีการปรับปรุงหลักสูตร การคัดเลือกคณะกรรมการ แนวปฏิบัติของคณะกรรมการ การกำหนดทิศทางการออกแบบหลักสูตร การอนุมัติหลักสูตร และการอนุมัติรายวิชา นอกจากนั้น จากรูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎีได้แสดงให้เห็นถึงเงื่อนไขเชิงสาเหตุ เงื่อนไขที่ส่งผลต่อ “หมวดหลัก” เงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท และเงื่อนไขสอดแทรก (ในที่นี้กำหนดเป็นบริบทองค์การ) ที่ส่งผลต่อยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ รวมทั้งผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้นจากการใช้ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ นั้น ดังแสดงในภาพ 6

ภาพ 6 กรณีการพัฒนารูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎีที่กำหนด “ขั้นตอนการปรับปรุงหลักสูตร” เป็น “หมวดหลัก”

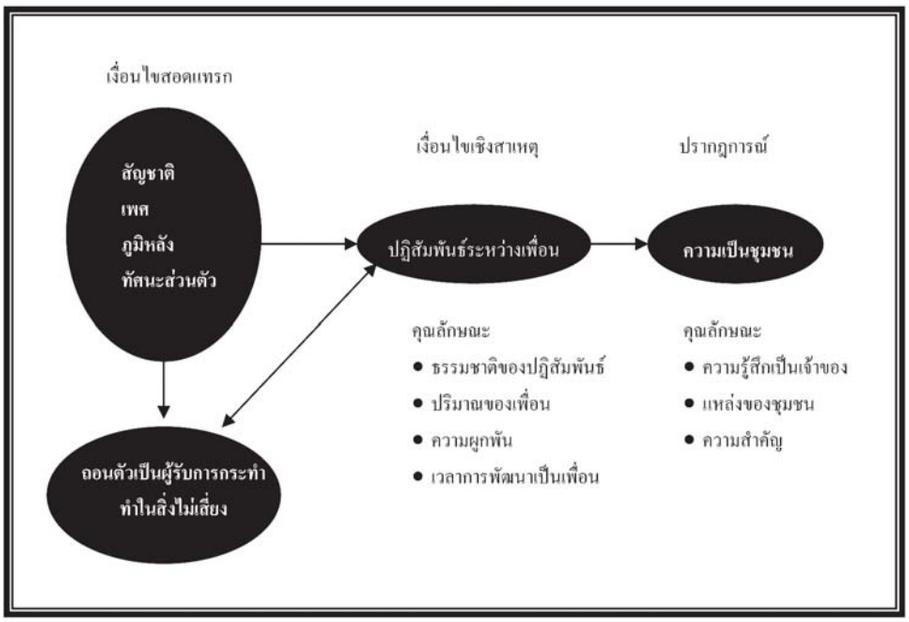
5) การก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎี (theory generation) กระบวนการวิจัยทุกขั้นตอนจะนำไปสู่การก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎีจากฐานข้อมูลที่นักวิจัยรวบรวมมาได้ โดย "ทฤษฎี" จากการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากนี้ จะเป็นการอธิบายอย่างกว้างๆ ต่อ "กระบวนการ" ในหัวข้อที่วิจัย โดยทฤษฎีจากการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก มีแนวทางการนำเสนอที่เป็นไปได้ 3 แนวทาง คือ

1) นำเสนอเป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี (development of a logic paradigm or a visual coding paradigm)

2) นำเสนอเป็นสมมติฐานหรือข้อเสนอเชิงทฤษฎี (theoretical hypotheses/propositions)

3) นำเสนอเป็นเรื่องเล่าเชิงบรรยาย (narrative form)

การนำเสนอทฤษฎีเป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี เป็นการนำเสนอตามทัศนะของ Strauss ซึ่งได้กล่าวถึงมาค่อนข้างมากในตอนต้น ส่วน**การนำเสนอเป็นสมมติฐานหรือข้อเสนอเชิงทฤษฎี** ในลักษณะที่เป็นข้อความที่แสดงให้เห็นถึงความสัมพันธ์ของ "หมวด" ต่างๆ นั้น อาจนำเสนอหลังจากการนำเสนอทฤษฎีเป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎีแล้ว ดังกรณีตัวอย่างการวิจัยเรื่อง "A Model of Ethnic Minority Students Process of Community Building" ของ Brown (1993 อ้างถึงใน Creswell, 2008) ดังภาพ 7 (ข้อสังเกต แผนภาพของ Brown จะแตกต่างจากแผนภาพตามทัศนะของ Strauss & Corbin)



ภาพ 7 การนำเสนอทฤษฎีเป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎีของ Brown

จากทฤษฎีที่นำเสนอเป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎีของ Brown ตามภาพ 7 นั้น Brown ได้นำเสนอสมมติฐานหรือข้อเสนอเชิงทฤษฎี (theoretical hypotheses/ propositions) ที่สอดคล้องกับรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎีนั้นด้วย ดังนี้

1) ปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างเพื่อนมีอิทธิพลต่อความเป็นชุมชน

2) ยิ่งมีเวลาอยู่กับกลุ่มเพื่อนมาก ความรู้สึกเป็นเจ้าของชุมชนจะมากขึ้น ยิ่งมีเวลาอยู่เพียงลำพังมากก็จะรู้สึกโดดเดี่ยวและแปลกแยกมากขึ้น

3) ยิ่งมีเวลาอยู่ในสถาบันและมีปฏิสัมพันธ์กับเพื่อนในที่พักมาก ก็ยิ่งมีความรู้สึกเป็นเจ้าของมากขึ้น

4) การมีส่วนร่วมอย่างเข้มแข็งในกลุ่มเล็กภายในสถาบัน เช่น ที่พัก กลุ่มเสวนา ทีมกีฬา สโมสร เป็นต้น เป็นสิ่งที่เสริมสร้างความรู้สึกเป็นชุมชน

สำหรับ**การนำเสนอเป็นเรื่องเล่าเชิงบรรยาย** (narrative form/descriptive story) นั้น ต้องอาศัยทักษะการเขียนของนักวิจัย ในการที่จะเรียบเรียงข้อมูลแล้วนำเสนอให้เห็นถึง “กระบวนการ” จากความสัมพันธ์ของ “หมวด” ต่าง ๆ ที่ค้นพบ ซึ่งแน่นอนว่า การเขียนนั้นจะไม่ใช่เป็นครั้งเดียวจบ จะต้องมีการปรับแก้ (refinement) หลายครั้งหลายหน

ทฤษฎี (theory) ที่ได้จากกระบวนการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก ควรได้รับการตรวจสอบความตรง (validation) ซึ่ง Creswell (2008) Willis (2007) Locke (2001) Leedy & Ormrod (2001) ต่างมีทัศนะตรงกันว่า เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากที่สำคัญซึ่งอาจกระทำได้ดังนี้ เช่น การตรวจสอบจากผู้มีส่วนร่วมในการวิจัยในลักษณะที่เรียกว่า member checks และการนำไปเปรียบเทียบกับทฤษฎีที่ศึกษาค้นคว้าเป็นวรรณกรรมที่เกี่ยวข้องในบทที่ 2 ว่าสอดคล้องหรือแย้งกันหรือไม่ อย่างไร เป็นต้น

6) มีการบันทึกของนักวิจัย (memos) โดยตลอดระยะเวลาของการวิจัยนักวิจัยจะต้องบันทึกข้อมูลให้ความคิด ความเห็น รวมทั้งความสังหรณ์ใจที่มีต่อข้อมูลและต่อ **“หมวด”** ที่จำแนกไว้ ซึ่งจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อการได้แนวคิดที่จะเก็บข้อมูลเพิ่มเติม หรือกำหนดแหล่งข้อมูลใหม่หรือไม่อย่างไร ตลอดจนการปรับข้อมูลเพื่อมิให้เกิดสภาพ **“ภูเขาข้อมูล”** (mountains of data) นอกจากนั้นยังใช้เป็นเครื่องมือที่จะได้เสวนากันเกี่ยวกับทฤษฎีที่จะก่อให้เกิดขึ้น อย่างไรก็ตาม ในการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากมักจะไม่นำเอา **“บันทึก”** นี้มาเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของรายงานการวิจัยด้วย

เกณฑ์ใช้ประเมินการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก

เกณฑ์ใช้ในการประเมินการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากในที่นี้ ข้อ 1-4 อ้างอิงจากเกณฑ์การประเมินทฤษฎีของ Glaser (1978, 1992) ข้อ 5-10 อ้างอิงจากเกณฑ์การประเมินกระบวนการวิจัยโดยรวมของ Strauss & Corbin (1990, 1998) โดยการตั้งคำถาม ดังนี้

1) มีความเชื่อมโยงกันอย่างเห็นได้ชัดหรือไม่ระหว่าง “หมวด” ต่าง ๆ กับข้อมูล

2) ทฤษฎีนั้นมีประโยชน์ต่อการอธิบายกระบวนการที่วิจัยได้ดีหรือไม่ หรือกล่าวง่ายๆ ว่าทฤษฎีนั้นใช้งานได้หรือไม่

3) ทฤษฎีนั้นได้อธิบายถึงความเกี่ยวพันกับของปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้นจริงกับกระบวนการที่ได้หรือไม่

4) ทฤษฎีนั้นได้รับการปรับเปลี่ยนหรือไม่ เมื่อมีเงื่อนไขเปลี่ยนแปลงไปหรือเมื่อมีการรวบรวมข้อมูลใหม่เพิ่มเติม

5) รูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎีได้รับการพัฒนาขึ้นหรือไม่ มีจุดมุ่งหมายเพื่อให้เกิดแนวคิดเกี่ยวกับกระบวนการการกระทำ หรือการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์หรือไม่

6) มีปรากฏการณ์ศูนย์กลางหรือปรากฏการณ์หลักเป็นหัวใจสำคัญของรูปแบบหรือไม่

7) รูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎีนั้นเกิดขึ้นจากกระบวนการเปิดรหัส การหาแก่นของรหัส การเลือกรหัส และการพัฒนารูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎีหรือไม่

8) นักวิจัยได้ตรวจสอบย้อนกลับไปมาของ “หมวด” ต่าง ๆ ในการวิจัยหรือไม่

9) นักวิจัยได้รวบรวมข้อมูลอย่างหลากหลายและกว้างขวางเพื่อให้เกิดความมั่นใจในความอิ่มตัวของข้อมูลหรือไม่

10) นักวิจัยได้ตรวจสอบความตรงของทฤษฎีนั้นโดยการตรวจสอบกับข้อมูล การตรวจสอบการสนับสนุนหรือการแย้งกันกับทฤษฎีที่ได้จากศึกษาวรรณกรรมที่เกี่ยวข้องหรือการตรวจสอบจากผู้มีส่วนร่วมในการวิจัยหรือไม่

สรุป

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากเกิดขึ้นปลายทศวรรษ 1960 โดยนักสังคมวิทยาสองท่าน คือ Barney G. Glaser และ Anselm L. Strauss เป็นชุดของการปฏิบัติที่ใช้เพื่อก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎีขึ้นมาอย่างเป็นระบบ เป็นทฤษฎีที่มีเป็นกรอบแนวคิดกว้างๆ เพื่ออธิบายกระบวนการใดกระบวนการหนึ่งของเหตุการณ์ กิจกรรม การกระทำ หรือการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์ตามหัวข้อการวิจัยที่กำหนด เหตุผลในการที่ต้องใช้ระเบียบวิธีการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก เนื่องจากต้องการได้ทฤษฎีใหม่ที่มีความเหมาะสมและสอดคล้องกับบริบท โดยยังไม่มีทฤษฎีใดจะนำมาอธิบายได้ หรือมีแต่ไม่มีความเหมาะสมที่จะนำมาใช้

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากแบ่งออกได้ 3 รูปแบบ คือ 1) รูปแบบเชิงระบบของ Strauss & Corbin 2) รูปแบบเกิดขึ้นใหม่ของ Glaser และ 3) รูปแบบการสร้างของ Charmaz

ในการปฏิบัติการวิจัย นิยมใช้รูปแบบเชิงระบบของ Strauss & Corbin ซึ่งเป็นรูปแบบที่เน้นขั้นตอนของการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลใน 4 ขั้นตอนคือ 1) การเปิดรหัส 2) การหาแก่นของรหัส 3) การเลือกรหัส 4) การพัฒนารูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี เพื่อนำเสนอเป็นข้อเสนอเชิงทฤษฎีจากการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก โดยในการดำเนินการวิจัยนั้น ข้อมูลในภาคสนามมีความสำคัญ นักวิจัยจะต้องอยู่ใกล้ชิดกับข้อมูลและแหล่งข้อมูลตลอดระยะเวลาของการวิจัย มีความไวเชิงทฤษฎี มีการตรวจสอบย้อนกลับไปมาจนกว่าจะถึงจุดอิ่มตัว

การวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากมีลักษณะที่สำคัญ 6 ลักษณะที่นักวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากได้ใช้เพื่อการออกแบบงานวิจัย คือ 1) เป็นวิธีการเชิงกระบวนการ 2) เป็นการเลือกตัวอย่างเชิงทฤษฎี 3) เป็นการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงเปรียบเทียบอย่างต่อเนื่อง 4) มีหมวดหลัก 1 หมวด 5) ก่อให้เกิดทฤษฎี และ 6) มีการบันทึกส่วนตัวของนักวิจัย

จากข้อสรุปดังกล่าว โดยเฉพาะจากรูปแบบการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากเชิงระบบของ Strauss & Corbin ผู้เขียนได้แนวคิดจาก Locke (2001) เกี่ยวกับการเป็น **รูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎีเชิงสาเหตุและผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น** (causal-consequence theoretical framework) หรือที่กล่าวข้างต้นว่าเป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี หรือรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลระหว่างปรากฏการณ์หลัก เงื่อนไขเชิงสาเหตุ ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ เงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท เงื่อนไขสอดแทรก และผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น ว่าหากนำเอารูปแบบนี้มาใช้เป็นกรอบแนวคิดเพื่อการวิจัยแล้ว ก็จะเป็นรูปแบบที่ก่อให้เกิดแนวคิดที่ชัดเจน ทั้งใน **“การตั้งคำถามการวิจัย”** และใน **“การหาคำตอบเพื่อตอบคำถามการวิจัย”**

กรณีที่เป็นการตั้งคำถามการวิจัย รูปแบบการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากเชิงระบบของ Strauss & Corbin จะให้แนวคิดที่ชัดเจนเกี่ยวกับการตั้งคำถามการวิจัยในเชิงเหตุผลสัมพันธ์ต่อกันดังนี้ว่า

1) ปรากฏการณ์หลักมีลักษณะเป็นอย่างไร (core phenomenon) เกิดจากสาเหตุอะไร (causal conditions)

2) ปรากฏการณ์หลัก (core phenomenon) มีอิทธิพลให้เกิดการใช้ยุทธศาสตร์อะไร/เกิดการกระทำอะไร/มีปฏิสัมพันธ์กันอย่างไร (strategies/action/interaction) โดยมีเงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท (contextual conditions) และเงื่อนไขสอดแทรก (intervening conditions) อะไรที่มีอิทธิพลต่อการใช้ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ (strategies/action/interaction) นั้นด้วย

3) การใช้ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ (strategies/action/interaction) ได้ก่อให้เกิดผลสืบเนื่อง (consequences) อะไรขึ้นมา

กรณีที่เป็นการหาคำตอบเพื่อตอบคำถามการวิจัย รูปแบบการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานรากเชิงระบบของ Strauss & Corbin ก็จะให้แนวคิดการสรุปหรือนำเสนอผลการวิจัยที่เป็น **“ทฤษฎีเชิงกระบวนการ”** (process theory) ที่มีองค์ประกอบของทฤษฎีตามคำถามการวิจัยนั้น คือ

1) ลักษณะของปรากฏการณ์หลัก (core phenomenon) และสาเหตุที่ทำให้เกิดปรากฏการณ์หลัก (causal conditions)

2) ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่เกิดขึ้นจากอิทธิพลของปรากฏการณ์หลัก (strategies) เงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท (contextual conditions) และเงื่อนไขสอดแทรก (intervening conditions)

3) ผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น (consequences) จากการใช้ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์

เมื่อได้คำตอบมาครบถ้วนทุกข้อคำถาม นักวิจัยจะได้ผลสรุปของการวิจัยเป็น “ทฤษฎีเชิงกระบวนการ” ในลักษณะที่เป็นรูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎีเชิงสาเหตุและผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น (causal-consequence theoretical framework) หรือรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลหรือแผนภาพของทฤษฎี หรือรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเหตุผลระหว่างเงื่อนไขเชิงสาเหตุ ปรากฏการณ์หลัก ยุทธศาสตร์/การกระทำ/ปฏิสัมพันธ์ เงื่อนไขเชิงบริบท เงื่อนไขสอดแทรก และผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้น ดังภาพ 8 ซึ่งแน่นอนว่า คำตอบที่ได้จากแต่ละข้อคำถามในองค์ประกอบต่างๆ ตามรูปแบบนี้จะต้องมีคำอธิบายด้วยจะเป็นก่อนหรือหลังการนำเสนอรูปแบบจะมีรายละเอียดเป็นอย่างไร ลักษณะใด ขึ้นกับการออกแบบการนำเสนอผลการวิจัย

ภาพ 8 ทฤษฎีเชิงกระบวนการ: รูปแบบเชิงทฤษฎีเชิงสาเหตุและผลสืบเนื่องที่เกิดขึ้นจากการวิจัยทฤษฎีฐานราก

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บทความ
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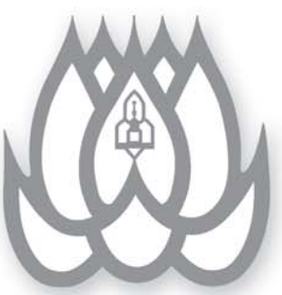

A Comparative Analysis of Doctor of Philosophy Programs in Educational Administration/Leadership Programs in the United States and Thailand

Banjob Boonchan

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to compare characteristics of the Educational Administration/Leadership Programs (Ph.D.) at Khon Khean University (KKU) and Washington State University (WSU). The findings showed that both programs provided a balance and integration of practical experience, theory, research, and policy. Applicants must possess a master's degree and must have a minimum of a 3.50 GPA. Part time students' tuition at KKU was higher than full time while at WSU, part time tuition was lower than full time and nonresident was higher than resident. Dissertation procedures at both Universities consisted of a qualifying examination, dissertation presentation and publication. Students at KKU took 63 semester credits but 62 were required at WSU.

Background

In an evolving global community doctoral students have access to some of the most modern research resources in the world. Research makes better teachers and role models (Mitchell, 2008). Institutions of higher education are increasingly asked to play a role in the broader movement towards internationalization and globalization (Jones, 1998). This specialization prepares for a broad range of administrative, supervisory, and leadership positions in education, business, government agencies, professional associations, and similar organizations.

Khon Khaen University (KKU) is the first university in the northeastern region of Thailand to be accredited as one of the top ten research centered universities in Thailand. (Commission on Higher Education, 2006) Its role is to serve manpower strengthening based on research knowledge. The doctoral program in educational administration provides a balance and integration of practical experience, theory, research, and policy. Khon Kaen Univeristy offers the Ph.D. program in educational administration and has worked in collaboration with Washington State University (WSU) for approximately ten years.

WSU is a world-class land grant university officially ranked among the best in the nation as a research based institution offering the Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree awarded by the Department of Educational Leadership and Counseling Psychology. (Graduate Studies WSU, 2008).

For most universities around the world, teaching and research go hand in hand and each supporting the other (Techadamrongsin, 1998). Both KKU and WSU agreed to establish and conduct mutually beneficial cooperative and collaborative projects, programs and/or activities to mutually enhance programs for both institutions. The collaboration between the two research universities in partnership focuses on developing and applying research knowledge and skills necessary to conduct theoretical and

applied research to add to the content of the field of study in education (Graduate School KKU, 2009).

This research study compared educational Ph.D administration/leadership program characteristics in terms of prominent attributes of doctoral programs including, requirements for admission, tuition costs, dissertation procedures, and coursework requirements. The ultimate goal of this comparative analysis was to analyze attributes of the WSU Ph.D program for possible inclusion-adaptation for consideration at KKU.

Significance of the Research

Universities in Thailand offer Ph.D. programs in educational administration/ leadership, however, these programs are often traditional and are offer somewhat limited opportunities to provide graduates with transformational leadership skills necessary to promote educational reform. The findings of this research may be useful to university presidents, graduate school officials, deans of colleges of education and chairpersons of educational administration/leadership programs in higher education for restructuring of programs for advancing globalization.

Research Questions

The research questions of this study focused on the following areas : 1) what were the prominent attributes of KKU and WSU's Educational Administration /Leadership Ph.D. Programs?, 2) what were comparative program requirements for admission?, 3) what were comparative tuition costs?, 4) what were comparative dissertation procedures?, and 5) what were comparative courses structures?

Research Methodology

This qualitative research study was conducted from February to May, 2009 using a content analysis design citing five (5) interrelated topics. This research design used the applied policy research approach of Majchrzak (1984) and Sanrattana (2008), which cited that other research ended with conclusions and recommendations whereas policy research continues. This study used a three step process. Step one was data collection using triangulation of data sources including books, textbooks, journals, bulletins, and internet information. Step two included estimating the probability of implementation using expert interviews. The data were qualitatively analyzed by manifest content analysis and classified according to themes and patterns that emerged. Step three drew conclusions and recommendations based on step one and step two.

Findings

1) The Prominent Attributes of the Educational Administration/Leadership Program (Ph.D.) at KKU:WSU

The degree program at KKU enhanced academic progress and research into diverse areas at a higher level than Master's degree. Two options of study emerged. Option one emphasized research and production of a thesis which expanded academic knowledge into new areas. Students were assigned courses, or other non-credit activities to establish background for generation of original research. It was divided into two groups: (1) those holding a Bachelor's degree had to cover 72 credits for their thesis; and (2) those holding a Master's degree had to cover 48 credits for their thesis. Option two placed emphasis on a qualified academic thesis other than assigned course study. It was divided into two groups: (1) those holding a Bachelor's degree covered 48 credits for their thesis and enrolled in other courses worth not less than 24 credits; and (2) those holding a Masters degree covered 36 credits for their thesis and covered study in other courses worth not less than 12 credits.

The Ph.D. program offered at WSU, one of the nations leading land-grant and research institutions and largest residential university campuses. The program provided a balance and integration of practical experience, theory, research, and policy. Candidates tailored their programs of study to meet their needs for careers.

2) Requirements for Admission at KKU:WSU

Applicants at KKU held a master's degree with a minimum of a 3.50 GPA. In addition, letters of reference and interviews confirmed that applicants possess good manners and are polite, diligent, patient, and healthy.

At WSU, student applications were reviewed holistically. To be considered for admittance, students needed to submit transcripts from all institutions attended. The committee looked for a minimum of a 3.0 GPA in undergraduate work and a 3.5 for graduate work. The committee also required students to take the Graduate Record Exam (GRE), on which a score of 1000, combined analytical and verbal, was expected. Three current recommendation letters from references were required.

3) Tuition Costs at KKU:WSU

The tuition costs per semester were 20,000 Baht ($ 579.44) for full time student and 50,000 Baht ($ 1,448.60) for part time student at KKU. In case, payment after deadline, students had to be charged.

At WSU for fulltime resident students (10-18 credits) tuition was $ 3,775.00, over 18 credits was an additional $ 354.00 per credit, and part time (less than 10 credits) was $378.00 per credit. Full time nonresidents (10-18 credits) paid $ 9,199.00, over 18 credits additional per credit was $ 896.00, and part time (less than 10 credits) was $920.00 per credit.

4) Dissertation Procedures at KKU:WSU

Doctoral students must pass the procedures as following:

1) evaluation criteria of English competency, doctoral students must be a minimum of TOEFL 500 or TOEFL 173 or IELTS 5.5 or TU-GET 550 or CU-TEP 70 or KKU 60. Majority of students failed and must be enrolled and passed English course before graduation.

2) qualifying examination

3) dissertation writing

4) dissertation presentation

5) final oral defense by committee which consisted of both inside-outside senior university, and must be done within 45 days after progressive evaluation with satisfactory (s), if not that evaluation was invalid.

6) dissertation was publicized in journal which with peer review acknowledged in that field. Sometime students needed dissemination but not precisely with journal of educational administration publicized.

Committee consist of chairman and co-advisor depend on case. Progressive evaluation will be done every semester by advisor. A dissertation defense committee is composed of at least two KKU faculty members, including chair/advisor and one another outside campus senior. The final decision determining whether the Ph.D. student passes or fails the final oral defense is contingent upon a vote of the committee. The vote is taken at a scheduled ballot meeting.

After passing the preliminary exam, students develop their dissertation proposal in consultation with the doctoral committee chair and the doctoral committee. The student is responsible for scheduling a meeting of the entire committee for presentation, defense, and approval of the proposal. Copies of the proposal should be distributed to the committee at least two weeks before the meeting. Pay graduation fee, microfilming fee, and copyright fee to the Controllers Office, for scheduling the final defense, submit a finished copy to the thesis editor for final checking at least 10 working days prior to the defense date. The concurrent enrollment in at least three hours of Ed Ad 800 is required.

5) Curriculum Structure

Courses	KKU	WSU
Foundation Courses	2 courses (Audit) ● Fundamental of Educational Administration ● Educational Foundation	1 of 2 courses (3 credits) ● Philosophy of Education ● Theoretical Foundations of Learning & Instruction
Core Courses, Required Courses	6 courses (18 credits) ● Strategic Plan and Integrative Change in Educational Organization ● Leadership and Organizational Be havioral Change ● Integration of Theories for Educational Administration ● Seminar in Educational Administration Research ● Seminar in Merit and Ethics of Edu cational Administration ● Seminar in Educational Quality and Knowledge Management	4 courses (12 credits) ● History of Higher Education ● Higher Education Law and Ethics ● Administration in Higher Education ● Practicum
Elective Courses	3 of 20 courses (9 credits) ● Innovation in Educational Admin istration ● Comparative Educational Adminis tration ● Research Proposal Development in Educational Administration ● Education and Socio-economic and Political Development ● Trends in Educational Technology and Innovation ● Seminar in Psychology of Instruction for Educational Administrator ● Environmental Planning and Management for Education ● Issues and Trends in Basic Education ● Management of Sports and Recreation in School and Community	3 of 17 courses (9 credits) ● Values and Ethics for educational Leadership ● Doctoral Dissertation Preparation ● Student Personnel Services in Higher Education ● Student development Theory, Research, and Application ● Professional Problems in Student Affairs ● Models of College Student Social Identity ● Seminar in Student Affairs ● Organizational Leadership of Multicultural Change

Courses	KKU	WSU
	● Advanced Statistics for Educational Research ● Relations between Family Community and School ● Administration and Supervision of Personnel ● Financial Management in Education ● Educational Human Resource Management ● School Facilities Planning and Maintenance ● Applications of Administrative and Instructional Technology ● Law and Educational Administration ● Issues in Higher Education Management ● Independent Study in Educational Administration ● Operational Research in Educational Administration	● Finance and Budgeting in Higher Education ● Community and Technical College ● Undergraduate and Community Technical College Teaching ● Issues in Higher Education ● Seminar in Higher Education ● Politics in Education ● Policy Formation and Analysis in Education ● Preparing Grant Proposals ● Leadership development Seminar
Research Core Courses	-	6 courses (18 credits) ● Epistemology, Inquiry, and Representation ● Fundamentals of Doctoral Research ● Fundamentals of Qualitative Research ● Advanced Educational Statistics ● Research Seminar ● Advanced Research Methods
Dissertation	3 semesters (36 credits)	1 semester (20 credits)
Cognate area	-	(12 hour minimum) in an area within the College of Education in Curriculum & Instruction, Sport Management, Counseling Psychology, or outside including Anthropology, Political Science, Business, Economics, Public Administration, Psychology, or Sociology
Total	63 credits	62 credits

The contents of some courses were improved due to outmoded.

Conclusions

1) Both programs provided a balance and integration of practical experience, theory, research, and policy.

2) KKU's applicant had to hold a master's degree and minimum of a 3.50 GPA. WSU's applications were considered for a minimum of a 3.0, 3.5 GPA in undergraduate and graduate work, consecutively.

3) KKU's tuition costs per semester were 20,000 Baht ($ 579.44) for full time student and 50,000 Baht (1,448.60) for part time student while WSU's resident; full time was $ 3,775.00 and part time was $ 378.00. Nonresidents; full time was $ 9,199.00 and part time was $ 920.00.

4) KKU's dissertation procedures were English competency, qualifying examination, working on dissertation writing, dissertation presentation, final oral defense, publication in journal. At WSU they were preliminary exam, dissertation proposal, final defense, and paying graduation fee. The concurrent enrollment in at least three hours of Ed Ad 800 was required.

5) KKU's curriculum structure was 27 credits consisting of foundation courses, core courses, elective courses, and dissertation for 36 credits, while WSU's curriculum included 42 credits consisting of foundation courses, requirement courses, elective courses, research core courses, dissertation for 20 credits, and cognate area 12 hour minimum.

Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, the researcher made the following recommendations regarding Ph.D. program comparison between the two universities:

1. Universities should modify regulations on tuition fee flexible to student periodly payment.

2. KKU should find out guidelines to enhance students' English compretence by varity activites such as were all taught both in English and Thai since English is the international language.

3. KKU should cooperate hand in hand with other educational institutions submitting doctoral student dissertation articles for publication which being a part of required graduation.

4. Universities should offer courses necessary to rapid progress and changes of technology, politic, and socio-economy have query to the efficiency and effectiveness of educational administration.

5. Universities should periodly follow up graduate quality in order to always abreast of the times improvement.

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A Comparison of Secondary Level in Education Accountability Systems between U.S.A and Thailand

Piangkhae Poopayang

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to compare secondary level education accountability systems between U.S.A and Thailand with a focus on policy, standards-based accountability curricula, assessment for student achievement and teacher accountability to recommend to the Ministry of Education in Thailand. The research suggests that Thailand shsould respond to incentives of accountability systems by setting goals of standards-based accountability system in the form of standards, assigns responsibilities for meeting those goals, and holds the system accountable for its performance. The Ministry of Education should change the role from ensuring compliance with regulations, to providing incentives and offering technical assistance to build school capacity. The accountability systems should be implemented as away of improving student outcomes.

Background

As a response to the necessity of education accountability systems in America, The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) institutionalizes the reliance on accountability and assessment systems as a key mechanism for improving student achievement (Linn, 2002; Smith, 2005; Lemann,2008). However, there is a fundamental tension between performance measurement systems, which serve stakeholders and public interest through monitoring, and those kinds of indicators where representations of program quality are oversimplified (Stake, 2001; Stufflebeam,1985). Evaluators are uniquely situated to make a significant contribution in the dialogue about the merits and shortcomings of educational accountability systems. Suggestions concerning how evaluation can contribute to improving and changing accountability systems are presented. (Aberanthy, 2004; Ellis, 2008)

Education reform in Thailand, important because of the quantitative increase in the number of students and of higher education institutions, has resulted in problems regarding quality and mismatching of graduate profiles and national development requirements and direction. (Ministry of Education, 2004; The Office Basic Education Commission, 2008). In view of these exigencies, the Thai Government established on December 9, 2002 the Education Reform Steering Committee under the chairmanship of the Deputy Prime Minister (The Office of Education Council, 2006; Chaisang, 2008).The committee is responsible for making decisions concerning the direction of the education reform, preparation of the relevant work plans, and supervision for implementation of the reform measures, including formulation of the requisite strategy.

The trend toward accountability is similar in both America and Thailand, and it is the focus of this study to identify aspects of the American system that could help improve the performance level of Thai children. The study analyzed and compared the similarities and differences in education accountability

systems in U.S.A and Thailand that focused on policy, standards-based accountability curricula and student achievement with the expectation of improving the performance level of all children in Thailand.

Significance of this research

The data and information from a comparison of secondary level education accountability systems between U.S.A and Thailand in this research can provide accountability requirements of education law and policy to improve the education accountability systems in Thailand.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to compare secondary level in education accountability systems between U.S.A and Thailand and to provide recommendations for improving the system in Thailand.

Methodology

This research was conducted during February, 2009 to August, 2010 using content analysis classified into desired issues. The method used was the applied policy research approach of Majchrzak (1984) and Sanrattana (2008). This method notes that other research ends with conclusion and recommendations, whereas policy research continues further by estimating the probability of implementation on propriety, feasibility, congruity, and utility. There were, thus, two steps. Step one was to study conclusions and recommendations by using triangulation of data sources from the accountability systems in U.S.A and Thailand such as text book and Internet searches and reviews of documents and journal articles. Step two was estimating the probability of implementation through interviews with those who are expert regarding education accountability systems in Thailand. The data were then qualitatively analyzed by manifest content analysis and classified according to themes and patterns that emerged.

Findings. The data indicated that :

1. Education accountability systems policy

In America - The passage of No Child Left Behind legislation and the publication of the National Research Council's Scientific Research in Education have generated much discussion and criticism of the call for educational research and evaluation that is more scientific. Some authors have indicated their concerns with the concepts and principles of scientific-based research. They have proposed that both qualitative and quantitative methods are critical for studying the structural, political, systemic issues that surround complex educational issues and organizations. These authors called for the creation of a space for public engagement to include the public's collective wisdom and experiences to discuss and deliberate educational issues and generate possible solutions.

In Thailand - Quality Assurance in Education has been designated by the Ministry of Education as the way to measure how schools maintain their own academic standards and quality. The output is the review and report on how schools meet their responsibilities, identify good practice and make recommendation for improvement. It also publishes guidelines to help institutions develop effective systems to ensure students have the best learning experience.

2. The accountability systems

In America - State Accountability Systems - Making states, districts and schools accountable for the performance of their students has become a popular topic among policymakers and the education community. After decades of focusing on inputs, such as funding levels, curriculum offerings and resources,

policymakers are now emphasizing student learning and achievement outcomes as the means of gauging an education system. This trend is referred to as a standards-based accountability system.

Standards-based accountability systems emphasize student achievement by setting goals in the form of standards. It holds the system accountable by assigning responsibilities for meeting those goals and attaching rewards and sanctions to specific performance levels. This new approach in education reform is a change from traditional systems that focused mainly on inputs as the mechanism for improvement. This shift in policy alters the state's role, as well. States are now expected to set standards, develop an assessment system and provide technical assistance to help build school capacity.

Statewide standards and assessments form the foundation of an effective standards-based accountability system. Standards need to be rigorous enough to challenge students, without being set so high that they are unachievable or discouraging. They need to be aligned with the curriculum so that the material being taught in the classrooms allows students to achieve the desired goals.

After establishing standards, state policymakers create statewide assessment systems that include report cards, accreditation, sanctions and rewards. Assessments need to be aligned with the curriculum and standards, as well. The material students are being tested on must align with what is being taught in class, and the assessments need to be developed so that students are being tested on their progress toward meeting the desired goals.

In Thailand - Quality in Education - From early 2001, the Ministry of Education began developing new National Curricula in an endeavor to model the system on student-centered learning methods. The years from 2001 to 2006 showed some of the greatest improvements in education, such as computers in the schools and an increase in the number of qualified native speaker teachers for foreign languages. Experiments had also been tried with restructuring the administrative regions for education, or partly decentralizing the responsibility of education to the provinces. By 2008, however, little real change had been felt, and many attempts to establish a clear form of university entrance qualification had also failed due to combinations of political interference, attempts to confer independence (or to remove it) on the universities, huge administrative errors, and inappropriate or mismatched syllabuses in the schools.

On return to democracy in early 2008, after the December election, the newly formed political party announced new allocations of funds for education, an increase in the number of teachers, and more changes to the national curriculum and university entrance system.

3. Standards-based accountability curricula

In America - Standards/Subject-matter benchmarks to measure students' academic achievement. Curriculum standards drive what students learn in the classroom. Most agree that public schools' academic standards need to be raised. However, there is national debate over how to implement such standards, how prescriptive they should be, and whether they should be national or local, voluntary or mandatory.

In Thailand - Academic standards need to clearly define what students should know and be able to do in core subjects at each grade level. They consist of content standards, which describe the body of education knowledge that all students should know (what they should know), and performance standards, which describe the level of student knowledge (how well they know it). Performance standards typically use defined levels, such as advanced, proficient, basic, or below basic, to measure student achievement. Together, content and performance

standards define what students should know at different grade levels and measure student progress at meeting these goals.

4. Assessment for student achievement

In America - An exercise such as a written test, portfolio, or experiment that seeks to measure a student's skills or knowledge in a subject matter. The criterion-referenced assessment uses a standardized test that is aligned with a state's academic standards and thus intended primarily to measure students' performance with respect to those standards rather than to the performance of their peers nationally. Norm-referenced assessment uses standardized tests designed primarily to compare the performance of students with that of their peers nationally. Such tests do not generally measure how students perform in relation to a state's own academic standards.

Standards-based accountability systems emphasize student achievement by setting goals in the form of standards. It holds the system accountable by assigning responsibilities for meeting those goals and attaching rewards and sanctions to specific performance levels. Parents are notified of student, school and district performance through report cards. This new approach in education reform is a change from traditional systems that focused mainly on inputs as the mechanism for improvement.

In Thailand - An assessment was used in the classroom to measure a student's skills and achievement, whereas the criterion referenced and norm referenced used standardized tests that are aligned with standard's based curriculum from standard testing organization. These assessments measure students' performance but tests do not generally measure how students perform in relation to a school's own academic standards.

The education accountability systems in Thailand can provide the needed assessment and accountability requirements by setting high standards for student achievement, measuring academic progress, publicly reporting each school's performance annually, and taking action when schools are not making adequate progress.

5. Accountability teacher/staff

In America - The concept of teacher accountability has become a code phrase for blaming teachers. It is taken to mean not just that teachers are supposed to be responsive to the needs of students or to provide high-quality instruction, but that they must see that their students have high test scores.

Focusing accountability on a state test causes teachers to narrow their curriculum to what is on the test and ignore other legitimate learning objectives. Threatening teachers undermines the very risk-taking approach that is needed from teachers in order to change instructional practices. Rewards and sanctions mostly serve to cause compliance rather than commitment.

In Thailand - Teachers do not have control over all the variables that lead to successful student performance on external tests. A large-scale test is too blunt an instrument to determine how well an individual student is learning.

The problems in Thailand that school teachers face in teaching include overload (too many students and not enough instructional time or time to correct student work), teachers' own lack of preparation for teaching, the absence of academic instruction in subjects, and difficulties in grading student work.

Recommendations

The results of this research indicate that Ministry of Education in Thailand should:

1) Develop a standards-based accountability system in the form of standards, assign responsibilities for meeting educational goals, and hold the system accountable for its performance.

2) Change the role of the Ministry from ensuring compliance with regulations to providing incentives and offering technical assistance to build school capacity.

3) Prescribe educational outcomes, but leave the choices about instructional methods and practices to the professional educators.

4) Provide federal funds for education to continue to implement standards-based accountability measures into the education system.

5) Provide support for more teachers so class sizes are smaller teachers have more time to do their work.

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A Comparative Analysis of Best Practice Instructional Management for Autistic Children in Thailand and USA.

Naruechon Laingarm

Abstract

This research analyzed educational approaches for intervention with autistic children practices in the USA and Thailand. Research and practice initiated in the USA can be helpful for promoting a new agenda for Thailand's emerging efforts with this population of diverse learners. Findings of this research included recommendations to the Thai Ministry of Education that the Kingdom institute an early intervention program, develop responsive early detection and intervention practices, focus on the strengths that autistic children, and develop responsive, best practice instructional methodology for school age autistic children. Thailand should also develop a national research center for the identification and development of emerging technologies and strategies for effective intervention and education of the autistic child.

Background

Autistic spectrum disorders (ASDs) are lifelong developmental disabilities that affect the way a person communicates and relates to people around them. (World Health Organization (WHO), 2008). It is a deep concern that the global burden of disease attributed to mental disorders continues to grow, particularly in developing countries. Autism spectrum disorders and other mental disorders among children bring significant economic hardships to families. (http://www.thaipr.net/nc/readnews.aspx) Dr. Benedetto Saracenos, director of Mental Health and Substance Abuse at WHO, stated that "a prioritized agenda for autism and other mental disorders in children should generate and strengthen the evidence base for cost-effective prevention and control strategies" (WHO, 2006).

The Office of Basic Educational Commission (OBE) included the autistic children with disabilities from mild level to severe level. In Thailand in 2000, there were a total of 6,554 autistic students enrolled in primary educational level, both formal education and non formal education. There were 5,038 students who did not receive education and service. (Worawan Na Ayutaya, 2006).

The Office of Basic Education Commission of Thailand had policy and guidelines for educational management for autistic students according to the following diagram:

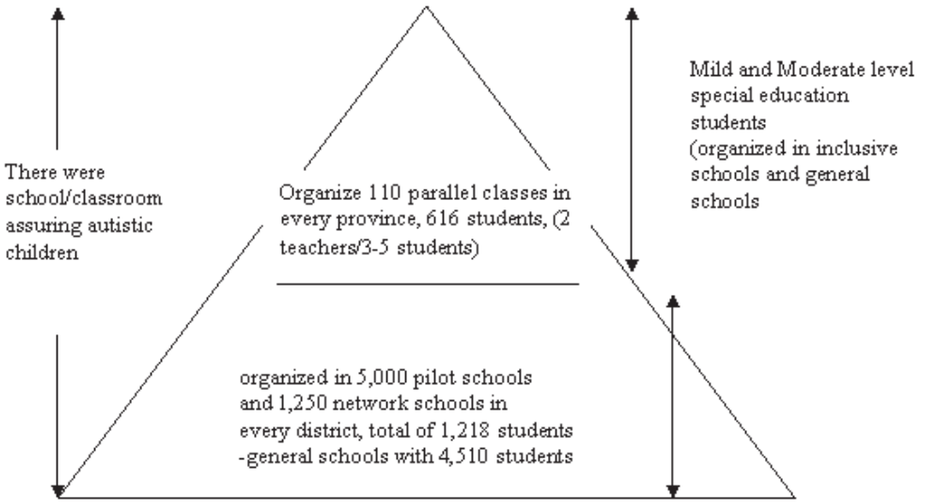

Figure 1 Policy and Guidelines for Educational Management for Autistic Students in Thailand (OBE, 2006)

Significance of the Research

Research on autism is critically important, as the condition is prevalent across the globe and is difficult to understand the etiology and best practice methodology. The results of this research could help parents and teachers with early detection and initiate best practice educational and family measures.

Objectives of the Research

The objectives of this research were to analyze best practices in instructional management for autistic children in Thailand and USA related to the following issues: 1) identify autistic spectrum disorder in the Thai context (ASD), 2) clarify signs and characteristics of autistic spectrum disorders, 3) analyze the strengths of children with an ASD., and 4) compare best practices of instructional methodology for autistic children in Thailand and USA.

Methodology

This qualitative research study was conducted during February to May, 2009, using a content analysis design citing five (5) interrelated topics. This research design used the applied policy research approach of Majchrzak (1984) and Sanrattana (2008), who cited that other research ended with conclusions and recommendations whereas policy research continues to application and implementation. The study used a three step process. Step one was to collect data by using triangulation of data sources such as books, textbooks, journals, bulletins, and the internet. Step two included estimating the probability of implementation by interviews with experts such as The Head of Special Education Program, KKU; Director of Autistic Research, KKU; Director of Special Education Center, Educational Zone 9. The data were then qualitatively analyzed by manifest content analysis and classified according to themes and patterns that emerged.

Findings

1) Identification of Autistic Spectrum Disorder

The research found that autism spectrum disorders were more common in the pediatric population than are some better known disorders such as diabetes, spinal bifida, or Down syndrome. Worldwide, 0.34% of children 3-10 years old were diagnosed with autism. (Autistic Research Center, 2009) The earlier the disorder is diagnosed, the sooner the child can be helped through treatment interventions. Children with ASD do not follow the typical patterns of child development. In some children, hints of future problems may be apparent from birth. In most cases, the problems in communication and social skills become more noticeable as the child lags further behind other children the same age. Some other children start off well enough. Oftentimes between 12 and 36 months old, the differences in the way they react to people and other unusual behaviors become apparent. Some parents report the change as being sudden, and that their children start to reject people, act strangely, and lose language and social skills they had previously acquired. In other cases, there is a plateau, or leveling, of progress so that the difference between the child with autism and other children the same age becomes more noticeable.

2) Signs and Characteristics of Autistic Spectrum Disorders

People with autism also process and respond to information in unique ways. In some cases, aggressive and/or self-injurious behavior may be present. Persons with autism may also exhibit some of the following traits:

- Insistence on sameness; resistance to change
- Difficulty in expressing needs; using gestures or pointing instead of words
- Repeating words or phrases in place of normal, responsive language
- Laughing (and/or crying) for no apparent reason; showing distress for reasons not apparent to others
- Preference to being alone; aloof manner
- Tantrums
- Difficulty in mixing with others
- Not wanting to cuddle or be cuddled
- Little or no eye contact
- Unresponsive to normal teaching methods

3) Strengths of Children with an ASD

Children with ASD, particularly those with Asperger's syndrome, did not be "big picture" learners, but they often have a keen eye for detail. Asperger's syndrome (AS) is also referred to as high functioning autism. With help, they can become able to recognise their own learning styles and behaviour, and develop strategies to manage their areas of difficulty. Another characteristic area of difficulty for AS children is that of rigid thinking and the desire for "sameness". This may lead to an obsession with routine which can be very constraining and frustrating for other people. However, it can also produce an interest in patterns, structure and order. This is very important for mathematical understanding (fractions, decimals, percentages and geometry) and literacy (prefixes, suffixes, roots and other spelling patterns). Patterns also underpin music in term of scales, arpeggios, chords and composition. Many children with AS are very logical and literal in their thought processes (though not necessarily in the context of creative problem-solving). They often respond particularly well to computers due to the rational, consistent and predictable nature of their functionality. (http://autisticstudents.suite101.com/article.cfm/what)

4) The Best Practice Instructional Methodology for Autistic Children in Thailand and USA

Thailand

1) Personnel were developed for being able to gain competency in teaching different disabilities both in symptom and severe level.

2) For every child with special need in education, there was Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) organized by the committee and led to practice for affecting the educational quality management being accepted (Acceptability). The IEP was organized into 2 parts or 2 issues: 1) the integrated academic in curriculum based on potentiality, and 2) the development in health and hygiene were enhanced the skill for living together in society, vocational skill, and life skill were trained (more practice for the life to do).

3) The schools were special adjusted with appropriate working process (adaptability) regarding to the instructional media, equipments, technique, and condition in measurement as well as model development in necessary vocational training and skill for high level to severe level of autistic growth children.

4) Reinforcement and punishments, the reinforcement technique was the key part of positive behavior modification. The teachers had to provide reward rather than punishment. They had to understand the objective in providing reinforcement, unique characteristic or classification, and development of the reinforces, the selection of reinforcement, regulation in providing reinforcer, its differences, as well as the message that the teachers would communicate to their students by different kinds of reinforcers.

5) Shaping procedure was a process for developing new skills or behavior for students by inferring success of students by responding to the objective behavior. At the beginning, the students may not be able to correctly respond. They could be provided reinforcer. Later on, they could improve their response until completely respond it.

USA.

1. Individualized supports and services. Because the needs of each autistic child were unique, schools must strive to find ways to match treatment strategies, services and supports to each child's individual and family characteristics. This includes incorporating the child's unique preferences, special interests, strengths and weaknesses, as well as the family's goals and characteristics, into a specialized instructional plan.

2. Systematic Instruction. Systematic instruction is important for ensuring the generalization and maintenance of learned skills, and for ensuring high levels of engagement. The methods and principles of applied behavioral analysis have proven effective in systematic instruction. ABA is a systematic, objective approach to assessing, measuring and evaluating observable problem behavior, and choosing appropriate interventions to modify that behavior.

3. Comprehensible/structured learning environments. Each autistic child's need for predictability and structure in the classroom is unique.

4. Specific curriculum content. Curricula should address the child's specific communication and social deficits, and provide functional skills that will be useful in the child's broader life.

5. Autistic children must be taught an alternative positive behavior that will meet their needs equally well. Also, educators must attempt to understand the purpose of the child's problem behavior, and to understand environmental and contextual factors that may be exacerbating it. "Positive behavior support" and "functional behavior assessment," are empirically supported methods for addressing problem behaviors.

6. Family support was a key component of successful intervention. To the extent possible, parents should be involved in setting goals, selecting instructional strategies, and implementing consistent strategies at home and in community settings.

Recommendations

Based on analysis of practices in Thailand and USA, the following recommendations are made to suggest improvements in Thai practice for instructional management of autistic children:

1. Thai schools should develop identification procedures for early detection of autistic characteristics of young children. Early detection is key to early intervention and Thailand can learn much from the processes encorporated in the USA. The school should tailor the child's environment, instructional materials and activities, intensity of instruction and opportunities for learning to encourage the highest possible level of engagement.

2. Signs and characteristics of autistic children vary but Thailand can institute policy and procedures that support early intervention and professional development of teachers so they recognize potential problems and can enact early intervention. Teaching should focus on skills that increase independence, that allow the child to control his or her environment, and that improve functional performance.

3. Teachers autistic children should be intensive trained about autistic child caring/education, and should focus on student strengths and capabilities. Thailand can learn much from progress with autistic children best practice from the USA.

4. Individual Education Plans, appropriate classroom environments, schoolwide support for autistic instruction, adapted facility and instructional medium, and appropriate behavior modification methodology were identified as key to successful educational intervention for autistic children. Thailand can use the experience and research generated in the USA to develop appropriate educational intervention and experiences for its' challenged autistic child population.

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A Comparative of Education Criteria for Performance Excellence between University in Thailand and The United States of America

Sittichai Sonsupee

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to compare similarities and differences of education criteria for performance excellence between Thailand and United States of America (USA). The research was applied to universities in Thailand using Thai context. Methodology used was a participatory policy research format. The study findings indicated that a key success factor for use of Public Sector Management Quality Award (PMQA) was support from management. Communication to faculty and staff was also a key to success. Additionally, faculty and staff needed to understand assessment origination as a process of continuous learning.

Background

In developed countries a system of quality management is typically used extensively in both the public and private sectors. The purpose of quality management is process improvement for increased quality and standards and high organizational performance for increased competitiveness. In the USA, criteria for performance excellence have been used since 1987. The Malcolm Baldridge National Quality Award System (MBNQA) is used as an assessment and improvement tool. Quality criteria are the basis for conducting organizational self-assessments, for making awards, and for giving feedback to applicants. In addition, the criteria have three important elements: 1) to help improve organizational performance practices, capabilities, and results; 2) to facilitate communication and sharing of best practices information among organizations of all types; and 3) to serve as a working tool for understanding and managing performance and for guiding organizational planning and opportunities for learning. (NIST, 2007; FTPI, 2008)

The MBNQA is a concept used for evaluation and making awards for organizations in more than seventy countries. For example, the Australian Business Excellence Award (ABEA) has been used since 1988, the European Quality Award (EQA) since 1991, Singapore Quality Award (SQA) since 1994, Japan Quality Award (JQA) since 1995, and Thailand Quality Award (TQA) since 2001.

In Thailand, The Office of the Public Sector Development Committee Thailand began using criteria of quality for developing public sector management a strategic planning system since 2004. Also, the Education Criteria for Performance Excellence (ECPE) concept by the MBNQA and the TQA was developed according to criteria established for the public sector is known as the PMQA (OPDC, 2008). Also, the PMQA was applied for performance evaluation for public sector universities in 2008. However, universities have yet to understand how to establish criteria for self-assessment usefulness. This paper compared the study of the ECPE in USA for possible application to Thailand universities.

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to compare similarities and differences of Education Criteria for Performance Excellence between Thailand and United States of America, as applied to universities in Thailand using Thai context.

Methodology

This study used a participatory policy research design (Sanrattana, 2008) composed of 2 phases: Phase I included development of tentative research results and recommendations by means of documentary analysis to get data from internet, texts, journals, research reports, etc. Phase II verified the validity of research results and recommendations by in-depth interviews with 5 experts, and a focus group discussion.

Research Results & Discussion

The ECPE of USA and Thailand

The USA began using Criteria for Performance Excellence on August 20, 1987. President Ronald Reagan signed the MBNQA Improvement Act of the USA economy during 1987 to 1990. Next year education and healthcare were added to the original three categories: manufacturing, service, and small business (NIST, 2007).

Criteria goals were designed to help organizations use an integrated approach to organizational performance management for three key objectives: (1) results in delivery of ever improving value to customers and stakeholders, and contributing to organizational sustainability, (2) improvement of overall organizational effectiveness and capabilities, and (3) organizational and personal learning.

The criteria are built on the following set of interrelated core values and concepts: 1)visionary leadership, 2)customer driven excellence, 3)organizational and personal learning, 4)valuing employees and partners, 5)agility, 6)focus on the future, 7)managing for innovation, 8)management by fact, 9)social responsibility, 10)focus on results and creating value, and 11)systems perspective (NIST, 2007; FTPI, 2008).

The MBNQA framework of the core values and concepts are embodied in seven categories, as follows: 1) Leadership now includes a focus on performance measures and their use by senior leaders. 2) Strategic planning has a stronger focus on innovation, strategic advantages, and resource needs to accomplish strategic objectives. 3) Customer and market focus have a stronger focus on the voice of the customer. 4) Measurement, analysis, and knowledge management have a clearer focus on the needs for management of information and information technology. 5) Workforce focus has been redesigned around workforce engagement and the workforce environment. 6) Process management has been redesigned around work systems, core competencies, and work processes. And 7) Results have been aligned with the changes in categories one to six to ensure the measurement of important and appropriate results. The MBNAQ is categories and items total point values 1,000 include (NIST, 2007).

These categories can be summarized in steps as follows:

1. Leadership
   - 1.1 Senior leadership
   - 1.2 Governance and social responsibilities
2. Strategic planning
   - 2.1 Strategy development
   - 2.2 Strategy deployment
3. Customer and market focus
   - 3.1 Customer and market knowledge
   - 3.2 Customer relationships and satisfaction
4. Measurement, analysis, and knowledge management
   - 4.1 Measurement, analysis, and improvement of organizational performance
   - 4.2 Management of information, information technology, and knowledge

5. Workforce focus
   5.1 Workforce engagement
   5.2 Workforce environment
6. Process management
   6.1 Work systems design
   6.2 Work process management and improvement
7. Results
   7.1 Product and service outcomes
   7.2 Customer focused outcomes
   7.3 Financial and market outcomes
   7.4 Workforce focused outcomes
   7.5 Process effectiveness outcomes
   7.6 Leadership outcomes

The criteria items and award applicant feedback are based on two evaluation dimensions: process and results. Criteria users need to furnish information relating to these dimensions. Specific factors for these dimensions are described below (NIST, 2007). Process refers to the methods an organization uses and improves to address the item requirements in categories one to six. The four factors used to evaluate process are approach, deployment, learning, and integration. Results refers to organization outputs and outcomes in achieving the requirements in category seven. The four factors used to evaluate results are levels, trends, comparisons, and integration.

In Thailand, TQA has been used in conception and in the public sector organization. The PMQA conceptualizes form good governance for change system and work action of organization, for increased competitiveness and high standards of international equivalent. Also, the Thai government uses the PMQA as an indicator of performance evaluation for both university and the public sector in 2008.

Criterion of the TQA and the PMQA are not type organization (business or public sector) and unlimited number award. Organizations evaluation process must score more than 650 to receive the TQA and 350 or more to receive the Thailand Quality Class (TQC). The PMQA point values total 1,000 score and include (OPDC, 2008).

These categories can be summarized in steps as follows:

1. Leadership
   1.1 Senior leadership
   1.2 Governance and social responsibilities
2. Strategic planning
   2.1 Strategy development
   2.2 Strategy deployment
3. Student and stakeholder focus
   3.1 Student, stakeholder knowledge
   3.2 Student, stakeholder relationships and satisfaction
4. Measurement, analysis, and knowledge management
   4.1 Measurement, analysis, and improvement of organizational performance
   4.2 Management of information, information technology, and knowledge
5. Human resource focuses
   5.1 Faculty and staff well-being and satisfaction
   5.2 Faculty and staff development and leadership
6. Process management
   6.1 Work systems design
   6.2 Work process management and improvement
7. Results
   7.1 Effectiveness
   7.2 Quality service
   7.3 Efficiency
   7.4 Organization development

Similarities and differences between USA and Thailand

The general education criteria of the PMQA and the ECPE contain many similarities. First, purpose, core values and concepts measure criteria.

Second, assessment framework in the categories one, two, four, and six use criteria and items with the same point values. Quality management are reliance on measurement, analysis, knowledge management for the involvement of people and the role of leadership in setting direction, strategic planning, and process management (Jayanaha, P., Grigg, P., and Mann, S., 2008).

In practice, the PMQA serves as general guidelines for managers to understand each other's managerial practices, organizational structures, and work behaviors (Khoo, H. and Tan, K., 2003). Leadership has a direct causal influence on each of the components of the PMQA system, process management, faculty and staff focus, strategic planning, and measurement, analysis and knowledge management. Leadership causes direct positive changes in each of the ECPE System categories (Badri, M.A., Selim, H., Alshare, K., Grandon, E.E., Younis, H. and Abdulla, M., 2006). Leadership significantly directly or indirectly affects all of the ECPE systems constructs. Effective leadership and information management is clearly shown to be essential for organization success (Pannirselvam, G. and Ferguson, L., 2001).

For differences, categories three, five, and seven of the PMQA criteria coincide with Thai university context. First, category three suggests that customer and market focus became student and stakeholder focus. Second, category five indicated an adjustment of workforce focus to become a human resource focus. Last, category seven focus was evaluation of four issues including effectiveness, quality service, efficiency, and organization development.

For university leaders the dominant role of leadership plays in important function in quality management. Strong support of quality initiatives from senior level management has long been cited as the starting point for an organization's quest to achieve a quality-driven culture (Badri, M.A. et al, 2006).

Recommendation

This paper studied the ECPE in USA and the PMQA in Thailand, for use by the university community in the Thai context. It is recommended that:

1. University leadership must support and participate in management.
2. Self-assessment needs to be used as a means of communication to faculty and staff in university.
3. Faculty and staff need to understand assessment origination is a process of continuous learning.

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Analysis of the Similarities and Differences in Merit and Ethics Promotion for Young People in Thailand and Vietnam

Chayanon Monpianjan

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to compare the similarities and differences in merit and ethics promotion for young people in Thailand and Vietnam using documentary analysis and in-depth interviews. The researcher found that there were many similarities in the promotion of merit and ethics in both countries, such as the use of similar belief systems, educational institutions, policy and laws. However there were also significant differences in the details of merit and ethics promotion, especially concerning curricula, role models, and the mass media. In conclusion, this research indicated that it is necessary that families, schools, religion and mass media organizations work together to create genuine, continuous processes for the sustainable promotion of merit and ethics in Thai society.

Background

In Thailand and Vietnam the concept of teaching students about "merit" and "ethics" is historically important. These concepts are embedded in the Buddhist religion and serve students and society well by emphasizing the importance of being a good student and citizen of the Kingdom. Modern society is showing clear signs of a major ethical crisis, and Thailand too is facing many socio-economic problems, such as violence, corruption, greed and a lack of ethics. At present, there is no sustainable system for promoting merit and ethics in young people to enable them to live happily and harmoniously within a strong moral and ethical framework. (Navaratana, 2006; Chareonwongsak, 2009) Vietnam, on the other hand, is widely accepted as successfully promoting merit and ethics in its citizens, especially in terms of nationalism, bravery and self-sacrifice. It has changed from a war-torn country into a serious economic competitor in the world market place. Now it is developing by actively promoting merit and ethics in its young people. (Srijampa, 2000; Soonkitbul, 2003; Navaratana, 2006)

Merit and ethics are principles of behavior that enable people to live together happily and harmoniously. Promoting merit and ethics is a way of developing our spiritual quality to keep behavior within socially-accepted norms. They come from religious or belief systems that depend on culture, traditions and law. Virtue systems including merit and ethics in different societies depend on the particular religious and belief systems of that society. (Allen, 1990; Suvannathat, 2000; Bhanthumavin, 2000; Larbmala and Makaramani, 2006; Pra Dhammapitaka, 2009; Weber, 2009)

Many academics have provided various definitions of merit and ethics. It can be summarized that merit means the personal display of goodness,

beauty and correctness in words, actions and spirit. It is a guiding principle of behavior that enables an individual to live happily and beneficially in society. According to Khamkerd (2009) and Pra Dhammapitaka (2009) ethics means an individual display of goodness both for oneself and others in society leading to peace, prosperity and benefit for the community, society and nation. (Suvannathat, 2000; Larbmala & Makaramani, 2006) It is often stated that merit and ethics are so closely related that it is difficult to separate the two because a person with merit generally will also be an ethical person.

Research Questions

This research aimed to compare the similarities and differences in merit and ethics promotion for young people in Thailand and Vietnam with the following three guided research questions:

1. What are the similarities for merit and ethics promotion for young people in Thailand and Vietnam?

2. What are the differences for merit and ethics promotion for young people in Thailand and Vietnam?

3. What data and information from this research can be applied to develop merit and ethics promotion for young people in Thai context?

Methodology/Data Sources

This study applied the policy research methodology of Majchrzak(1984) and Sanrattana (2008) and was conducted in two phases. The first phase was development of initial research procedures by analyzing documentary evidence from diverse sources through triangulation of data sources from the internet, texts, journals and research reports. The second phase verified the validity of the research data and suggested recommendations for estimating the probability of implementation by presenting the results of the first phase for evaluation by recognized experts in the promotion of merit and ethics in Thai and Vietnamese young people. This phase was called "validating and estimating the probability of implementation". Reviewers were a Thai teaching professional who teaches in a university in Thailand and deals with Vietnamese education, a Vietnamese ambassador who deals with Vietnamese education, and an official who works in an international cooperation institute between Thailand and Vietnam. The research data generated from these two phases were analyzed by manifest content analysis and were presented in descriptive format.

Conclusions

In line with the research objectives and questions, the researcher conducted documentary analysis and in-depth interviews with the experts selected for the research. The results were as follows:

Similarities. The data indicated that:

1) The promotion of merit and ethics in Thailand and Vietnam has its origins in belief systems and religion.

2) Apart from using belief systems and religion, the promotion of merit and ethics in both Thailand and Vietnam also relies on accepting the strategy of following the teachings of respected citizens.

3) The promotion of merit and ethics in both Thailand and Vietnam is a continuous process starting from childhood and beginning with the family.

4) Both Thailand and Vietnam promote merit and ethics in and out of schools.

5) Both Thailand and Vietnam refer to the promotion of merit and ethics in education policy and laws.

6) Currently both Thailand and Vietnam are facing similar problems in promoting merit and ethics, especially the challenges posed by globalization

and the encroachment of western culture through multimedia such as the internet, mobile phones and television.

Differences. The data indicated that:

1) Thailand promotes merit and ethics through the teachings of religion. Most Thais are devout Buddhists with a minority Christian, Hindu and Muslim, who follow their particular religious teachings. In Vietnam most people believe in the Khong Jue cult, and follow its teachings very strictly.

2) Most Thais respect His Majesty King Bhumibol, follow His teachings closely and try to do good on His behalf. Vietnam has its own hero, Ho Chi Min, and the people follow his teachings very closely, especially in terms of self-sacrifice and patriotism.

3) In Vietnam the promotion of merit and ethics in the home is more apparent and effective than in Thailand. Vietnamese children show more respect for the teachings of older members of society.

4) In Thailand the promotion of merit and ethics at the primary level is included in social science, religion and culture. At other levels it is integrated into other subjects. In Vietnam, merit and ethics have their own primary level curriculum starting at the age of seven.

5) In Thailand there are many laws relating to the promotion of merit and ethics, such as the Thai Constitution, National Education Acts, and Education Ministry Regulations. The National Education Act of 1999 which is held to be the blueprint for national education, emphasizes the integrated development of individuals and holds that the promotion of merit and ethics is the primary task of educational institutions. The main focus of education reform in Thailand is to create good, articulate children who can live happily in society. In Vietnam education reform emphasizes giving children five questions for homework each day. They must write down 1) What good acts have I done today? 2) How have I helped my parents with their work today? 3) What has happened in my community today? 4) A one-page news report about Vietnam, and 5) A one-page news report about current world events. According to Navaratana (2007), it can be seen that by using these five simple questions Vietnamese children gain a high level of merit and ethics. As a result the Vietnamese tend to have four particular characteristics: they are hard working and tolerant, patriotic, education-loving, and have a strong belief in gratitude.

6) Another difference between Thailand and Vietnam in the promotion of merit and ethics in young people is the approach of the Vietnamese mass media. Vietnamese television stations regularly broadcast documentaries about the historic struggles for independence from French, Chinese, and American invaders. Young people can therefore learn about the hardship and sacrifice of their parents and grandparents. Vietnamese television promotes patriotism by emphasizing the suffering, pain, violence, separation, and death of war. This helps to teach young people not to think only of modern comfort and convenience but to remember and honor the heroism and sacrifice of previous generations. In addition, Vietnamese television tends to broadcast mainly good news, avoiding news about crime and other depressing subjects. Also, Vietnamese television programs are rated according to their suitability for different viewing groups, such as young people, the elderly, and war veterans. Most children's programs tend to emphasize that children should study hard, respect their parents, honor older people and work hard.

Recommendations

This research study examined three specific research questions which provided data and information to make specific recommendations on how Thailand can strengthen and improve the promotion of merit and ethics. The Thai government should;

1) Encourage religious institutions by giving them a major role in teaching merit and ethics to young people. Religious leaders can participate closely with educational institutions and community organizations to teach merit and ethics both in and out of the classroom. Religious leaders can also act as effective role models for young people in terms of appropriate behavior.

2) Provide support by giving citizens (parents, elderly people, teachers and religious leaders) authority to promote merit and ethics for young people since these people can act as appropriate role models for young people.

3) Promote merit and ethics in and out of school through the participation of state organizations such as the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Culture and the Office of National Buddhism in coordinating and promoting merit and ethics in schoolchildren. In addition local administration organizations, which are closet to the people, should play a major role in promoting merit and ethics in the area.

4) Adapt existing education policy and laws to emphasize effective promotion of merit and ethics, especially the Thai Constitution, National Education Act, and Education Ministry Regulations.

5) Regulate mass media with appropriate methods and encourage them to provide knowledge for young people who will become national leaders, by empowering relevant authorities to direct and control the media more strictly and effectively, especially the Ministry of Culture and the Ministry of Information and Communication Technology.

6) Support the family unit by providing guidelines and activities to promote merit, ethics, and appropriate behavior in young people. The state should also campaign to increase social awareness of merit and ethics and to enable families to participate in promoting merit and ethics in their children.

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An Analysis of Policies and Laws for Exceptional Citizens in Thailand and Vietnam

Dusit Vipanna

Abstract

This research compared and contrasted Thai and Vietnam policies and laws for support of exceptional people in the Thai context. Policy research was used for the purpose of this research. The data indicated that there were many policy similarities between countries including, (1) the definitions of laws for exceptional people, (2) the constitutional law relating to exceptional people, (3) the community-based rehabilitation, and (4) regional collaboration. Correspondingly there were also differences including; (1) laws protecting exceptional people, (2) development and education of exceptional peoples programs and policy, (3) welfare for exceptional people, and (4) government administration and policy.

Background

Through implementation of the United Nations World Program of Action Concerning Disabled Persons in 1982, and the United Nations Decade of Disabled Persons in 1983-1992, more people in the world have become aware that exceptionality was one of the most important global issues. Despite efforts through the decade, still a large number of exceptional people in the Asia-Pacific Region are socially vulnerable without equal rights and opportunities, being left behind in socio-economic development (Asia-Pacific Development Center on Disability [APCD], 2009; United Nation of Economic and Social Committee of Asia-Pacific [UN-ESCAP], 1999).

Since Thailand and Vietnam are members of APCD, information on exceptional people policy and law covering their rights can be compared to ascertain how the two countries can collaborate to increase services exceptional people in Asia and Pacific.

Thailand's situation with exceptional people

Thailand by The Ministry of Public Health, The Ministry of Social Development and Human Security and The Office of National Statistical Office (NSO) surveyed the information for exceptional people by classifying into two types: Medicine and Education. For the survey in Medicine, the exceptional people could be classified by the benefit of treatment and rehabilitation their capacity. For the survey in Education, the disability was viewed as the physical and mental disability which would be considered a social burden. In 2007, there were 1.9 million people classified as exceptional in-country from a total population of 65.6 million people. Approximately 80% of them lived outside a municipal area (National Statistical Office [NSO], 2007). Statistically there were 721,489 exceptional people who were registered until 2007. Policy and law for exceptional people included Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand 2007 (The Secretariat of the House Representatives, 2007), The Act for Exceptional People Rehabilitation 1991 (Committee of Exceptional People Rehabilitation, 1991), The Act for Exceptional People

Support and Development of Quality of Life 2007 (National Office for Empowerment of Persons with Disabilities [NEP], 2007), The Act of Educational Management for Exceptional People 2008 (Office of the National Education Commission, 2008), and others including various related laws and regulations of exceptional people.

Vietnam's situation with exceptional people

Vietnam surveyed the exceptional people in 1994-1995 by the Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affaires: MOLISA (Kane, 1999), found that one out of three exceptional people had a disability since he/she was born. The conditions were another cause of disability in nearly the same proportion. War injury was another cause of disability for about one out of five of total severe disability. In Vietnam, the toxic substance yellow rain was the cause of more than one million exceptional children since the victims of toxic yellow rain were the second and third generations of soldiers fighting during the Viet Nam war and toxic substance remained in the former fighting fields. As a result, the number of impacted people continuously increased. The maximum cause of disabilities would be changed based on time: the decreasing number of exceptional people owing to war, the increase of traffic accident and illness such as HIV-AIDS, the increase of aging people since the reproduction rate decreased, and increasing age were the causal factors of change affecting major factors of disability (APCD, 2009; Nhat, 2007; Shin, Nhan, Crittenden, Hong, Flory, & Ladinsky, 2006). Implementation of laws for the care of exceptional people of Vietnam government have been passed, new laws were passed, and regulations relating to exceptional people were regularly initiated including a total of 3 issues of the Constitution of Vietnam during the period of 1959,1980, and 1992. All of this included protecting exceptional people. There was a decree for exceptional people in 1998 and 1999 (Mao & Dung, 2003; The National Assembly of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam, 2007).

The state of exceptional people both in Thailand and Vietnam reflected that exceptional people are still in need of additional care and services. Both governments recognized the importance of exceptional people by passing laws and policy, developing collaboration with the work in both government and private sectors including international organizations related to exceptional people (Kamonwat, 2008). This study compared and contrasted Thai and Vietnam policies and laws to determine how to apply laws and policies for exceptional people in Thai context so that they could have a better quality of life and a more normal lifestyle.

Objectives

The objectives of this research were to: 1) analyze the similarities and differences between policies and laws for exceptional people in Thailand and Vietnam, and 2) analyze policies and laws for exceptional people in Vietnam for potential application in Thailand.

Methodology

The methodology for this policy research study (Majchzak, 1984; Sanrattana, 2008) was composed of two phases: (1) Development of tentative research results and recommendations using documentary analysis data of laws and policies including books, textbooks, research reports, laws and policies, information searched from the internet, and (2) Verifying the validity of research results and recommendations by interviewing experts using electronic mail.

Results

Similarities:

The similarities of policies and laws for exceptional people in Thailand and Vietnam were separated into four parts as follows :

1. The definitions of laws for exceptional people; According to the order of law for exceptional people of both countries, classification of disabilities were identified under International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps (ICIDH) published by The World Health Organization (WHO) in 1980 including visual impairment, hearing or communicating impairment, physical or movement impairment, mental or behavioral impairment, and intellectual or learning disabilities.

2. Governmental laws and policies of exceptional people; Constitutional law relating to exceptional people of Thailand, were passed in the 1997 and 2007. Personal rights and freedom were established. Additionally, the government followed the social, public health, educational, and cultural policies by protecting exceptional or handicap people to gain a better quality of life and self reliance. For Vietnam, the constitution 1959, 1980, and 1992 included protecting exceptional or handicap people, and those who were in difficult life situations.

3. Both counties followed similar approaches for community-based rehabilitation (CBR). Thailand was initially introduced to NGOs during the1980s. The Foundation for Handicapped Children (HFC), one of the NGOs in Thailand, has been actively involving CBR development since its' beginning. Contrastingly, Vietnam has carried out CBR activities though the network of Primary Health Care reaching the needs of many persons with exceptionalities at the grass-roots level.

4. Collaboration at the regional level; Thailand implemented support for exceptional people at national, regional, and international levels as well as signing a proclamation stating complete collaboration in equality for exceptional people of Asia and Pacific Regions by ESCAP with the coordination with ESCAP. Moreover, Thailand was the location of the Asia-Pacific Development and Training Center for Disability. Asia-Pacific Center on Disability (APCD) was the symbol of implementation in the decade of Asia-Pacific disability 1993-2002 and 1993-2112. The organization had responsibility for coordinating the implementation of exceptional people in the region with The United Nation of Economic and Social Committee of Asia-Pacific (UN-ESCAP). These work offices were under the United Nation Organizations, The public and private organizations for disabilities both in the national and international level. Vietnam government signed the commitment stating complete participation and equality of human beings in Asia and Pacific Regions the same as with Thailand.

Differences

The differences of policies and laws for exceptional people in Thailand and Vietnam can be separated in to four parts as follows :

1. Laws protecting exceptional people; Thailand had important laws in protecting exceptional people starting from 1991 which was the Act for Exceptional Rehabilitation for protecting rights and developing standards for workers. They also gained rights in medical and educational services, vocational enhancement, and employment plus community support. While, Vietnam had policies stating the rights of exceptional people beginning in 1998 to determine basic principles of every activity regarding exceptional people including the family, government, and social services. The important ideas included health care, education, vocational training and employment, cultural activities, sports, financial funding for exceptional people, and governmental implementation regarding all exceptional people.

2. The development and education for exceptional people; Thailand continued to develop major laws for exceptional people continuously including The Act of Support and Development for Exceptional People 1998, The Act of Educational Management for Exceptional People 2007 with the primary idea that every exceptional person had equal opportunity with all people and free education. Vietnam also passed an important law on Universalization of Primary Education for Vietnamese, Legislated in 1992. This law stipulated provisions for children in extremely difficult circumstances, and regulated provision of social welfare and scholarships for students and children with exceptional of war invalids.

3. Welfare for exceptional people; The welfare for registered exceptional people in Thailand would have their right to receive medical rehabilitation service without paying any expenditure from the governmental hospital. There were three governmental hospitals including specialist physicians and equipment identified for this population. Additionally, there was one Sirindhon Center for National medical rehabilitation with a complete cycle of rehabilitation, which provided supportive for exceptional people as well as improved types of equipment. Most had access to equipment for support from private developmental organizations through capacity rehabilitation. Access in facilities for exceptional people, they were able to access every public facility in building and site, transportation, and other services. The private sector could install the facilities for exceptional people. Their expense could be subtracted from their tax for twice as much.

In Vietnam, the social assurance system was provided. The governmental clinic took care of medical service and exceptional people rehabilitation for them throughout the country. For various kinds of facilities, although the government established the rules and regulations for providing them, there was a lack of budget and insufficient officers. But, in Vietnam, there were 20 centers, 34 hospitals, 7 places of peaceful villages, and one friendship village, as well as 119 rehabilitation places. Moreover, the government offered loans with low interest for private sectors producing supportive equipments for exceptional people. The import tax wasn't charged for the supportive equipments and instruments for exceptional people as well as the equipments and instruments for conducting research studies relating to exceptional people.

4. Administration and management of governmental systems; In Thailand, there were offices providing services for exceptional people including the Ministry of Social and Security Enhancement and Support for Human Beings, Ministry of Education, and Ministry of Public Health were also appointed to enhance and support benefits for exceptional people. The institutes of enhancement and support for exceptional people under Ministry of Social and Security Development for Human Beings, had direct responsibilities for exceptional population issues.

In Vietnam, there were major work offices providing services as follows: The Ministry of Labor, Handicap Soldiers, and Social Enterprises had their responsibility in protecting and taking care of exceptional people in country. The Council of National Exceptional People Coordination had responsibility in coordinating national level services for exceptional people. The Local Institutes of Ministry relating to exceptional people had r esponsibility of caring for underprivileged people as well as exceptional people in community. They had responsibility to investigate and follow up on the status of exceptional people, report to higher levels, and provide financial support and monthly welfare for exceptional people.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were developed based on the data and information generated:

1. Thailand should develop plans for supporting exceptional peoplẽs quality of life by focusing on coordination of exceptional peoples work preparation, enhancement of exceptional peoples strengths, and developing a collaborative support network and enhancement of an environment facilitating exceptional people future projects.

2. Thailand should have policies and regulations for exceptional people coordinated with the laws of the handicapped that can be implemented continuously to strengthen quality of life.

3. Thailand should support exceptional people by establishing public hearings from stakeholders including the family, government, and social services for community-based rehabilitation.

4. All exceptional organizations should continuously provide knowledge for causes of exceptionalities and preventive information.

5. Thailand should collaborate at the regional level to encourage maximum potential of the exceptional population by having the opportunity for self-development to enter the international stage.

6. The Thai APCD should advocate best practices for exceptional people by supporting policy to increase exceptional people's quality of life in all regions of the country.

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A Comparative Analysis of Elementary School Mathematics Instruction in Thailand and Vietnam

Rachata Suvannagoot

Abstract

This research aimed to compare the similarities and differences in elementary school mathematics instruction in Thailand and Vietnam using documentary analysis and in-depth interviews. The researcher found there were many similarities in elementary school mathematic instruction in both countries, including the inclusion of mathematics as a core subject in the curriculum and also encouraging quality mathematics curriculum and instructional support. Data indicated that there were significant differences in details, especially Vietnam where there was a strong focus for mathematics and where advanced students were provided special classes. In conclusion, this research indicated that the Thai government should increase the support of mathematics in elementary schools and encourage mathematic instructors to improve their teaching by providing professional development funding.

Background

Mathematics historically played a very important role in developing human cognitive process. As a result, human beings excelled at creative thinking. They could reasonably and systematically reason, were able to carefully solve problems and situations. As a result, they were able to correctly and appropriately anticipate, plan, make decisions, and solve problems. Mathematics also played an important role in the fields of business, industry, and science and technology. It was a major reason humanity developed increased capacity in ability to develop critical thinking. (Charoenwongsak, 2009: Gullanartsiri, 2009). Mathematics was also a very integral subject in organizing education for developing human beings for a new era of globalization, since it was an important tool leading to knowledge in every field of art and science both in pure and social sciences. Finally, it was related to human's daily life for almost all of time. (The Institute for the Promotion of Teaching Science and Technology, 2007).

When the success of Mathematics instruction in Asian countries is considered, Vietnams war experience initially placed the country far behind other countries in the region. Recently Vietnam has become the country which has developed itself dramatically and is surpassing neighboring countries. Specifically, Vietnam is developing in many aspects including trade, industry, and education, especially in mathematics application. For example, citizens are developing for global competition in Olympic Mathematics. The findings from Olympic competition indicated that Vietnam was ranked at the top level and better than Thailand (Soonkitbul, 2003; Nguyen, 2006; Do, 2009; Ministry of Education and Training, 2009).

In Thailand, currently the problems in student mathematics development include a shortage of instructional media and researchers to develop new instructional methodology in the field. Furthermore, the national mathematics test scores were lower than

standard criterion both in primary and secondary education. It was also found that in 2002, the number of researchers in science and mathematics was at the 0.002 level. Additionally, there were only 250,000 undergraduate students receiving degrees in

mathematics and science during 2003-2005. In each of those years there were a total of only 100 graduate students in science and mathematics. These factors contributed to Thailand's problem in developing science and mathematics. (Ministry of Education, 2002; Charoenwongsak, 2009; Gullanartsiri, 2009).

Successful mathematics instruction should begin in primary school since it is the beginning of students formal education. (Lial & Homsby, 1996; The Division of Educational research, Department of Academic, 2000; Chimtim, 2007). The researcher was interested in determining if Vietnam had developed innovative mathematics attributes that could be adapted to Thai instruction in mathematics.

Research Questions

This research study promulgated three guided research questions focused on a comparison between the similarities and differences in elementary school mathematics instruction in Thailand and Vietnam: 1) what are the instructional similarities for elementary school mathematics in Thailand and Vietnam?, 2) what are the instructional differences for elementary school mathematics instruction in Thailand and Vietnam?, and 3) what data and information from this research can be applied to develop best practice elementary schools mathematics instruction in Thai context?

Methodology

This study applied the policy research methodology of Majchrzak (1984) and Sanrattana (2008) and was conducted in two phases.

The first phase was development of initial research procedures by analyzing documentary evidence from diverse sources through triangulation of data sources from the internet, texts, journals and research reports.

The second phase verified the validity of the research data and suggested recommendations for estimating the probability of implementation by presenting the results of the first phase for evaluation by recognized experts in elementary mathematic curriculum in Thai and Vietnamese elementary schoolchildren. This phase was called "validating and estimating the probability of implementation".

Reviewers were a Thai mathematic instructional professional who teaches mathematic in an elementary school in Thailand and is knowledgeable of Vietnamese education, a Vietnamese ambassador who deals with Vietnamese education, and an official who works in an international cooperation institute between Thailand and Vietnam.

The research data generated from these two phases were analyzed by manifest content analysis and were presented in descriptive format.

Conclusions

In line with the identified objectives and questions, the researcher conducted a documentary analysis and in-depth interviews with experts selected for the research. The results were as follows:

Similarities. The data indicated that:

1. Both Thailand and Vietnam included mathematics in primary education curriculum as a compulsory subject.

2. Both Thailand and Vietnam assigned high priority to mathematics instruction especially in primary education because it was the first level of learning specified in educational law.

3. Both Thailand and Vietnam enhanced mathematics instruction in primary school by providing scholarships for mathematically talented students to further their study at higher levels.

4. Both Thailand and Vietnam supported teachers with research funding to improve their instructional competency.

5. Both Thailand and Vietnam established centers for communicating about mathematic in both private and public sectors.

6. Both Thailand and Vietnam established special schools for high achievement students in mathematics.

Differences. The data indicated that:

1. Thai mathematics instruction in primary education is divided into 6 years using two class levels including pratomsuksa 1-3, and pratomsuksa 4-6 both being compulsory. In Vietnam, mathematics is part of the primary education curriculum by studying 5 years continuously, focusing on calculation as the major learning methodology.

2. In Thailand, primary students talented in mathematics are provided opportunities including scholarships and schools focusing on mathematical excellence. In Vietnam talented students are separated from the general student population in order and provided an intensive mathematics curriculum.

3. In Thailand, there are mathematics teachers clubs but did not serve mathematics teachers needs. In Vietnam a federation representing science and technology was established. The federations role was to provide consultant services to the central government which provides the benefit of enhanced mathematics best practice methodology.

4. Vietnam surpassed Thailand in mathematics instruction through the use of oral testing, extensive "board and card" activities, and continuous repetition. Vietnam teachers were also held to very strict standards and continuous monitoring to ensure best practice strategies were followed.

5. Vietnamese teachers were required to organize their time so they spent a minimum of 90% of their day in direct instruction. Additionally, they were expected to use 8% of their time in making individual student assignments and 2% in group work.

Recommendations

From the results of this research study, specific recommendations on how Thailand can strengthen and improve elementary mathematic instruction were proposed.

1. Allocate scholarships and assure work positions for mathematically talented students. The government should provide scholarships for developing and producing teachers and researchers with mathematical talent by implementing continuously from primary education to doctoral degree. Work positions should be arranged for assuring students before they graduated for one year in advance so that they knew where they had to work.

2. Enhance research for developing curriculum in science and mathematics. The research studies should be supported in order to find the weak points and improve the mathematics curriculum for serving the needs of teachers and students. .

3. Establish a specific center in science and mathematics in order to distribute research studies and instructional curriculum into different regions of the country.

4. Develop collaboration between the public and private sectors to develop instructional guidelines in various models, or to bring personnel from the private sector into the schools to support instructional development.

5. Support personnel in mathematics field of study systematically and continuously in order to

have the increasing number of experts in that field, and develop the advantage for competition of the country in future.

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A Comparative Analysis of Vocational Education in Thailand and Germany

Duangnapha Mokkaranurak

Abstract

The Vocational Education (VE) System in Germany is very strong and successful; many countries attempt to copy this system, including Thailand. However, VE in Thailand seems can be improved. This research aimed to study and analyze VE in Thailand and Germany, and to compare strengths and weakness of VE in both countries and subsequently select points that are strong in Germany and that are suitable to apply to Thai situation. The methodology applied was a policy research design. Key success factors of VE in Germany are (1) strong governmental VE policy, (2) significant budgeting support, and (3) cooperation and support among all related sectors. Thai Government should apply these three success factors to improve the VE System in Thailand.

Background

Thailand is a developing country, and most Thai are poor, with a per capita income of $ 4,115 per year.(International Monetary Fund, 2008) Thailand is weak in overall educational attainment, and this needs to improve. (Laksnavisit, 2009) Thai students should be encouraged to study, especially in vocational education. Vocational programs develop occupational skills that lead to good jobs with good pay and an improved quality of life.

The percentage of students entering vocational education programs is limited because of cultural values and the desire to study in higher education. Most Thai people believe that studying in higher education leads to a better chance of success and ability to develop a good quality of life. The current rate of study between general school and vocational school is approximately 70:30. The Thai Government aims to improve this to become 50:50, and eventually to 30:70 in the future. (Laksnavisit, 2009)

Germany's dual system of training provision has become a key inspiration for vocational training around the world. Countries such as France and Britain see the German system of vocational education and training as a model to copy. (Deissinger, 1997; Hamilton & Lempert, 1996; Senker, 1995) The vocational education system in Germany is considered to be very strong and very successful, and many countries, including Thailand, apply parts of the system from Germany to their countries.

Even though Thailand applies some parts of the program from Germany, the success of the Thai program is still low. To improve the Thai program, it is important to know more about the features of the German program, including cooperation with business, budgeting, indicators of success, quality of evaluation and value of studying in vocational education.

This research will identify the successful features of German vocational education and compare with features of Thailand vocational education.

Significance of the research

It is important to improve vocational education in Thailand based on an analysis of German vocational education to determine if successful program features can be applied to Thailand.

Objectives

- To study and analyze the nature of vocational education in Thailand and Germany including the features of the German program, such as cooperation with enterprise, budgeting, indicators of success, quality of evaluation and value of studying in vocational education.
- To compare strengths and weaknesses of vocational education in Thailand and Germany
- To find the key success factors of vocational education in Germany
- To propose recommendations to the Thai Government in order to improve the Vocational Education System in Thailand

Methodology

The methodology used was a policy research design. (Majchzak, 1984; Sanrattana, 2008) The policy research design differs from other research design because it does not end at conclusion and recommendation. Its results must be verified and the probability of implementation estimated under the standards of propriety, feasibility, congruity and utility. This research design was composed of two phases:

Phase I: Development of research results and recommendations by means of documentary analysis, collect data from internet, journals, and researches about overview of the program, including cooperation with business, budgeting, indicators of success, quality of evaluation and value of studying in vocational education, from both Thailand and Germany. Data were analyzed by comparing each similar and different component then selecting the points that were strong in Germany and that could be suitable to apply to the Thai situation.

Phase II: Verifying the research results and recommendations by three expert reviewers.

Results

	Germany	Thailand
Overview of vocational education	✿ There are 16 states and each state has their own educational policy. The vocational education policy, especially dual system, comes from the Federal Ministry of Education.	✿ There is one state so vocational education policy comes from the Ministry of Education
	✿ Vocational education policy is very strong and continuously implemented.	✿ There is a good vocational education policy but weak in implementation. The policy changes whenever the main political party changes.
	✿ The Federal Ministry of Education cooperates and develops agreements with other parties, such as businesses	✿ The cooperation with the business is up to each vocational school

	Germany	Thailand
	and the chambers in terms of student training. ✿ Emphasis on dual system of vocational education, work and study together (part time in school and part time in company training) for the whole program.	✿ Emphasis on full-time vocational education. Student must be trained in company at least one semester
Program option	✿ Dual system (in-company training and part time vocational schooling) ✿ School for nurses, midwives, etc. ✿ Full time vocational school ✿ Vocational extension school	✿ Dual vocational training (DVT) program ✿ Special vocational education e.g. sport schools, dramatic arts and fine arts colleges ✿ Formal vocational education program ✿ Credit accumulation program
Cooperation with business	✿ Strong cooperation between educational sector and business ✿ Cooperation at the nation level	✿ Loose cooperation between educational sector and business ✿ Cooperation at school level
Budgeting	✿ Federal Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs support budget for the training sites ✿ The Federal Ministry of Education and Research launch several projects in order to provide directed funding to school and students.	✿ No budget support from government to the training sites ✿ Indirect projects provided to support training campaign, such as student loan
Quality of Evaluation	✿ The chamber provides an equal standard of vocational education throughout the country. They evaluate occupational skill more than theory. ✿ Only students who achieve very high academic scores at the secondary level are accepted into higher education	✿ The vocational education commission provides standards of vocational education but they can not control throughout the country. ✿ All students can study in higher education if they finish secondary school or vocational school.

	Germany	Thailand
Indicator of Success (number of vocational students, employment rate)	✿ When leaving secondary schools, 70% of German students take a course of vocational education ✿ Employment rate is very high ✿ 75% of workforce with formal vocational qualification ✿ Students leave vocational program with skills that business require	✿ When leaving secondary schools, 29% of Thai students take a course of vocational education ✿ Employment rate is very low ✿ 25% of workforce with formal vocational qualification and the rest of vocational students continue to study in higher education ✿ Students leave school without basic literacy or vocational skill
Value of Vocational Education	✿ Student have good attitude towards vocational education	✿ A large proportion of student do not want to study in vocational education
Age of students	✿ 16 years old and older start to learn in vocational education school	✿ 16 years old and older start to learn in vocational education school

The comparative table indicated that vocational education programs in Germany were similar to Thailand even though they are described in different ways, such as dual system in Germany and dual vocational training program in Thailand. The age that students start to learn in vocational education school is 16 years old for both countries.

There are many differences in vocational education between Germany and Thailand. Germany emphasis the dual system but Thailand emphasis a formal vocational education program which is the same as the full-time vocational school in Germany.

In Germany the Federal Government has a strong policy and ability to control all involved sectors. They provide significant budget to businesses in order to motivate them to support training sites. There are 70% of students who study vocational education and 75% of the workforce has formal vocational qualification. Students value vocational education.

The dual system is very strong in Germany. Students spend 1 or 2 days studying the theory of occupational skills and basic subjects in school, and 5 to 6 days working in company. Students have a lot of experience in a specific occupation; their skills satisfy a business need.

The German system provides strong cooperation among the Federal Ministry of Education, educational sector, the chamber and business. These sectors consider the curriculum together, what skills students should learn, how long to train in each task, how to evaluate student and what subject details to teach so the outcomes and quality of student learning are excellent.

Businesses make agreements to become a training site with the Federal Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, and then they are provided a monthly grant per site towards student living expenses and additional funding as social security contribution. The Federal Ministry of Education and Research launched

a special program to finance training sites and launched several programs in order to provide active support for agreed objectives of the Training Pact. These were very attractive to business.

The evaluation of vocational quality is based on the standards of the chamber. The chamber offers nationwide advice and ensures equal standards of vocational qualification throughout the country.

In Thailand there are 2 main weak points that make vocational education less successful. First is the discrepancy between educational policy and implementation. Second is the perceived value of studying in higher education rather than vocational education.

The Federal Government established a policy to improve vocational education in Thailand. They want to increase percentage of those studying in vocational school but they discriminate between policy and implementation. As one example, there are more general schools than vocational schools, and one criterion for evaluating general school directors is the number of students in their school. As a result, directors are not motivated to encourage students to transfer to vocational schools. Another example is that the government sets minimum wage rate for those with a higher education degree higher than for those with a vocational education certificate. There are 131 higher education schools in Thailand and they are very easy to access.

Educational policies are determined by the Minister of Education. As the government changes, education policies also change.

In Thailand, vocational education emphasizes a formal training program. It includes studying theory, but less practice and training. Even though students must be trained in a company at least one semester, some businesses do not train them, but only assign simple tasks. So students have less experience in an occupation and develop fewer skills. Businesses are not satisfied with the skills of the graduates.

The cooperation with the business sector is up to each vocational school. It is a loose cooperation among all involving sectors. There are not agreements between training sites and the Ministry of Education, and each school has to take care of themselves. There is no budgetary support to the training site so it does not motivate the business to be a training site, as there are significant training costs for each student.

Students compare benefits between studying in vocational school and higher education. They learn that a bachelor's degree is perceived to be better than certificate and that the wage rate is higher. As a result, a large proportion of students do not choose to study in vocational education.

Importance of the finding

The key success factors of vocational education in Germany are (1) the strong policy for support of vocational education, especially in the dual system, (2) Federal Government provides an adequate support budget and (3) The Government encourages all related sectors to cooperate and support each other.

Recommendations

In order to apply the important success factors from the German vocational education system, the Thai Government should consider the following recommendations:

- Develop consistency in educational policy and implementation as they relate to vocational education.
- Limit the number of general education students and evaluate school management according to the quality rather than the number of students.
- Promote Dual Vocational Training (DVT) Programs so that students have both experience and occupational skill.
- Develop a motivational policy or program to encourage business to participate and support vocational education.

◆ Provide budgetary support and tax relief to training sites and funding for student participation.

◆ Increase the perceived value of studying in vocational education by defining the standard wage or salary comparable to bachelor degree in order to motivate vocational students to work after finishing the program.

◆ Encourage the business community to publicize their skill requirements and number of vacancies for skilled workers.

◆ Promote Thai Vocational Qualification and direct its implementation throughout the country.

◆ Support strong cooperation with all relevant sectors.

◆ Conduct research to determine factors that discourage student participation in vocational education.

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A Comparative Analysis of Educational Decentralization in Japan and Thailand

Jirawan Lengpanich

Abstract

Educational decentralization seems to be a global trend during the past decade. Education systems in East Asia also seem to have caught up with this global trend. As can be seen from several papers, all the East Asian education systems discussed are introducing some form of educational decentralization. The purpose of this study aimed to analyze and compare educational decentralization in Japan and Thailand. The significance of the study was to determine whether features of Japanese decentralization can be used to assist in the on going process of decentralization in Thailand. Successful features from the Japanese system will be used to make recommendations to the Thai government for improving the decentralization effort.

Background

Decentralization is the transfer of authority from a higher level of government to a lower organizational level, such as a local administrative organization (Brown, 1990; McGinn and Street, 1986). The main rationale for decentralization is that people at the lower level of a hierarchy are more knowledgeable about their own needs and problems. It is believed that, under decentralization, people have more control and input into their own lives (Brown, 1990; Chapman, 1973). In the educational setting, decentralization is seen as a major policy to increase efficiency, flexibility, accountability, and responsiveness for economic development in both developed and developing countries (Hannaway and Carnoy, 1993; Cheng, 2000; Kim, 2000; Suzuki, 2000; Ho, 2003). Recently, educational decentralization seems to be a global trend in the past decades. East Asian education systems seem to have caught up with this global trend (Hiromitsu, 2000; Suzuki, 2000; Ho, 2003; Esther, 2006).

In East Asia, Thailand and Japan had many things in common before and at the beginning of the modernization period (Nitungkorn, 2000). Both were agricultural economies growing mainly rice; both were relatively closed to Western nations. They were forced to open their countries by Western powers more or less around the same time (Thailand by England in 1855, Japan by the United States in 1854). Both made great efforts in modernizing their institutions for fear of being colonized, in Thailand during the reign of King Chulalongkorn (1868-1910) and in Japan during the reign of Emperor Meiji (1868-1912) (Nitungkorn, 2000). Yet, today Thailand and Japan are widely different (Fredric and Jun, 2003). Economically, Japan is now ranked among the great economic powers, whereas Thailand is still considered a developing country. The Japanese level of industrialization has already surpassed that of the countries which used to be the country's models at the time of modernization (Fredric and Jun, 2003). By contrast, the present industrialization effort in Thailand relies heavily on foreign capital, technology and education, especially from Japan (Nitungkorn, 2000; Fredric and Jun, 2003).

In education, Japan and Thailand in the late nineteenth century centralized their institutions, including education. In 1947, the reform of education in Japan was operated by third parties, specifically the United States of America (U.S.A.) as a conquer (Hiromitsu, 2000). On the other hand, the reform of Thai education was the result of the Thai National Education Act 1999 (Nagai, Mektrairat Funatsu, 2008 ; David and Pacharapimon, 2008 ; Fredric and Jun, 2003). Japan and Thailand both have a goal to decentralize education to local administrative organizations. But there are many differences between these countries in how the main issues of decentralization are being addressed, such as local administrative organizations, the central government educational administration, the structure of local educational administration and the models of educational decentralization.

The significance of this study was to determine whether features of Japanese decentralization can be used to assist in the on going process of decentralization in Thailand. Has the Thai decentralization been successful so far? If Thailand has had limited success what are the reasons? How do the successful or unsuccessful experiences differ from Japan? And how can we explain the differences? These are some of the questions that will be dealt with in this paper.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this study was to compare the educational decentralization of Thailand and Japan in regard to the following issues: 1) local administrative organizations, 2) the central government educational administration, 3) the structure of local educational administration, and 4) the models of educational decentralization.

Methodology

This study used the participatory policy research design (Majchazk, 1984; Sanrattana, 2008) composed of 2 phases. Phase I was the development of tentative research results and recommendations by means of documentary analysis, retrieving data from internet, texts, journals, research reports, etc. Phase II verified the validity of research results and recommendations by in-depth interview of three experts.

Findings

Japan and Thailand both transfer the authority from a higher level of government to a lower organizational level such as local administrative organizations. The main rationale for decentralization is that people at the lower level of a hierarchy are more knowledgeable about their own needs and problems. It is believed that, under decentralization, people have more control and input into their own lives. In the educational setting, decentralization is seen as a major policy to increase efficiency, flexibility, accountability, and responsiveness for economic development in both developed and developing countries. But there are many differences between these countries in how the main issues of decentralization are being addressed.

Table 1: Comparisons of the local administrative organization of Japan and Thailand in 2007

Details	Japan	Thailand
Area (m2)	377,873	513,115
Population	127 million	62 million
No. of the local administrative organization	3,193	7,853
The budget of the local administrative organization per the budget of government	60%	24.1%

Source: *(Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT], 2008 and Nagai, et al., 2008).*

Local administrative organizations: Japan and Thailand in the late nineteenth century centralized their institutions, including education, in order to catch up with the Western industrialized nations (David and Pacharapimon, 2008). Especially, they decentralized the education to local administrative organizations. Table 1 particularly compares various details of local administrative organizations to those of Japan and Thailand approaches. As shown in Table 1, Japan seems to be small area and more population. Since Japan has a little area and the majority area is mountainous. The density of population is in the plain (MEXT, 2008). In 2007, the overall number of Thai local administrative organization of 7,853 is 2 times more than Japanese of 3,193 but the overall budget of Japanese local administrative per the budget of government of 60% is 2.5 times more than Thai of 24%.

The central government educational administration: Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology has the main role of managing education. The Ministry is responsible for national education standards in respect of course textbook and teacher quality, teacher salaries and educational support (Esther, 2006; Hiromitsu, 2000; Suzuki, 2000). In Thailand, Thai Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Education are also responsible for teacher salaries and educational supporter. But the national education standards in respect of a course textbook and teacher qualities are responsible of the Ministry of Education (David and Pacharapimon, 2008; Nagai, et. al., 2008; Nitungkorn,2000).

The structure of local educational administration: In Japan, the unique autonomous educational boards of local administrative organization are responsibile for basic education and the highest decision makers (Esther, 2006; Hiromitsu, 2000). On the other hand, Thailand has two basic educational systems (Nagai, Mektrairat and Funatsu, 2008; Nitungkorn,2000). Firstly, the school is under the Office of Basic Commission, Ministry of Education. The educational area of Office of Basic Commission is highest decision makers. Secondly, the school of local administrative organization is under the Department of local Administration of administrative, Ministry of Interior.

The models of educational decentralization: Japanese education is fully decentralized to the public (MEXT, 2008). Therefore, the unique autonomous board of education is the highest decision-making power in educational management (Esther, 2006; Hiromitsu, 2000). On the other hand, Thai education is decentralized to the educational area and the local administrative organization (Nagai, et. al., 2008; Nitungkorn, 2000). This decentralized nature as the mandate to some officials, is not distributed to the public authority.

Conclusions

The educational decentralization of Thailand has been underway in all aspects of education. Japanese educational decentralization has been successful with the emergence of a fully educational decentralization after World War II ended. This study aimed at introducing the present status of Thai movements and prospects for the future. Comparing various details of local administrative organizations in Japan and Thailand, Japan seemed to be small area and more population. The numbers of Japanese local administrative organizations are less than Thai. While the budget for Japanese local administrative organizations are more than Thai. In the educational decentralization, Japan is a unique autonomous decentralized to local administrative organization. While Thai decentralized nature is not unique autonomous decentralized because of the two systems in the education. Such Japanese educational decentralization has been successful.

Recommendations

This research study examined the specific research questions which provided data and information to make specific recommendations on how Thailand can use the feature of Japanese educational decentralization. The Thai government should;

1) Provide support by giving budgets for local administrative organizations.

2) Develop a policy that the Ministry of Education has the main role and responsibility to manage education such as national education standards, a textbook, teacher quality, teacher salaries and educational support.

3) Empower educational boards of local administrative organization to make decisions.

4) Decentralize all education to the public authority.

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Comparison of Models of Science Teacher Development in Thailand and Japan

Tawanlak Puangnil

Abstract

This purpose of research was to compare the similarities and differences in current models of science teacher development in Thailand and Japan through documentary analysis and in-depth interviews. The researcher found that there were many similarities and differences in the current models of science teacher development in both countries, such as cognitive domain, psychomotor domain and affective domain. However there were also significant differences in the details of development curriculum, the national teacher development institution criteria and professional standards for current models of science teacher development in Japan. Research data indicated that Japanese models of science teacher development have application in Thai context.

Background

The Ministry of Education (1999) of Thailand has formulated strategies and policies for science teacher development. Developing student skills in science and technology were recognized as being dependent on science teacher's knowledge and instructional skills. Government strategies identified international standards for science teacher training related to knowledge, skill, learning processes, morals, ethics, and values suitable to the Thai context. The evaluation of science teacher standards were reflected in the quality of the whole school. Thai science teachers were not open to students or to new ways of teaching, therefore they need new models for teaching content knowledge, ability, and informational management for learning activities. (Institute for the Promotion of teaching Science and Technology [IPST], 2002)

Although Thai science teachers have training in instructional skills and sufficient science competency, there were problems identified related to the science curriculum as follows: 1) difficulty in applying content curriculum for learning activities, 2) not sufficient time for learning activities, 3) uncomfortable in using the schools science handbook, 4) some content not suitable for students, 5) inadequate science laboratory space or materials to develop student inquiry skills and scientific knowledge, 6) serving too many students per class, 7) low quality of science material, 8) cannot use an authentic performance assessment for remedial instruction, and 9) not able to provide measurement and evaluation of performance. These were challenging problems for the IPST (1999) to resolve and to establish science teachers with sufficient competence.

A curriculum for teacher professional development in Japan has been a continuous process for many years. The great reform of the teacher development system was done at the end of World War II. The Japanese government developed initiated policies that focused on science development that eventually produced an increase of science teachers across the country. Universities developed science teacher training courses for pre-service and in-service

teachers and a student loan system was developed for graduate school level. That system motivated new science teachers to improve their content knowledge and instructional skills. Government strategies offered a scholarship for science teachers to study abroad, financial support for research, and established advanced research organizations supported by law.

They encouraged science teachers to exchange learning with foreign countries, and established the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, which received financial support from the government (The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT], 2004)

Japan used policies as instruments for science teacher development. Policies addressed educational reform, environment conservation, and science thinking. MEXT (1994) monitored teacher production and development, school readiness, and number of teachers and students in sciences (Yamkasikron, 2005). Preparation of teachers and in-service teacher education in Japan had the same standards nationwide since they used the Educational Personnel Certification Law (MEXT, 1999). In addition, the teaching profession in Japan had a high level of accreditation, which gave more motivation to be a good teacher and engage in self improvement regularly. Therefore, the teacher professional development system has succeeded at a high level of accreditation for many years.

To improve science teacher education in Thailand, it was necessary to examine successful programs in other countries that might have application in the Thai context. Japan was a country which had an educational development process with a focus on becoming a quality person. This document emphasized science teacher development with a focus on the production system, teacher development service, and pertaining data for science teacher development of Thailand and Japan. The executive and educational scientist could apply the idea for sustainable improvement of Thai science teachers.

Research Objectives

This research aimed to compare the similarities and differences in current models of science teacher development in Thailand and Japan using three guided research questions:

1. What are the similarities for current models of science teacher development in Thailand and Japan?
2. What are the differences for current models of science teacher development in Thailand and Japan?
3. What data and information from this research can be applied to develop current models of science teacher development in Thai context?

Methodology

This study utilized the policy research design. (Majchzak, 1984; Sanrattana, 2008). This design is different general research, which ends with conclusion and recommendation. Policy research ends with verifying of conclusion and recommendation or estimating the probability of implementation based on propriety, feasibility, congruity, and utility criteria. Thus this research were had two phases for study. The first phase consisted of a documentary study for conclusions and recommendations using analysis with triangulation data sources such as internet, textbook, journal, research, thesis or dissertation. The second phase was verified to implement by validation the probability of implementation with an expertise about the current models of science teacher development in Thai and Japanese: the Thai teaching professional who teaches in a university in Thailand and deals with Japan education, an ambassador of Japan who deals with Japanese education and official who work in an

international cooperation institute between Thailand and Japan.

The data were synthesized as a qualitative research by a manifest content synthesis to illustrate the model and activity of the current models of science teacher development in Thai and Japanese.

Results

The production and science teacher development model of Japan was centralization which is both its strength and weakness. The strength was making similar standards for all teachers and the weakness was a top down management system. Besides, there were obstacles for science teacher improvement in Japan and Thailand, which offered an effective education for their people. But, there all was based on beliefs and experiences of an authoritarian government that who had decision making power, to fix the suitable trends and educational system of their context such as problems, social, culture, and economy. At least, Thailand had clear trends that it was decentralization and all take part for improvement which appear in Thai Kingdom Constitutions and National Education Act of 1999. The science teacher development models in Japan and Thailand were similar in three aspects: 1) Cognitive domain: behavioral related to knowledge, understanding, problem solving 2) Psychomotor domain: behavioral related to performance with using muscle or psychomotor skill, and 3) Affective domain: behavioral related to interest, impression, attitude, value, and appropriate adaptation. However, similarities and differences were found as follows:

Similarities

1. The science teacher production models in Japan and Thailand were both managed by the school of education of colleges and universities, with similar criteria.

2. Science teachers in both counties was improved when they began teaching. National and state level training was offered based on research experiences and learned by using necessary methodology for each lesson. Improvement came with higher degrees such as master and doctoral degree.

3. Thai science teacher development was collaborated in academic between Ministry of Education and Institution Promotion of Science and Technology (IPST) with development plans and improvement using the science teacher's training courses. This was similar to the process in Japan.

4. A classification of teacher's career in Thailand and Japan used similar criteria such as experiences and instructional expertise.

5. Thai and Japanese science teachers were recruited as members of a vocational teacher association which was classified by major subject. Because of this, the vocational teacher association had training, seminars, field trips abroad for their teachers during the end of semester.

6. Thai and Japanese science teachers used similar methods for self development.

7. Thailand had a project to train in-service teachers, which was similar to Japan and included national teacher's project, teacher's model project, and prepared the mainstay expert's project in others fields all over the elementary and secondary schools.

Differences

1. Thai teachers study four years at the college or university and one year in a school environment. In Japan, they study four years in the university and are in residence in the school 4-6 weeks. However, Japanese students develop higher levels of science achievement using their national model.

2. Thai teachers were classified with six levels such as teacher, facilitator teacher, teacher, teacher level 2, teacher level 3, teacher level 4 and teacher

level 5 Japanese teachers were classified with three levels such as the first teacher, second teacher, and expert teacher. In the both countries were classified career ladder through the experiences and instructional expertise.

3. A vocational teacher certification was given to Japanese teachers who worked on school performance and individual educational background difference. But, all teachers were given a similar certification in Thailand.

4. Thailand trained science teachers in elementary and secondary school by using a long distance learning system through the educational television (ETV) with training standard curriculum. But, this was not the case in Japan.

5. The Japanese culture supported teamwork and learning exchanges more than Thai culture and teachers. There were clear and various activities to support teacher development process. They used a science teacher development for core improvement tools and learning by doing together, which was not found in Thai science teacher development process.

6. Japanese could use self improvement for evidence data to evaluate and increase their salary, because the Japanese government and their schools required a responsibility for science teachers to do that. That was completely different from Thai teachers.

7. The Japanese government had regulated for public school teachers to join with in-service training and regular research, which was different between Japanese and Thai teachers. Thai teachers were not trained and did not conduct research regularly. They were trained if they had an urgent need, such as when contents and instruction changed in their curriculum.

8. Japanese science teachers had to measure and evaluate their teaching efficiency every year with system that was called Kinmu Hyotie, which it was the school leaders duty. The result was to develop their professional teachers. It was different than Thai science teachers, who were used only result of evaluation to increase teachers salary in a year.

Conclusion

Secondary school teachers had to finish a bachelor degree which it was similar to a teacher professional certification system of Japan. The recruitment of teachers was a major consideration and school requirement, which resulted in high quality teachers. Original affiliation universities ought to train in-service teachers systematically and foster them to research and development progressively. This could be important factors to encourage Japanese teachers for sustainable improvement. Thus, there are very good guidelines to improve Thai science teachers because Thai in-service teachers development system is not sufficient. Although, Thailand pre-service teachers training is spending more time than Japan, but they do not have more efficiency content knowledge and teaching skills.

Recommendations

This research study examined specific research questions which provided data and information to make recommendations on how Thailand can improve current models of science teacher development. The Thai government should consider the following:

1. Develop clear aims for an effective teacher production system consistent with need for Thai schools.

2. Organize a national committee for continuous revision and support for Thai teachers.

3. Provide a national teacher development institution for each province.

4. Develop a five year science teaching curriculum.

5. Revise In-service training regulations to foster self improvement.

6. Support scholarship for science teachers to encourage teachers to earn higher degrees.

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A Comparative Study of Thailand and Singapore Educational Reform 2000 - 2008

Thanoo Sirichantapan

Abstract

This comparative study focused on the similarities and differences of Thailand and Singapores' educational reform efforts between 2000 - 2008. The focus was on determining a logical approach using data from Singapore educational reform movement to assist the Thailand educational reform efforts. Methodology incorporated policy research. Findings included: (1) Thailand and Singapore could share a similar emphasis on human resource development as a key in developing the population to enter the knowledge-based economy and global environment, (2) Singapore has been successful in educational reform by its mission and vision of education and, (3) suggestions for Thai educational reform are setting clear and easily comprehensible goals and attempting to create a new educational system based on best practice methodology.

Background

For the past decade Thailand has worked consistently on educational reform. The main goal of this reform effort has been for graduates to successfully enter a knowledge-based economy and global environment. The educational reform policy in Thailand was enacted by The Constitutional Law of 1997 and National Education Act of 1999 (Amendments in 2002). The Ministry of Education set goals for education in 1996 - 2007 to realize the potential of Thai people to develop themselves for a better quality of life and to develop the nation for peaceful co-existence in the world community. The main focus of education reform continues to be increasing the quality of education in a global society and highly competitive world. It appeared that in Thailand science and mathematics had been neglected, which resulted in low achievement of primary and secondary students. Also in the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) conducted by the international Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Thailand's ranking in both science (24th out of 26 countries) and mathematics (22nd out of 26 countries) at the primary school level were low while Singapore's ranking 10th in Mathematics and 1st in science, indicated strength.

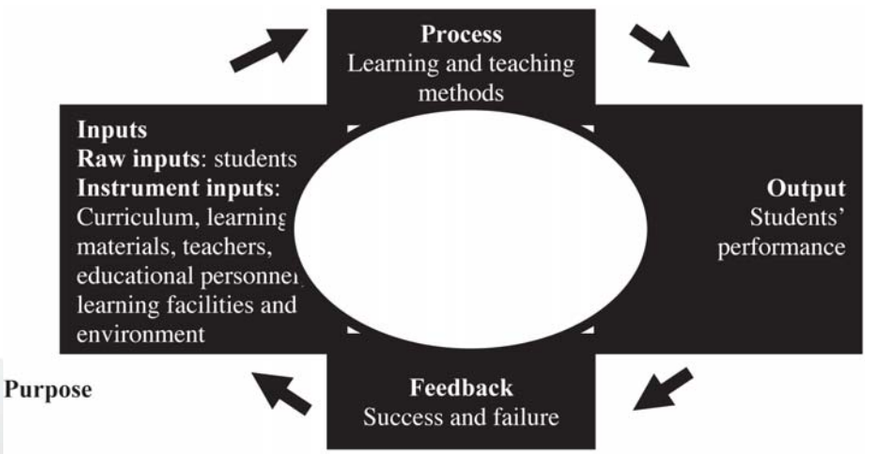
Clearly, something was needed to improve the quality of basic education in Thailand. The reform of teachers and curriculum was deemed essential as the data from The Institute for the Promotion of Teaching Science and Technology of Thailand indicated. Analysis of the performance of Thai students in the IEA's evaluation found that students performed fairly well in terms of choosing the best answers from multiple choice exam, but they did poorly in analytical thinking and laboratory experimentation. The impact from teachers' traditional teaching methods and inflexibility of curriculum was deemed important in student performance. Command of the English language was also seen as an essential

asset for living in a global society so English teachers needed to develop more effective teaching styles (Sangnapaboworn, 2005).

The Republic of Singapore, as the most developed country in Southeast Asia, has re-defined its mission and vision of education (Sadiman, 2004). Its stated mission is to shape the future of the nation by developing people who will determine the future of the nation. Its vision is Thinking School, Learning Nation (TSLN), first announced by Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong in 1997, as an overall descriptor of an education system geared to meet the needs of the 21st century (Ministry of Education, 2001). Under the umbrella vision of TSLN, various initiatives were launched, each addressing a different aspect of the education system. National Education (NE), launched in 1997, aimed to develop national cohesion. Singapore's Masterplan for Information Technology in Education, launched in 1997, laid out a comprehensive strategy for teaching and learning IT(Ng, 2007). In 2005, the Ministry of Education launched "Teach Less, Learn More" (TLLM) to response the Prime Minister Lee Hsien Loong's call on "teach less, so that our students could learn more" (Lee, 2004). According to the Minister of Education, Mr Tharman Shanmugaratnam, TLLM is the way that education in Singapore is to go forward and transform teaching method, students' learning and curriculum (Tharman, 2005). Singapore education always changes so it has achieved many enviable results, especially the area of mathematics and science. The Singapore education system has been known for its high resource commitment, academic rigor, down-to-earth direct teaching by teachers and repeated practice by the students (Zhao, 2005).

To understand the educational reform in Thailand and Singapore it was important to look at education as a system with all its interdependent components: inputs, process, outputs and feedback shown in figure 1 below. Under the inputs are included students as raw inputs, and curriculum, learning materials, teachers, principals and other educational resource persons, learning facilities and environment as instrumental inputs. The process is where all inputs interact in the process of teaching-learning to reach educational goals and objectives. The output is the product of the interaction among the inputs, which can be seen from the student's improved performance. Feedback is another important component of the educational system that will provide information on how the system succeeds or fails in achieving goals and objectives.

Figure 1 Educational system



This study was designed to compare similarities and differences between educational reform efforts in Thailand and Singapore during the period of 2000 - 2008. Data and information from the study was used to assist the ongoing Educational Reform Policy efforts in Thailand.

Methodology

Policy research was chosen for this study (Majchzak 1986, Sarattana, 2008) and was composed of two phases. First was the development of initial research procedures by analyzing documentary evidence from a variety of sources through triangulation of data sources from the internet, texts, journals and research reports. Second was verification of the validity of the research results by consulting with a panel of five experts in the profession. These experts had all worked in educational reform in Thailand for at least a decade. Research data obtained from these two phases were analyzed by manifest content analysis and were presented the recommendations using a descriptive format.

Research results & Discussion

Similarities

The similarities on educational reform in Thailand and Singapore during 2000 - 2008 were as follows:

1) Both countries prepare their people for the concept of globalization and knowledge-based economy according to the constitutional law of 1997 and national education act of 1999 (amendment 2002) in Thailand and the vision of Singapore "Thinking School Learning Nation" (1997).

2) Both countries use their strategies for the promotion of education quality and expansion of lifelong education opportunity, particularly in terms of using technologies, problem solving, and creative thinking.

3) The curriculum as an instrumental input in educational system of Thailand and Singapore are continuously reformed especially at basic education level.

4) In teaching and learning reform, Thailand and Singapore pay attention to improving the achievement of students, especially in mathematics, science and English language, which are essential subjects for living in the age of globalization.

Differences

The differences on educational reform in Thailand and Singapore during 2000 - 2008 were as follows:

1) Singapore educational reform during 2000-2008 implements "Thinking Schools, Learning Nation" (TSLN), first announced by Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong in 1997. Thailand education began reform efforts with the National Education Act 1999 (Amendments in 2002).

2) Educational reform in Singapore is called Nation Agenda'. For Thailand it varies according to the government's policy and the political leaders including the prime minister and the minister of education.

3) The curriculum reform in Singapore is guided by "Teach Less, Learn More" (TLLM) in response to Prime Minister Lee Hsien Loong's call to "teach less, so that our students could learn more". Thailand announced basic education curriculum in 2001 along with national education guidelines in the National Education Act of 1999.

4) According to previous item teaching and learning reform is also considered by TLLM that the teachers have to review the core of education and the students have to become engaged learners. The outcome of this strategy encourages the students' thinking skill while Thai government provided the physical environment to school. For example, computers and

language laboratories were send to schools and many school buildings were repainted and school fences were gorgeously constructed but learning and teaching were still old style.

Several experts have expressed their viewpoints regarding Thailand educational reform which matched the results of this research including: preparing people for knowledge-based society. Dr. Pravase Vasi, a well-known and high recognized scholar in Thailand, suggested that Thailand should transform Thai society into a learning society and be able to share knowledge through cooperative learning. Dr. Kasem Watanachai, former Minister of Education and a Privy Council member, mentioned in "Thai Education in the Past Three Decades" that citizenship education should be boosted since it is a foundation of society that showed that the quality of education was essential. Some experts expressed the importance of the stakeholders in educational reform as: Dr. Sippanon Kedutat, former Minister of Education and Chairman of the National Economic and Social Development Commission who argued Thai government should pay more attention to a learning society (Pongpit, 2004). There was also the suggestion that educational reform must come from all stakeholders. Dr. Sumeta Tantivejakul, former secretary-general of the National Economic and Social Development Commission, indicated that he did not see any objective achievement of the education reform which was inserted in the 9th National Economic and Social Development plan that showed that all level have to involve in educational reform. Dr. Gerald W. Fry of University of Minnesota, a Thai education expert, stated that continuity leadership was important at all levels of Thailand education. His interpretation was that continuity visions and missions impacted the success of educational reform.

Recommendations

Four specific recommendations were generated based on data and information analysis cited in this study:

1) Thailand educational reform should be setting clear and easily comprehensible goals and attempt to create a new education system in the cultural creative movement in order to prepare citizens for the concept of globalization and knowledge-based economy according to The Constitutional Law of 1997 and National Education Act of 1999 (amendment 2002).

2) Thailand's educational reform initiative should emphasize learning reform for improvement of quality learners by using quality input in education systems such as relevant curriculum, good learning materials, quality teachers, visional educational personnel, suitable learning facilities and environment.

3) Thailand should rely more on the TSLN and TLLM system used in Singapore and less on the mandated policy of Thai Educational reform Act of 1999.

4) Public participation in providing feedback regarding the success and failure of educational reform is very important. Thailand should recognize the importance of involving schools, parents, community and industries as partners in education. Efforts will need to be made to involve the various stakeholders at the Ministry and school levels.

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A Comparative Study of Higher Educational Quality Assurance Between Thailand and New Zealand

Nikanchala Lonlua

Abstract

This research was designed to compare the quality assurance systems in higher education between Thailand and New Zealand . The results of this research will lead to a proposal to provide information and data for modification of the assessment model for The Office of Accreditation and Educational Quality Assurance in Thailand. Quality assurance in Thai higher education is divided into two systems: Internal and external quality assurance. Both enforce support of development and improvement in the QA systems and levels of assessment that are key factors for enhancement. Quality Assurance also aims for linkages among national and regional areas for the cooperative exchange of information, activities , credit transfer and student mobility among the countries using an integrated approach.

Background

Quality assurance in higher education of Thailand systematically started in 1996. For "external quality assurance", it would evaluate the findings of educational management every five years by The Office of Accreditation and Educational Quality Assurance (OAE) (Wattananikon, 2007).

The Institute for Management Development (IMD), an international institute, conducts a survey for ranking the order of competency in competition of various countries around the world every year. The survey findings from the issue "Education in University", found that Thailand had 5.28 points out of a full score of ten which had increased respectively from 3.60 in 2001. However, comparing with other countries in Asia Pacific such as Singapore, Hong Kong, India, and Malaysia, Thailand still ranked behind in issues such as "Knowledge Transfer" which Thailand was behind comparing to other countries in Asia-Pacific. In 2006, Thailand was ranked as the 11th order from thirteen countries (IMD,2006).

For the educational management in higher education of New Zealand, there were offices of public sector taking care of the standard quality policy in higher education including Ministry of Education, Tertiary Education Commission or TEC, New Zealand Qualifications Authority or NZQA, New Zealand Vice Chancellors Committee or NZVCC, and different institutes in part of Ministry of Education, would establish Tertiary Education Strategy or TES, and determine Statement of Tertiary Education Priorities or STEP (Tertiary Education Commission,2006). New Zealand had a high standard quality assurance system with complete external quality assurance, and continuous development, high level of assessment product, and systematic assessment for assessment unity. The standard and indicators were developed for quality assurance appropriately with context of the country. Besides, IMD ranked order of competency NZ 22, Thai 32, and be good example for Thai Educational Management in higher education for applying in Thai context.

Research Objectives

1. To study and compare the implementation of educational quality assurance in higher education between New Zealand and Thailand.

2. To propose policy guidelines in implementing educational quality assurance in higher education of Thai context.

Methodology

For this study, Majchrzak' (1984) and Sanrattana' (2008) model of policy research was applied. It stated that the policy research was different from general research in that general research would end at the level of conclusions and recommendations. But, the policy research wouldn't end at that point. The research findings and recommendations would be investigated or anticipated for the practice opportunity by estimating the probability of implementation based on propriety, feasibility, congruity, and utility. Therefore, this research included two stages: The First Stage was the study for finding the conclusions and recommendations by analyzing documents from various sources based on triangulation of data sources including books, journals, and websites. The Second Stage was the investigation of opportunity for putting into practice by sending articles to experts for validating/estimating the probability of implementation by three reviewers. The information received from both stages was subjected to content analysis and presented in descriptive form and comparative tables of the study, analysis, synthesis from related documents and information by the researcher.

Findings

1. In New Zealand, the Ministry of Education was the major office in providing advice regarding policies of higher education for the government, managing Tertiary Education Strategy or TES of the country, and determining Statement of Tertiary Education Priorities or STEP. New Zealand had the National Educational Act for many decades. It was improved many times. The structure and educational system in higher education were clearly determined by stating that the universities had to include educational quality and research assuring by international level.

The educational quality assurance of universities in New Zealand could be classified by its main ideas into three parts: 1) The Educational Quality Assurance in National Educational Act 1989 determining New Zealand Vice-Chancellors Committee or NZVCC. It also established New Zealand Universities Academic Audit Unit or AAU as a freelance office for auditing every outside university in New Zealand. New Zealand Vice-Chancellors Committee appointed "Committee on University Academic Program" or CUAP for considering academic of the whole system of university, 2) The Educational Quality Assurance in Universities, in which the universities would implement their own internal quality assurance. Each of them would have different internal quality assurance and report management for assuring the external quality assurance from AAU, and 3) The external quality assurance of universities, provided through the Academic Audit Units, freelance offices taking care of external auditing for all universities in New Zealand.

In the implementation of AAU, it took care of assessing mechanisms, following up, and developing the quality standard, commenting on the system effectiveness and operational process for maintaining educational quality, identifying problems and suggestions for correcting and improving the process as well as other kinds of coordination for seeing how the quality assurance of New Zealand was nearly the same as international level. After the audition, the progress and half term report would be performed. The AAU

director would audit every university to determine whether it had correct or improved based on the external auditors. For the second round audition, every university would be audited in terms of implementation and support of the graduate students, associating between research and instruction both in undergraduate and graduate study, research policy, management, and findings of implementation by universities.

The AAU of New Zealand was established as a freelance unit that had to implement with transparency, and provide open information for the public. For a technique in adjusting quality standard of curriculum among universities in New Zealand, it was to send curriculum that the university wanted to offer to various universities asking for opinions and suggestions for considering in agreement by AAU of New Zealand. In case of Thailand, the TEC at the rector conference, including association and professional organization, should collaborate in establishing academic quality standard criterion both in curriculum and institute levels for using in external quality assurance of OAE, and providing guidelines in implementation of universities and higher education institutes.

The results of a comparison of the most important components of higher education quality assurance between Thailand and New Zealand were as followings: figure1 - 2 and table 1 - 2.

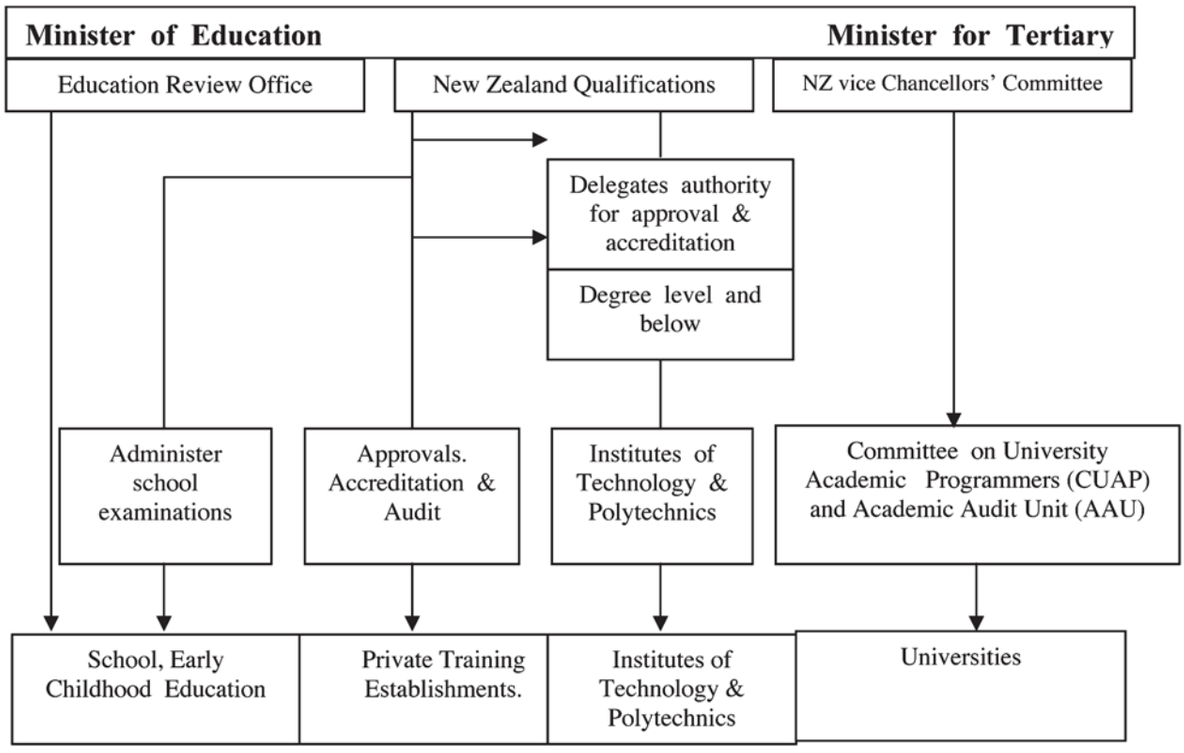

Figure 1: Quality Assurance Bodies in the New Zealand Education System (NZ cabinet,2006)

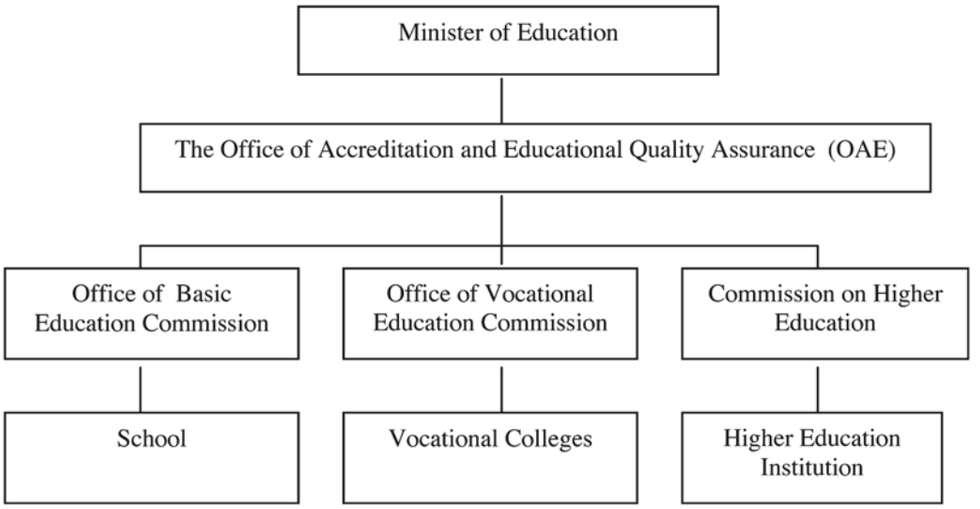

Figure 2: Quality Assurance Bodies in the Thailand Education System (OEC,2004).

Table 1 : Comparative Educational Quality Assurance of Higher Education Between Thailand and New Zealand

	Thailand				**New Zealand**			
Universities establisher	Act of Parliament . Decision made by Privy Council.				Act of Parliament			
Structure	OAE	Private company	Funding from contracts subscriptions and self-funding activities	Quality Assurance and other roles	NZVCC	Statutory entity CUAP: standing committee AAU: independent audit unit	CUAP: Funded by NZVCC AAU: Funded by NZVCC and university	CUAP: inter-university course Approval AAC: Academic audit
Systems of University - QA system	Quality assurance can be divided into 2 main factors: internal quality assurance and external quality assurance .				Quality assurance can be divided into 2 main factors: internal quality assurance and external quality assurance.			
- Carries out the QA	OAE is the national QA organization for higher education				NZVCC is the university sector programme approval and accreditation body.			

Table 2: Comparative Educational Quality Assurance of Higher Education Between Thailand and New Zealand

	Thailand New	Zealand
-Who is QA. OAE	- All universities	NZVCC - CUAP - AAU All universities
Accountability Review	OAE : 1. Graduates Quality 2. Research and Innovation 3. Academic Services 4. Preservation of Arts and Culture 5. Institutions and Person Development 6. Teaching and Leaning 7. Quality Assurance	NZVCC: 1. Governance 2. Management 3. Delivery of the Curriculum 4. Quality of Student Education

2. The Policy Guidelines in Implementing Educational Quality Assurance in Higher Education for applying of Thai context.

According to the analysis of related documents, the guidelines for implementing educational quality assurance in higher education could be concluded especially the OAE taking care of external quality assurance as specified in National Educational Act as follows:

1. The OAE had to develop "professional auditors" with criteria for auditors' competencies, and criteria to assure or not assure the auditors or auditors institutes.

2. The OAE had to develop the competency level in various aspects as follows: 1) For the quality control of OAE, it had to continuously develop competency in administration and management for collecting and analyzing information from the follow up and assessment of the auditors' performance for controlling quality of auditors throughout the period, and 2) Demand-side management, the competency in managing had to be developed by the OAE so that the assessment findings were used in positive way by using criterion in improving development

3. The information associated with the Ministry of Education and other related offices should be organized by the OAE so that the information could be used for auditing to find the schools or institutes in high risk group.

4. For model development of external quality assessment, the hierarchy implementation and process should be performed from the standard development of assessment list as the cycle being adjusted all the time with standard determination by the users of assessment findings.

5. The OAE should provide importance to the auditor selection and determination of the auditors' qualifications including morality, ethics, honesty, competency in education and synthesis various kinds of information so that the assessment finds were correct and reliable.

Conclusions

While the principles for the quality assurance of universities are the same for the two countries, the contrasts are to be found in the differences in structure, funding and approaches to external quality assurance. Both countries provide

an example of different ways of delivering quality assurance successfully within and across higher education and in sync with the type of higher education system running in each country.

Recommendations

This research content analysis suggests that for higher education quality assurance, there were two recommendations for the Ministry of Education in Thailand:

1. The quality assurance in higher education of Thailand should provide more importance to the process and products in the major field level. Specifically, in the vocational field, the findings from those vocational institutes should be indicators as well so that the follow up, assessment, improvement, and development of quality processes for education and learning to achieve objectives of the National Educational Act 1999 would increase Thai graduates' competency level.

2. The Ministry of Education in Thailand should develop a educational quality system, especially the external quality assurance system of the OAE, to be competent in collecting and keeping information technology or coordinating in keeping information technology as well as analyzing and conducting research regarding products and outcomes of educational management in higher education of each institute efficiently for the graduates information in competency.

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A Comparison of Educational Decentralization Between Thailand and Australia: A Case Study Analysis

Suthep Palasarn

Abstract

This research study was designed to analyze similarities and differences in decentralizing education between Thailand and Australia using policy research methodology. The information was analyzed and synthesized from focus group sessions and document analysis for gathering and concluding research results. The data indicated that the educational management decentralization in both countries have some similarities including direct decentralization, school-based management and quality checks and balances which are very clear and concrete, especially in the quality of education and budget management. Thailand data indicated that there were problems such as budget management and personnel management including school principals not performing well on bureaucratic policy.

Background

Early educational management/administrations in many countries were primarily central authority management driven which did not respond effectively to problem solving. Thus, many countries have decentralized educational management to ensure best practice the decision making. (Educational Council, 2007; Office of Basic Education Commission, 2008d) Educational Management of Thailand in the past time, did not include any educational law or specific policy. Starting in 1997 the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand mandated educational law of the 81st Section , followed by the 1999 National Educational Act which emerged to become the first educational law of Thailand and public educational service. In addition to educational centralization of Thailand, schools had less decision making authority even though they were most important to those who received the educational services (Wanchai Danaitamonut, 2006; Dolprasit, S., 2001; Ministry of Education, 2008). The 1999 National Educational Act was established on the 39th Section to mandate Educational Ministry decentralizing, including general management, personnel management, fiscal management and academic management to the schools and boards of Office of Basic Educational Areas directly. (Educational Secretary Council Office, 1999; Office of Basic Education Commission, 2009) Educational decentralization continued by classifying public schools as juristic entities. School improvement depended on the school-based management, good governance management principles based on legal justice, virtue, participatory accountability and were significant factors toward quality education and are tools implementing policies into practices (Ministry of Educational, 2003; Office of Basic Education Commission, 2008 b) The important factors for the quality

education of management in schools are appropriated and in line with responsibilities so that educational decentralization is necessary for quality educational management (Ministry of Educational, 2003; Office of Basic Education Commission, 2008c) Consequently, educational management was changed by the Educational Ministry by dividing educational areas into 175 sections across the whole the country and setting up the Ministerial Regulation 2003 for conducting the line of educational decentralization of Thailand.

For educational management in Australia, educational responsibilities of public education were dependent on each state.The states have designed self-educational reforms, decentralized decision making , served more authorities and independence to public schools and developed significant traits of education management in that country. (Educational Council, 2007 ; Philip, 2009; Office of Basic Education Commission, 2008 a) In Educational Decentralization, especially public schools have self-managed in fiscal systems, and their reforms have gradually processed for avoiding opposition and an influential and powerful factor for driving educational change. The fiscal decentralization to public schools can be seen as improving an achievement of students. There are curriculum reforms that attempt to develop professional capabilities and competencies of teachers, promote and support schools to commit on the results of learning and instructional managerial accountability which emerged from resource utilization (Educational Council, 2007; Brian & Caldwell, 1992; Caldwell, 2004) Local Administrative Organization didn't have power, responsibility, or role in educational management or school management. There were some as the role in providing service for community in non formal education learning resources in community (Educational Council, 2006; Office of Basic Education Commission, 2006)

The researcher analyzed the similarities and differences in decentralizing education management between Thailand and Australia for identifying usable results for educational management of Thailand and proposing recommendations for improvement.

Research Objectives

Three specific research objectives were identified:

1. Study the similarities in decentralizing educational management in Thailand and Australia.
2. Study the differences in decentralizing educational management in Thailand and Australia.
3. Apply the advantages of educational decentralization of Australia for developing educational in Thailand.

Methodology

This research used the policy research design of Majchrzak (1984) and Wirot Sanrattana (2008) composed in two phases:

Phase I:

Development of initial research procedures by analyzing documentary evidence from diverse sources through data sources from the internet, texts, journals and research reports.

Phase II:

Verification of validity of research data and suggested recommendations for estimating the probability of implementation by presenting the result of the first phase for evaluation by recognized experts in the educational decentralization between Thailand and Australia. Reviewers were an ambassador of Australia who deals with Australian education.

The research data obtained from these two phases were analyzed by manifest content analysis and were presented in descriptive format.

Findings

In line with the research questions, the researcher conducted documentary analysis and in-depth interviews with the experts selected for the research. The results were as follows:

Similarities: The Data indicated that:

1. For the academic aspect, quality control of both countries included the responsibility for controlling, monitoring, following up, and assessing quality. In case schools failed in passing school assessment, they had to implement corrections based on the auditors' suggestions. Both countries had National Testing and reporting of the development findings.

2. For the budget management aspect, both countries allocated their budget with a similar pattern including the individual support budget allocation and support for special education students.

3. There were similarities in personnel management of both countries, the schools could take the responsibility for recruiting, evaluating and transferring of teachers and school principals.

4. For the general work management aspect, there were similarities in personnel management of both countries: the schools could suggest and agree, appoint for position and transfer teachers and school administrators.

Differences: The Data indicated that:

1. For the academic management of curriculum in Australia, the central government controlled and organized curriculum. But, in Thailand, the government by Ministry of Education took care in managing central curriculum. The schools were allowed to organize 30% of their own local curriculum.

2. For the budget management aspect, In Australia, the schools were empowered to manage budget freely and quickly. There were private sectors that audited the accounting system. There were individual allocations per each student and each school budget. The additional budget was allocated for special education students. But, in Thailand, although the financial support was allocated for schools, the government by Ministry of Education still controlled and ordered regulations in spending budget for schools to strictly follow the rules which lacked of freedom and quickness of management.

3. For the personnel management aspect, in Australia, the schools were empowered with absolute power in personnel management. But, in Thailand, although the schools were empowered to implement freely, the implementation had to be strictly based on laws, regulations, and guidelines of practice.

4. General affairs management in Australia were decentralized to the school boards completely, the local government or organization did not have roles in educational management. Conversely in Thailand there were assigned roles and authorities of local government, schools and educational service areas in educational management depending on principles, laws and policy of government.

Recommendations

In order to apply the important model from Australia, it is recommended that the Thai Government:

1. Take responsibility for academic management, such as determining all curricula and quality control management systems, and also improving the evaluator's potential.

2. Provide independence to schools on budget management by decreasing red tape on regulation, budgeting management by objective and prohibiting corruption.

3. Assure good governance on recruitment, appointment, and disciplinary function of control

4. Provide efficiency and effectiveness on information and technology management, and school-based management .

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An Analysis of Obstacles in Implementation of Educational Reform in Thailand

Apharat Ratchapat

Abstract

The objective of this research was to analyze the problems and obstacles affecting Thai Educational Reform by using documentary analysis from related documents. The findings showed that the problems and obstacles of Thai Educational Reform could be classified as the enforcement of educational reform laws, the reform of educational management structure, learning reform, the reform of teachers and educational personnel, and overall educational reform. The holistic problem solving of every level and related part had to be solved by focusing on participation for finding the most appropriate guidelines in educational reform from bottom up so that the educational reform was managed for helping students to develop their full potential.

Background

Thailand implemented educational reform by starting from the provision in the Thai constitution in 1997. Later on, the National Educational Act was passed for the first time. It was advertised for use in 1999. In addition, there were many additional laws assuring that Thai education would be reformed in aspects such as administrational structure and decentralization. These laws recognized the importance of the educational reform process in leading the country to survive in a new society with knowledge as a major factor of both the economic and social systems (Tongrote, 1998).

According to the studies of competency in competition of Thailand compared with countries at the same level of development, Thailand was lower in Science, Technology, Education, and Public Health. Moreover, the educational quality as evidenced from the evaluation in Mathematics, Science, and other subjects, Thai students obtained average scores lower than many countries (Chiengoon, 1998). In addition, the Office of Accreditation and Educational Quality Assurance (OAE) found that for the budget year 2006-2007 the overall school assessment was in the "Moderate" level. In comparison with the findings from the previous assessment, the quality development actually decreased (htpp://news.sanook.com/social/social, 1998).

Therefore, the researcher was interested in analyzing the obstacles affecting Thai Educational Reform regarding the major factors that caused the reform to fail to meet expectations, and how to solve problems of Thai Educational Reform which would lead to useful information as guidelines for Thai future educational management.

Research Objectives

For studying and analyzing the problems and obstacles affecting Thai Educational Reform, the specific objective framework was to: 1) study and analyze the problems and obstacles affecting Thai Educational Reform, and 2) present information, opinions, and guidelines for educational policy makers to improve Thai Educational Reform.

Methodology

For this study, the Majchrzak (1984) and Sanrattana' (2008) viewpoint of policy research was used. This methodology recognized that policy research was different from general research in that general research would end up at the point of conclusions and recommendations. But, policy research wouldn't stop at that point. It would bring the findings and recommendations being investigated to estimate the probability of implementation based on propriety, feasibility, congruity, and utility. Therefore, this study included two stages as follows: The first stage, was for finding conclusions and recommendations by analyzing documents from various sources based on triangulation of data sources, including books, journal articles, and internet sites. The second stage was to send conclusions and recommendations to three expert reviewers to be validated/estimated for the probability of implementation. The information from both stages would be analyzed by using content analysis and presented in descriptive form from related documents as documentary analysis.

Findings

According to the study of problems and obstacles affecting in Thai Educational Reform, there were five aspects of findings as follows:

1. The enforcement of educational reform laws:

This research found that although government policy aimed for twelve years' of free education, in actual fact most parents faced considerable expenditures. As for the underprivileged, this research found that they were catered for in the mainstream system and there were very few alternatives available. Although educational reform laws emphasized child-centered teaching, in practice this approach was not fully implemented. There were also problems in selecting school committees, with no strict adherence to reform law guidelines. This research also found that very little attention was paid to family and workplace education.

2. The reform of educational management structure:

As for the decentralization of management power to The Office of Educational Service Area and schools, there were delays and difficulties. Regarding decentralization to local government organizations, there were problems in differing levels of readiness and management quality. Most teachers were still worried and didn't want to transfer because they felt that status would be changed from being government ministry officials to officers of local government organizations. In addition they were worried that they would have to work under local administrative organization workers, who might have lower education or ethical standards than them.

3. Learning reform standards:

This research found that there were problems in curriculum design and implementation. There were also a shortage of teachers, especially at certain levels and for certain subjects such as mathematics, sciences and English. As for student evaluation and enrollment, there were many problems at every level, especially evaluation, which placed too much emphasis on test results and neglected other aspects such as conduct and ethics. The use of information technology for education

was still limited, especially in primary schools. There were also many problems in teacher development, such as budget and limited research opportunities.

4. Reforming teachers and education personnel:

Although education reform laws emphasized teacher reform, this research found that in practice there were very little developments in this area. Teachers were still working under the old centralized education system, which limits the opportunities for genuine and effective teacher reform.

Recommendations

Based on the research findings of this study, the researcher made the following recommendations to Thai policy makers in education:

1) Assure that all aspects of the educational reform laws are implemented as intended, such as free education, child-centered learning, and selection of school committees.

2) Assure that teachers feel confident about moving to local government organizations and that standards and ethics are not being compromised.

3) Recruit teachers to meet subject matter shortages, especially in mathematics, science, and English, including training teachers using authentic assessment.

4) Implement systematic and continuous plans for teacher development to assure teacher reform.

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Contract Liability for Disciplinary Sanctions in Higher Education: A Survey of the Case Law from 1986

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Abstract

Disciplinary sanctions represent a major source of contractual disputes between student and university in the United States. In adjudicating contractual claims arising from sanctions imposed upon students for academic dishonesty, the federal and state courts have maintained the attitude of non-interference unless there is clear and convincing evidence that an educational institution has abused its discretion in its disciplinary decision. In resolving disputes pertaining to such misconduct as theft, sexual harassment, and disruptive behaviors, the courts have followed the principle that educational institutions must act fairly and in good faith. The results of this research confirm that most findings in Charles Rogers' study remained valid between 1986 and 2000. Overall, contract theory has provided a viable tool for the university and the judiciary to define the parameters of the student-university relationship.

Keywords: contract liability; student discipline; student-university relationship

INTRODUCTION

Contract claims can arise from disciplinary sanctions imposed upon students for having engaged in such misconduct as cheating, plagiarism, theft, hazing, harassment, disruption, drug abuse, to name a few. Based on the findings of Rogers' study, contract claims of this type that occurred in American higher education from 1970 to 1985 were characterized with the following few features. First, as the judiciary continued to recognize and reinforce the right of higher education institutions (HEIs) to promulgate reasonable regulations and procedures for student discipline, these claims were largely unsuccessful. Second, public HEIs were required to follow due process requirements in student disciplinary actions while their private counterparts did not have the same obligation. If private HEIs promised to provide the protection in their official representations, however, they must do so accordingly. Third, the federal and state courts would disclaim a contractual relationship between student and university if they found that the university procedures were constitutionally deficient, or that the administrative officials had acted arbitrarily, or that the university had failed to meet due process requirements. Fourth, "reasonableness" was used as an important standard for courts to review student disciplinary cases and as a judicial tool to balance rights and responsibilities in the student-university relationship (Rogers, 1986).

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This research is a follow-up study intended to answer three questions: What are the major sources of contract claims pertaining to student discipline in U.S. higher education from 1986-2000? Is contract theory still a viable legal theory for describing the student-university relationship? What are the legal implications of the judicial decisions for the relevant university policies?

The purpose of this study is to update information relating to changes and trends in the contractual relationship between student and university in American higher education between 1986 and 2000. This is attempted in the hope that the study results will help faculty members as well as educational administrators update their knowledge about the legal ramifications of the contractual relationship between student and university and help minimize potential liability risks on the part of the institution.

This study is presented in three distinct sections. The first section identifies sources of contract claims which stemmed from disciplinary sanctions from 1986 to 2000. The second section outlines major developments in case law to uncover any patterns that emerged in the contractual relationship between student and university from 1986 to 2000. Facts as well as major judicial rationales and legal reasoning are examined for the purpose of establishing the existing parameters of the problem under discussion. The third section explores implications of the judicial decisions for the institutional policies. As such, the study is conducted using recognized legal sources, such as the Lexis-Nexis computer search system, the American Digest System, the American Law Reports, and the American Jurisprudence. Most cases analyzed in this research are selected using the Lexis-Nexis system. These cases, along with those in Rogers' study, are "shepardized" using Shepard's Citations. The purpose of "shepardizing" all the cases is to trace the history and treatment of citing cases, the extent of popularity of certain legal rationales and reasoning in court decisions, and to classify major themes that are involved in the case law.

CONTRACT CLAIMS ARISING FROM DISCIPLINARY SANCTIONS

A survey of the case law reveals that, between 1986 and 2000, contract claims arising from disciplinary sanctions in U.S. higher education primarily fall into two categories: one is represented by those cases pertaining to sanctions imposed upon students for academic dishonesty while the other is derived from student disciplinary cases. The former mainly includes such judicial decisions: Mason v. State ex rel. Bd. of Regents (2000), Gagne v. Trustees of Indiana University (1998), Lyon College v. Gray (1999), Henderson State Univ. v. Spadoni (1993), Melvin v. Union College (1993), Shuman v. University of Minnesota Law School (1990), and Cosio v. Medical College of Wisconsin (1987). The latter primarily comprises the following judicial decisions: Anderson v. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (1995), Fellheimer v. Middlebury College (1994), Holert v. University of Chicago (1990), Warren v. Drake University (1989), Fussell v. Louisiana Business College of Monroe (1988), Johnson v. Lincoln Christian College (1986).

CONTRACT CLAIMS ARISING FROM SANCTIONS FOR ACADEMIC DISHONESTY

Courts have ordinarily viewed academic dishonesty as a disciplinary issue (Toma & Palm, 1999, p. 90), which can be explained by at least two reasons. First, academic dishonesty "usually revolves around issues of disputed fact" (Stevens, 1999, p. 30), which underscores the need that it be resolved based on substantial evidence and by following procedural guidelines. Second, "allegations of cheating against

students can be more stigmatizing and have a greater impact on their future than allegations of nonacademic misconduct" (Cole, 1994, cited by Stevens, 1999, p. 30). Thus, to view academic dishonesty as a disciplinary issue justifies more stringent due process procedures so as to adequately safeguard the liberty and property interests of students.

Lyon College v. Gray (1999) is a case involving the issue of academic dishonesty. The appellee, Melissa Gray, was a former student at Lyon College. She was suspended from the college for having allegedly used improper information to prepare for a physics test. Gray filed an action against the college contending that the honor system contained in her student handbook constituted a contract between herself and the College, and that the college, by its unwarranted suspension of her, breached its contract with her. Through a jury verdict, she was awarded $20,644 on her breach of contract claim against the college. Lyon College appealed, contending that the trial court should have granted a directed verdict in its favor. The Court of Appeals of Arkansas also held that a directed verdict should have been granted in favor of the college. As a result, the court reversed and dismissed the jury's verdict.

In Lyon College v. Gray, the appellate court reaffirmed that an educational institution, particularly a private one, must have some discretion in the administration of its disciplinary proceedings. Thus, the court was actually following a judicial principle established by Slaughter v. Brigham Young Univ. (1975), Clayton v. Trustees of Princeton Univ. (1985), Blaine v. Savannah Country Day School (1997), and Napolitano v. Trustees of Princeton Univ. (1982). Citing Smith v. Denton (1995), the court further stated that "a court has no power to interfere in the exercise of a state-regulated university's discretion in the promulgation and implementation of disciplinary measures unless it is shown by clear and convincing evidence that the university abused its discretion" (p. 550). This abuse of discretion, as recognized, "may occur if the university fails to follow its own procedural guidelines or if its disciplinary decision is not based upon substantial evidence" (Slaughter, 1975, p. 622; Napolitano, 1982, p. 263). Overall, these principles reflect the court's attitude that HEIs have been accorded full discretion in student discipline. As long as they afford students the due process promised in the university's official literature, there should be no abuse of discretion.

In addressing whether a directed verdict should have been granted for the appellant, the court noted that the college did not fail to follow its own procedural guidelines because there were no allegations of a procedural due process violation in this case. The court then confined its ruling to whether the college's decision to sanction the appellee was supported by substantial evidence. In this regard, the evidence was conflicting. As established in Henderson State Univ. v. Spadoni (1993), evidence in conflict presents a question of fact to be decided by the university's disciplinary committee (p. 951). Since there was no clear and convincing evidence of an abuse of discretion by the appellant, the appellate court of Arkansas came to the conclusion that judicial review of the appellant's action should have ceased. As a consequence, the appellate court reversed and dismissed the jury's verdict as well as the appellee's attorney fee award.

Melvin v. Union College (1993) represents another case regarding cheating on an exam. The plaintiff-appellant was a student at Union College. She was accused of academic dishonesty in an organic chemistry exam. After a disciplinary hearing, she was given a failing grade in the course and suspended for two semesters of undergraduate classes. The student sued Union College, alleging breach of contract as a result of the respondent's failure to conform to the disciplinary guidelines set forth in the student handbook.

She also sought a preliminary injunction enjoining the college from enforcing the suspension pending the outcome of the accusation. The trial court denied her motion for a temporary injunction. On appeal, the Supreme Court of New York reversed the trial court's decision and granted the student a temporary injunction forbidding the college from suspending her during the litigation.

In reversing the trial court's denial of Melvin's motion for a preliminary injunction, the appellate court cited several court cases to show that the party seeking a preliminary injunction must prove three things: "(1) the likelihood of his ultimate success on the merits, (2) irreparable injury to the movant absent granting of a preliminary injunction, and (3) a balancing of the equities (p. 142). On the one hand, Melvin adduced adequate evidence to show that, without an injunction, the sanction of a suspension would cause her irreparable injury. On the other hand, the college did not show that it would suffer any harm for granting such an injunction during the pendency of this matter. Based on the principle that "the existence of a factual dispute will not bar the imposition of a preliminary injunction if it is necessary to preserve the status quo and the party to be enjoined will suffer no great hardship as a result of its issuance," (p. 142, quoting Mr. Natural, Inc. v. Unadulterated Food Prods., 1989, p. 730; U.S. Ice Cream Corp. v. Carvel Corp, 1988, p. 628; Burmax Co. v. B & S Indus. 1987, p. 600), the appellate court reversed and granted a temporary injunction enjoining the college from suspending the student during the litigation. Regardless of whatever principles the appellate court was following in making the decision, the student was exonerated, at least temporarily, from being suspended for two semesters.

Shuman v. University of Minnesota Law School (1990) arose from sanctions for honor code violations. Appellants, Craig Shuman and Joseph Shasky, were former University of Minnesota Law School students who were under investigation for honor code violations. They filed a lawsuit seeking a restraining order to stop a review board hearing of an honor code complaint against them. The trial court denied their motion but granted the law school's motion for summary judgment of dismissal. The students appealed the trial court's decision dismissing their claims of violation of due process and breach of contract claims. The appellate court affirmed the trial court's decision.

With regard to the issue as to whether the trial court erred in dismissing the breach of contract claims made by Shuman and Shasky, the Court of Appeals of Minnesota reaffirmed that there was no evidence of bad faith on the part of the law school in revoking and reinstating its honor code with a new investigator. Citing Abbariao v. Hamline Univ. School of Law (1977), the court reiterated that "elements of the law of contracts have been applied to the student-university relationship, but rigid importation of contractual doctrine has been rejected" (p. 113). Therefore, even assuming that the honor code constituted a contract between the two parties, the law school did not breach its contract with Shuman and Shasky because the honor code was applied to them. Moreover, a school, particularly a law school, must act to maintain ethical standards for students' work when student misconduct has an impact on academic standards. Based on these rationales, the appellate court affirmed the trial court's judgment.

Academic dishonesty also led to the breach of contract claim in Cosio v. Medical College of Wisconsin (1987). The plaintiff-appellant, Jose Cosio, was a medical student at Medical College of Wisconsin (MCW). He was dismissed due to "marginal" and "unsatisfactory" grades. He filed a complaint against the MCW in the circuit court. The trial court granted summary judgment against Cosio on the grounds that

"he failed to establish the existence of fact issues relating to breach of contract or MCW's duty of care owed to him, or to show arbitrary conduct on MCW's part" (Cosio, 1987, p. 302). On appeal, the Court of Appeals of Wisconsin affirmed the trial court's judgment.

In his contract claim, Cosio alleged that MCW breached its covenant of good faith contract performance by its tolerance of widespread cheating, "which caused his failure and the promotion of those who cheated" (Cosio, 1987, p. 302). The appellate court rejected this argument by pointing out that Cosio received a 1981-82 Bulletin and Handbook upon matriculation and these documents were contractual in nature. Since the Handbook provided what to do and how to deal with student's unethical behavior, Cosio should have followed the procedures. Moreover, given the fact that neither the bulletin nor the handbook specified a duty on the part of the institution to monitor exams, the appellate court affirmed the trial court's judgment.

In the aforementioned cases, academic dishonesty, manifesting itself in the form of cheating, is the major cause of contract claims. In the following two cases, Mason v. State ex rel. Bd. of Regents (2000) and Gagne v. Trustees of Indiana University (1998), the breach of contract claims are also connected with academic dishonesty; however, it appears in the form of misrepresentation.

Mason v. State ex rel. Bd. of Regents (2000) is an action in which the plaintiff-appellant challenged a district court decision dismissing his suit against the University of Oklahoma, its Board of Regents, and others (OU). Mason was a law student who was expelled for failure to report income on his student financial aid application. Prior to the expulsion, he was given a hearing, of which he had received notice, before the Campus Disciplinary Council. After the expulsion, he submitted several demands in various forms asking to be readmitted. Having been denied readmission, he sued OU, alleging infliction of emotional distress and breach of implied contract. The trial court dismissed his suit for failure to present facts to support any of the asserted causes of action. On appeal, the appellate court affirmed the trial court's decision.

In this case, Mason argued that, in light of the contract claim, OU breached an implied contract with him. Specifically, the breach occurred (1) in "[d]ue process in the student readmission procedures, (2) [w]hen he was refused readmission without any stated reason, and (3) [w]hen he was maliciously denied readmission without any consideration or counsel" (p. 970). The court responded that when Mason was a student at OU, he was a party to a contract with OU. Upon expulsion, however, he was no longer a party to any contract with OU. As a consequence, the implied contract that may exist between the two parties was breached or terminated. The court further pointed out that, although the OU Student Code indicated that expelled students would only be readmitted after complete consideration, the provision did not require OU to give consideration to the case of every expelled student who sought readmission. Since the decision to grant or deny admission to a student is a quintessential matter of academic judgment, it should be decided by educational institutions rather than by courts.

In response to the allegation that OU breached its implied contract when it failed to seriously consider Mason's application materials, the court noted that Mason's application was an e-mail submission rather than an actual university application form. The understatement seemed to suggest that he himself was not seriously applying for readmission or that he himself breached the implied contract by not following the process. Citing a number of cases, the court further pointed out that an applicant has no property interest

in admission to law school and that a state university's rejection of a law school application implicates no liberty interest that an applicant may have in pursuing a legal career. The court reasoned that if no property interest existed in admission to law school, there could be no property interest in admission after expulsion. Since no set of facts indicated the existence of an implied contract or breach of such a contract, the appellate court affirmed the trial court's judgment.

Similar to Mason, Gagne v. Trsutees of Indiana University (1998) also stemmed from student misrepresentation. In this case, Jay Gagne appealed the trial court's judgment in favor of the Trustees of Indiana University and Norman Lefstein, individually and in his official capacity, as dean of Indiana University School of Law. The first issue appealed was whether the trial court erred in holding that the procedure whereby Gagne was expelled from the Law School did not violate his right to due process. The second issue was whether the trial court erred in holding that the Law School did not breach its contractual relationship with Gagne.

Gagne was a law student who was expelled from Indiana University School of Law for having provided inaccurate information on his application to the Law School as well as on his application for admission to the bar. Gagne contended that the Law School breached its contract with him by not providing him a hearing before a review board as specified in the Code of Ethics which defined the contractual relationship between himself and the Law school. The University prevailed in the bench trial. On appeal, the appellate court of Indiana affirmed the trial court's decision.

In analyzing the contract claim, the appellate court stated that the trial court's "sole function" in reviewing the Law School's application of its Code of Ethics "was to determine whether the Law School acted illegally, arbitrarily or capriciously, and [that] the court was bound to accept the evidence most favorable to support the Law School's action" (p. 496, quoting Riggin v. Board of Trustees of Ball State Univ., 1986, p. 625). Based on Dean Lefstein's testimony, the appellate court found that the trial court did not err in failing to find the application of the Code arbitrary or capricious. The court also found, based upon commonly accepted meaning, that the Law School's interpretation of its own regulations was not an unreasonable one. Thus, the appellate court supported the trial court's conclusion that, as a matter of law, Gagne had no contractual right under the Code to a hearing before a review board.

In summary, there is ample reason to believe that the courts have viewed academic dishonesty as a disciplinary offence. As such, they have maintained the attitude of non-interference unless there is clear and convincing evidence that an educational institution has abused its discretion in its disciplinary decision. This abuse may occur if the institution fails to follow its own procedural guidelines, or if its disciplinary decision is not based upon substantial evidence, especially when the proposed sanction is so harsh that it may cause an irreparable injury.

CONTRACT CLAIMS ARISING FROM SANCTIONS FOR OTHER MISCONDUCT

Student discipline has been a topic of concern and debate throughout the history of American higher education (Dannells, 1997, p. 1). Historically, the theory and practice of student discipline not only reflect missions, goals, and philosophies of higher education but also are suggestive of morals and societal values of particular phases of history. Likewise, the courts' attitude toward student discipline has been evolving constantly, guided by various theories.

Anderson v. Massachusetts Institute of Technology (1995) is a theft related case. In Anderson, the plaintiff student expelled from Massachusetts Institute

of Technology (MIT) brought an action against MIT seeking injunctive relief and money damages. The student was implicated in a conspiracy to steal computer equipment from MIT. As a result, MIT campus police brought several charges against him within the institution's disciplinary mechanism and in the district court. In addition to appearing in court, the student was also given a disciplinary hearing by MIT, which resulted in the finding that he had participated in the attempted burglary. At the recommendation of a disciplinary committee, the president of MIT expelled him from the institution. Anderson filed an action against MIT alleging, among other claims, that MIT breached its contract with him. MIT sought a pre-trial relief from Anderson's jury demands as well as an order limiting the scope of an injunctive relief to an order for a new disciplinary hearing on the expulsion.

The trial court stated therein that the relationship between a matriculating student and his/her university is a property interest which should be protected at a private university. At the same time, a private university should have discretion in the pursuit of its business and educational goals, including student discipline. A private university can nullify a student's property interest based on evidence that the student's conduct had a detrimental effect on the university's interests and goals. Judicial intervention should not take place unless the university's action was arbitrary and capricious, or the university failed to follow its own disciplinary rules, or the university did not afford the student a hearing which was fundamentally fair. Based on these principles, the trial court ordered a jury-waived review of the disciplinary proceedings conducted at MIT.

Warren v. Drake Univ. (1989) is also a theft related case. The plaintiff was a law student arrested for attempting to use a stolen credit card and Drake University (DU) suspended him prior to his trial. Although he brought a state action seeking an injunction compelling the law school to admit him, the state court refused to do so due to his incredible testimony. After one year of probation when the charge against him was dismissed and his criminal record was expunged, he petitioned for reinstatement and his petition was rejected. He filed an action, alleging that DU violated his constitutional rights, breached its contract with him, and that the law school's actions were arbitrary, capricious, and in bad faith. The trial court dismissed his constitutional claims and his claims against individual officials. At his request, a jury reviewed his bad faith and contract claims against DU and held against the student. Warren appealed the jury verdict on his contract claim, arguing that, as a matter of law, the procedures specified in the handbook and honor code were not properly followed. Although the federal appellate court did not quite agree as to how the jury construed the contract as a matter of law, it affirmed the jury's verdict on the grounds that the court could not grant an order for reinstatement based on the facts of this case.

In addition to theft, student-university contract claims also arose from sanctions imposed for other student misconduct. In Holert v. University of Chicago (1990), for example, a student was expelled for having engaged in a "systematic, prolonged and premeditated pattern of harassment." In Fellheimer v. Middlebury College (1994), a student was suspended for one year due to "disrespect for persons." In Johnson v. Lincoln Christian College (1986), a student was denied his diploma for allegedly being homosexual. In Fussell v. Louisiana Business College of Monroe (1988), a student was suspended for disruptive behaviors. An analysis of some of these cases will afford us an insight into the major issues that led to student-university contract claims and the courts' attitude toward the resolution of such claims.

Holert v. University of Chicago (1990) is a breach of contract action between the University of

Chicago and Patrick Holert, a former graduate student in the University of Chicago's Graduate School of Business (UCGSB). Holert was expelled from UCGSB for having allegedly engaged in a "systematic, prolonged and premeditated pattern of harassment" of another student. Holert sued the University claiming that it had breached its contract with him by refusing to award him degree. The federal district court ruled in favor of the University.

The federal district court made its decision based on the following facts. First, Holert could not establish that the disciplinary committee's determination was made arbitrarily, capriciously and in bad faith. Second, evidence established that the disciplinary committee's determination was grounded in a discernible rational basis. Third, there was no credible evidence that the disciplinary committee was biased or acted in bad faith. Fourth, a preponderance of the credible evidence established that Holert failed to conduct himself in accordance with the ethical standards that were a condition of his acceptance into his academic program. Fifth, Holert had a contractual obligation not to harass or inflict personal abuse on another student. Sixth, the contractual relationship between Holert and the University required that Holert be entitled only to those procedural safeguards that the University agreed to provide. Seventh, the disciplinary committee acted within its discretion in imposing the sanction of expulsion. The appellate court thus decided that judgment be entered for the defendant University of Chicago.

Fellheimer v. Middlebury College (1994) is somewhat special compared with the aforementioned cases. In Fellheimer, the plaintiff was a student charged with rape. Later, the Office of Dean of Students, acting through a "committee of Deans," found him not guilty of rape but guilty of disrespect of persons. Consequently, he was suspended for one year and was required to receive counseling prior to reapplying for admission. Fellheimer appealed the committee's finding of disrespect of persons. However, the dean of the school upheld the committee̊s finding.

Fellheimer began to sue Middlebury College. His complaint comprised two counts, Count I of which was a breach of contract claim alleging that the college "was contractually obligated to conduct disciplinary proceedings in a fair, objective, and impartial manner and that it breached its obligation by engaging in arbitrary, capricious and fundamentally unfair conduct. Count II sought relief on a theory of intentional infliction of emotional distress." (p. 242). Both of them sought summary judgment on Count I.

Based on the undisputed facts, the court found problems with the notice given to Fellheimer for the subsequent disciplinary proceedings. Specifically, the court noted that Fellheimer had no idea what conduct, other than rape, would constitute disrespect of persons with which he was charged if it was proven at the hearing. The court held that, since Middlebury College did not state the nature of the charges with sufficient particularity to permit him to meet the charges as promised, this deviation from the procedures established by the college did render the hearing fundamentally unfair because it was impossible to defend against that charge. Based on this reasoning, the court granted Fellheimer's Motion for a Partial Summary Judgment. At the same time, the college was ordered to expunge the record.

Compared with Fellheimer, Johnson v. Lincoln Christian College (1986) is even more special. In this case, Johnson sought review of a trial court's judgment dismissing his seven-count complaint against appellees, Lincoln Christian College (LCC) and psychologist Paris. Johnson was a former student at LCC. He withdrew from the college after the dean of the college communicated to him that he would be dismissed for his alleged homosexuality and this information would be stamped across his transcript.

Although Johnson completed all of his course requirements and fully paid his tuition for each year, LCC refused to grant him his diploma (Count I). He sued LCC and Paris alleging, among other claims, that LCC breached its contract with him by arbitrarily and in bad faith denying him his diploma. The trial court dismissed his complaint. On appeal, the Appellate Court of Illinois ruled that his breach of contract claim, along with some of his other claims, was improperly dismissed. Finally, the trial court's order was reversed in part, affirmed in part, and remanded for further proceedings.

The appellate court ruled that the trial court erred in dismissing Count I of Johnson's complaint. In response to LCC's argument that dismissal of Count I was proper because it failed to allege the terms of the contract between Johnson and LCC, the appellate court pointed out that official school documents represent part of the student-university contract. What is also included is an implied contract on the part of the institution to graduate the student "upon satisfactory completion of the school's academic requirements." A student must not necessarily present traditional written documents in order to establish the terms of an implied contract between student and institution.

The court also pointed out that there is a valid distinction between a "commercial case" and a case involving an implied contract between student and institution. In a commercial case, the material terms of the contract cannot be implied due to their complex and unique nature. By contrast, the traditional implied contract between student and institution is much more standard and less complex, thus making it possible for the student to substantiate his breach of contract claim without necessarily presenting documents. The court further substantiated its implied contract theory through elaboration on the elements of a traditional contract that are present in the implied contract between student and institution:

> The student's tender of an application constitutes an offer to apply to the college. By "accepting" an applicant to be a student at the college, the college accepts the applicant's offer. Thereafter, the student pays tuition (which obviously constitutes sufficient consideration), attends classes, completes course work, and takes tests. The school provides the student with facilities and instruction, and upon satisfactory completion of the school's academic requirements (which constitutes performance), the school becomes obligated to issue the student a diploma. (p. 1384)

Citing Tanner v. Board of Trustees of University of Illinois (1977), the appellate court reiterated that a college "may not act maliciously or in bad faith by arbitrarily and capriciously refusing to award a degree to a student who fulfills its degree requirements" (pp. 209-210). Finally, the court concluded that the trial court erred in dismissing Count I of Johnson's complaint. Consequently, the trial court's order was reversed in part, affirmed in part, and remanded.

Student's disruptive behavior also can lead to student-university contract claims, as indicated by Fussel v. Louisiana Business College of Monroe (1988). In this breach of contract suit, the plaintiff-appellant, Maria Fussell, appealed a judgment rejecting her demands on the finding that the defendant-appellee, Louisiana Business College of Monroe, was justified in suspending her from its business college. The trial court held that Fussell was dismissed from the college for having breached her contractual obligation "to conduct herself as a responsible adult by creating and/or exacerbating the turmoil which could not be tolerated in academic surroundings." The appellate court, however, found that the record did not support the trial court's conclusion. The student had casually voiced her suspicions about the administration's fiscal policies to a newspaper reporter and other students.

Whether or not unfounded, it was not a breach of her obligation to the college. As a result, the appellate court reversed the trial court's judgment and ruled in favor of the student.

In summary, evidence shows that theft, sexual harassment, and disruptive behaviors represent major sources of contract claims relating to student discipline. In this regard, the federal and state courts have followed the principle that educational institutions must act fairly and in good faith. This requires that HEIs follow their own procedures specified in their student handbook or other official institutional literatures, and that they ground their disciplinary sanctions on substantial evidence. They should clearly inform students of any charges against them and conduct hearings in a fundamentally fair way. In addition, under an implied contract, students are entitled to graduation upon satisfactory completion of the universitys academic requirements and payment of their tuition. Students are entitled to the procedural safeguards that the university has promised to provide.

CASE LAW IMPLICATIONS FOR UNIVERSITY POLICIES

The results of this research confirm that most findings in Charles Rogers' study remained valid between 1986 and 2000. This confirmation is grounded in the fact that the courts have continued to follow identical or similar theories, standards, and principles in adjudicating student-university contract claims which stemmed from student disciplinary actions. Overall, contract theory has provided a viable tool for the university and the judiciary to define the parameters of the student-university relationship.

In adjudicating such contract claims, the federal and state courts seem to have directed their primary attention toward due process requirements. In general, both public and private HEIs are required to provide some due process to students accused of disciplinary infractions. Public institutions are mandated by constitutional due process requirements. They must give notice and some opportunity for a hearing prior to imposing a disciplinary sanction on a student for alleged misconduct. Failure to do so can provoke contract liability claims against the university. By contrast, private institutions must stand by express or implied contracts of fair dealing. They are not obligated to do the same thing as their public counterparts unless they have promised to do so in their disciplinary action procedures.

The results of this study also show that contract theory has provided a useful tool with which both students and universities can define their respective rights and obligations. However, it also has limitations per se given the fact that it is subject to how the courts would interpret and apply it to the student-university relationship. Because of public policy considerations, it seems unlikely that these limitations will be eradicated in the near future. Nevertheless, there are at least two ways to reduce these limitations. One is to apply formal contract principles more rigidly to the student-university relationship, and the other is to enhance the internal policies and procedures of educational institutions. Since the weaknesses in either of these two approaches are apparent, it seems more likely that both the judiciary and universities will continue to define the student-university relationship with incrementally developed contract theories.

Based on the results of this study, it seems likely that the following changes will occur in university policies and practices.

First, colleges and universities are likely to expand their policies and procedures to provide adequate mechanisms for dealing with student claims and complaints internally. This requires university

policies and procedures to be broad enough to cover a variety of issues, to be specific enough to be followed, and to be flexible enough to be adjusted. University policies and procedures, made in full compliance with the requirements of the law, may be more purposefully designed to clearly articulate institutional requirements and the consequence for failure to meet the requirements. Internal avenues, such as the grievance committee at the department, college, and institution levels, may be further developed to address student complaints when they cannot be resolved through normal channels. Policies and procedures concerning these internal avenues, written with specificity and in plain and understandable language, will be placed in catalogs and handbooks readily available for students.

Second, educational administrators, faculty, and staff members are more likely to be educated to strictly follow the substantive and procedural rules of their colleges and universities. HEIs may require them to regularly attend in-service professional training or educational courses in order to stay informed of the legal ramifications of their oral and written representations as well as the importance of their professional ethics. Internal policies and procedures may be developed to award those who strictly follow the rules and regulations of the university and to punish those who have violated such rules and regulations, especially when the infraction has caused damages.

Third, HEIs may review and refine their policies and procedures on a regular basis, especially those described in catalogs, brochures, and student handbooks made available to students. In most cases, the policy review board may include legal counsel, chief academic officers, chief student affairs officers, chief fiscal officers, faculty members, and student government representatives. In the same vein, colleges and academic departments may have their own committees with better representations to ensure that their policies and requirements are in congruence with those of the university. University boards of trustees, presidents, deans or academic department chairs may be less likely to make a policy change without seeking counsel from the board or the committee.

Fourth, HEIs may seek a better balance in the student-university relationship in terms of rights and responsibilities, which appears to be the best way to fulfil their educational missions. These missions, after all, should not be obfuscated by legal considerations. To protect the university from potential contract liability is not the ultimate goal of education; rather, it is only a means to an end. By the same token, an institution cannot fulfill its mission if it is breaching its contractual obligations to its students in a consistent manner. It is, therefore, imperative that university policies and procedures incorporate legal, moral, and ethical elements to reflect the educational goals of an institution as well as mutual expectations in terms of respective rights and obligations. It can be expected, following this line of thought, that university policies and procedures will primarily take one of the following three forms: some of them might be more legalistic or procedural in nature, some more educational, and others more comprehensive in terms of their legal and educational purposes.

The parameters of the three models still need to be defined in the social, legal, cultural, and educational milieu of each institution. Traditionally, judicial policies and attitudes are premised on the self-discipline of educational institutions. However, if there is a lack of evidence of self-discipline on the part of the institution or, worse, if the contractual relationship between student and university deteriorates, chances are that the courts will begin to step in and increasingly hold HEIs accountable for their policies or practices. Evidently, neither the in loco parentis doctrine nor the laissez-faire policy will be viewed as an acceptable means in defining the student-university relationship.

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A Proposed Conceptual Model for Knowledge Management in Educational Organization

Dr. Wirot Sanrattana

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to develop a new conceptual model for knowledge management that can be applied to all levels of educational organizations to better understand new disciplines in educational administration for future research. A research and development design was employed composed of 2 stages: 1) analysis and synthesis of theoretical documents for creating a tentative conceptual model, and 2) conducting a participatory critical analysis method using 10 experts for creating a final conceptual model. Results of the research process resulted in the development of a conceptual model for knowledge management in educational organizations composed of 5 key management: components: 1) people, 2) information technology, 3) task, 4) culture, and 5) climate.

Significance

Many academics, including Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), Sallis and Jones (2002) and Cortada and Wood (2000), agree that in the past managers described fundamental economic, natural, and labor resources as important sources of social organizational capital. However, in the first decade of the 21st century, academics have used the terms knowledge, knowledge-based organizations, knowledge culture or intellectual capital as sources of social organizational capital. These knowledge-based societies or organizations emphasize creativity, new ideas and innovation rather than the ability to manufacture a product or utilize a simple technical skill. As a result, people refer more commonly to the term, knowledge management, in which knowledge is recognized as being a powerful driving force behind successful societies and organizations. When discussing knowledge management, questions arise regarding practical knowledge strategies and management tools that can be used effectively. This is especially true for educational organizations, which stress cultural knowledge more than other organizations, and could also be effective role models.

Currently, identifying knowledge is no longer a problem for society and organizations. The problem lies with managing knowledge in an age where the amount of information is overwhelming. It is also important to understand and recognize that knowledge is much more than mere data or information. Therefore, major questions that relate to the knowledge management process include deciding which knowledge is important and using knowledge creatively. Put another way, knowledge management is the process of understanding what we do know, and of learning what we do not know, but should. Most importantly, knowledge is not fixed. Rather it is in a constant state of change; a strength today may be a weakness tomorrow. Therefore it is vital that knowledge management stimulates not only the use of knowledge but also the generation of new creative knowledge for future success (MacDonald, 1999).

Similarly, information about knowledge management must stimulate both the use of current knowledge and the creation of new knowledge. Nowadays it is clear that Thai educational organizations,

despite educational reform and the National Education Act of 1999, are still facing many problems in implementing knowledge management, as indicated in the research of Sanrattana (2006). There are multiple reasons for these problems. For one, school administrators and personnel are still lacking clear knowledge and understanding about systematic approaches to knowledge management. This is because knowledge management is a relatively new concept and has yet to transfer effectively to the local school level. For another, educational academics are still not providing effective leadership in developing theoretical models/frameworks for educational organizations that apply to knowledge management.

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to develop a new conceptual model for knowledge management that can be applied to all levels of educational organizations. New paradigms in educational organizations are needed as structure, management, and research are all combining to make changes in education.

Methodology

A research and development (R & D) design was employed composed of 2 stages: 1) analysis and synthesis of theoretical documents for creating a tentative conceptual model, and 2) conducting a participatory critical analysis technique, consulting with 10 experts in development of a final conceptual model.

Results

It was found that knowledge management came from various disciplines including management, information systems, business theory, social psychology, and organizational behavior. From the analysis and synthesis of multiple studies, including Argyris (1993) Bartol, Martin, Tein, and Matthews (1998) Bukowitz and William (1999) Burgoyne (1999) Clarke and Clegg (1998) Cortada and Wood (2000) Davenport (1998) Davenport and Pusak (1998) Drucker (1999) Gardner (1983) Goldman (2000) Hackman (1987) Hoy and Miskel (2001) Hughes (1999) Killman (1985) Liebowitze and Beckman (1998) Lunenburg and Ornstein (2000) MacDonald (1999) Myers (1996) Nonaka (1991) Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) Nonaka (1994) Owens (2001) Poole (1985) Razik and Swanson (2001) Sallis (2002) Sayfarth (1999) Senge (1994) Sergiovanni (2001) Sergiovanni, Burlinggame, Coombs, and Thurston (1999) Tapscott (1998) Tiwana (2000) Ubben, Hughes, and Norris (2001), it was found that an effective knowledge management conceptual model should be composed of 5 critical management elements: People (P), Information Technology (IT), Task (T), Culture (C) + Climate (CL). The relationship of these elements can be characterized as, Knowledge Management = People + Information Technology + Task + Culture + Climate or KM = P + IT + T + C + CL).

The researchers cited above described objectives and the main ideas of each component as follows:

People management

The objective of people management is creating new knowledge from personal knowledge or tacit knowledge. The process of changing tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge is called the socialization and externalization process, according to Ikujiro Nonaka (1994). This is accomplished by using human and social processes such as storytelling, learning conversations, dialogue, reflection, learning sets, action learning, knowledge or learning communities, network leadership or knowledge networks, and learning self managed groups.

Developing leadership for people in organizations is an important aspect of people management. Leadership that leads to knowledge creation is called nurturing and sharing leadership. This type of knowledge encourages personal mastery and self awareness. Managers act as consultants, mentors and coach and they accept that they are knowledge managers. They understand that knowledge management is very important to people management and self management (self-managers). In terms of knowledge management, executives must change the existing management process to the new management process. Changing from controlling and directing to increasing trust and sharing will establish a new network leadership. Network leadership must be sensitive to the psychology of knowledge creation, accept that tacit knowledge is inappropriate for the management process and accept that knowledge is able to be created by the social process. The purpose of network leadership is the development of a knowledge community.

Information Technology Management

The objective of IT Management is to connect information technology with people in order to utilize explicit or declarative knowledge efficiency, and to create innovation by changing explicit knowledge into explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge.

Information technology is now an essential part of life for people in most areas of the world. The internet, intranets, data warehouses, virtual learning environments and e-learning are major technologies used to distribute knowledge within and outside an organization. In the case of accessing information technology, we have to reduce the gap between those who are able to use IT and those who cannot by providing skills development for the latter group. In the case of educational organizations, we have to recognize the differences in IT management needs in schools of different size, different geographic regions and urban/rural locations, and different IT knowledge and interest among teachers.

Task Management

The objective of task management is to use existing knowledge and innovative knowledge, such as explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge, people management and information technology management to determine a scenario of organization, and to determine a strategy to achieve that scenario. When applied to an organization in its developmental stage, the strategy for the management of people and IT is identified as a futuristic plan. This plan can span 5, 10 or 15 years, is initiated with the participation of people in each level of the organization, and utilizes various sources of information technology. Each year, organizations involved in this process have to follow an annual action plan, which is an application of the Participatory Action Research, or PAR model.

Culture Management

The objectives of culture management are to develop cultures to support both explicit and tacit knowledge and to reduce or delete obstacles within the culture that inhibit the support of knowledge organization.

Hoy and Miskel (2001) pointed out that organizational culture can be classified into 4 types: 1) hierarchy culture values efficiency, consistency, and harmony, 2) market culture values competition, effectiveness, and success, 3) clan culture values participation, teamwork and loyalty to the organization, and 4) adhocracy culture values creative thinking, risk, change and growth. The adhocracy culture is the most supportive of the concept of knowledge management, and the hierarchy culture the least supportive.

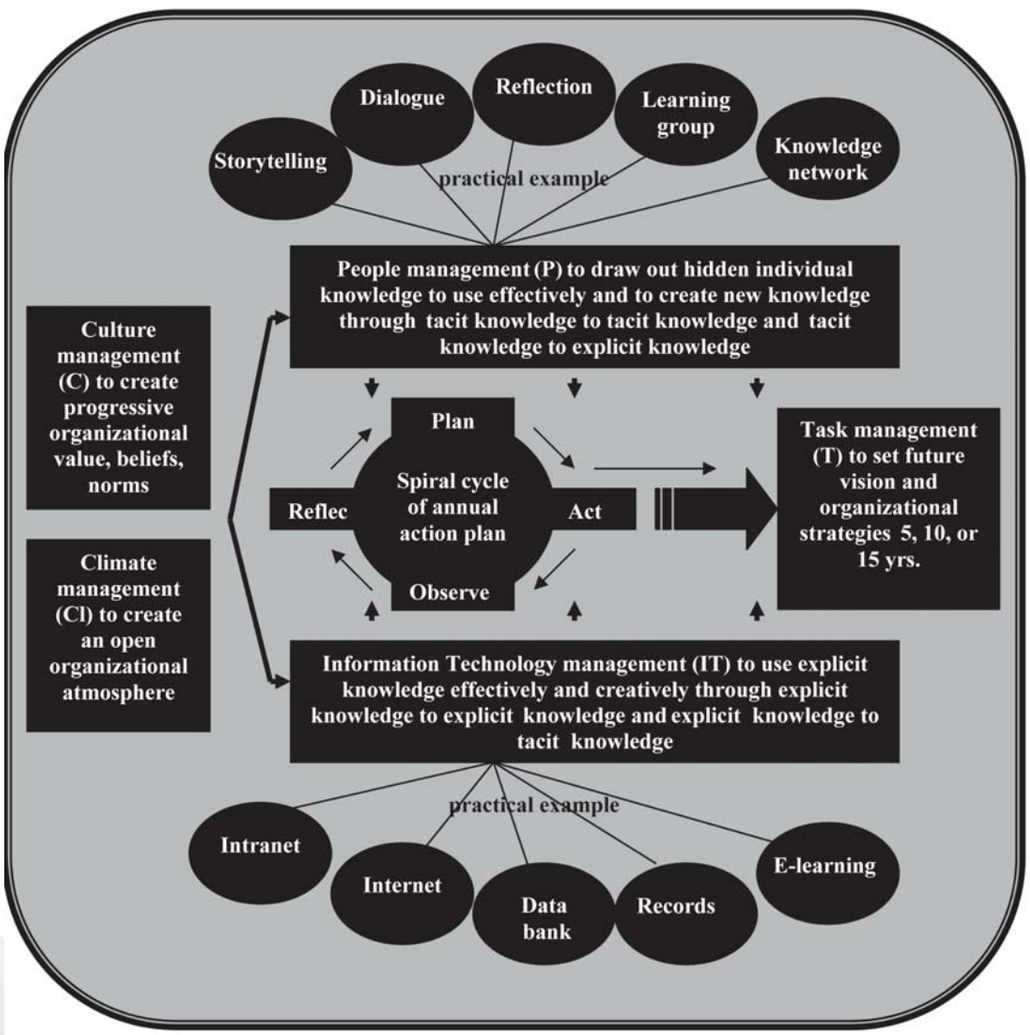
Climate Management

The objectives of climate management are the same as those for culture management: to develop a climate to support both explicit and tacit knowledge, and to reduce or delete aspects of climate that are obstacles to knowledge management.

Knowledge management needs a supportive organizational climate, a culture that provides autonomy and creates trust, and a system that avoids bureaucracy. Developing an informal network is important in order to establish collaborative groups or knowledge teams that create a community based on voluntary service. This structure does not focus on control, but emphasizes enabling, empowering, advising, assisting, creating and providing freedom to grow and develop.

The following model demonstrates the relationship among these five components and identifies a conceptual model for knowledge management in educational organizations.

A proposed conceptual model of knowledge management in educational organizations



Recommendations

1) General recommendations from research results

The following recommendations apply to broad uses of the conceptual model for Knowledge Management:

☆ Knowledge Management must be considered to be a learning process, recognizing that it is not a one-time process or investment, but rather a continuous and ongoing process.

☆ Knowledge Management must be based on best practices of human development and organizational management.

☆ Knowledge Management must be seen as a life-long process based on principles of self motivation and a democratic organizational culture.

☆ Knowledge Management must utilize appropriate technology to address identified gaps in IT skills development.

☆ Knowledge Management must be utilized by organizational leaders to provide management direction, a long-term vision and a short-term action plan in order to develop new creative products and services.

2) Recommendations for application

Applicability for research

The theoretical concepts from Knowledge Management in this study can be applied to research in educational organizations using one of two models: 1) Research and Development (R&D) or 2) Participation Action Research (PAR). **For R&D,** the process should start with the development of the theoretical concept, analysis and review. The researcher must consult with experts or target groups, using their participation and analysis to develop the concept. This step may be done in two or three rounds. The concept may be an alignment that has the details from the Knowledge Management Handbook. Then the developed concepts and alignment must be evaluated using a quasi-experimental approach. Outcomes come from the results of using the concept and alignment process in line with the system of Experimental Research, e.g., if X.....then Y. **For PAR,** the process starts with a planning step. The researcher introduces the concept of the theory to participants of the PAR team, who will integrate the concept into the planning process. At that time they may achieve their concept and alignment with the process continuing to the PAR steps of Acting, Observing and Reflecting. The PAR cycle would be repeated one or two times to generate a change in alignment with the objectives of Knowledge Management. Each of the participants, groups and organizations would be studied at the same time to know whether any new learning has occurred from this research in the form of learning from practice.

Applicability for implementation

For implementation, there may be information that is not included in the activities and a few techniques not included in the Knowledge Management Handbook because the theory is based in the human dimension. Applying these theoretical concepts broadly is most effective when the following considerations are used to guide the process:

* How to manage people in order to secure advantages and new creative knowledge from each individual.

* How to manage information technology to secure advantages and new creative knowledge from the identified information.

◆ How to build and manage explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge effectively.

◆ How to develop the organizational atmosphere to support the effective use of explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge.

◆ How to use and implement existing knowledge and new creative knowledge in short, medium and long term plans and how to get advantages and learning from the results.

◆ How to enlarge and manage the networks of Knowledge Management with other organizations and between organizations.

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ข่าวสารกิจกรรมในหลักสูตรทางการบริหารการศึกษา

1. ประมวลภาพโครงการเสริมสร้างสมรรถนะสากลทางการวิชาการและการวิจัย ณ ประเทศสหรัฐอเมริกา ของนักศึกษาปริญญาเอกสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษา คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น รุ่นที่ 6 ระหว่างวันที่ 27 มีนาคม ถึงวันที่ 18 เมษายน 2552 โดยมีกิจกรรมสำคัญ คือ การเยี่ยมชมมหาวิทยาลัยและสถานที่สำคัญในเมืองต่าง ๆ เช่น New York, Washington DC, Chieago, Washington State, Los Angeles, San Diego, เป็นต้น การนำเสนอผลงานวิจัยใน International Symposium in Educational Research at College of Education, Washington State University, และในการประชุมประจำปี 2552 ของ American Educational Research Association (AERA) at Convention Center, San Diego, California


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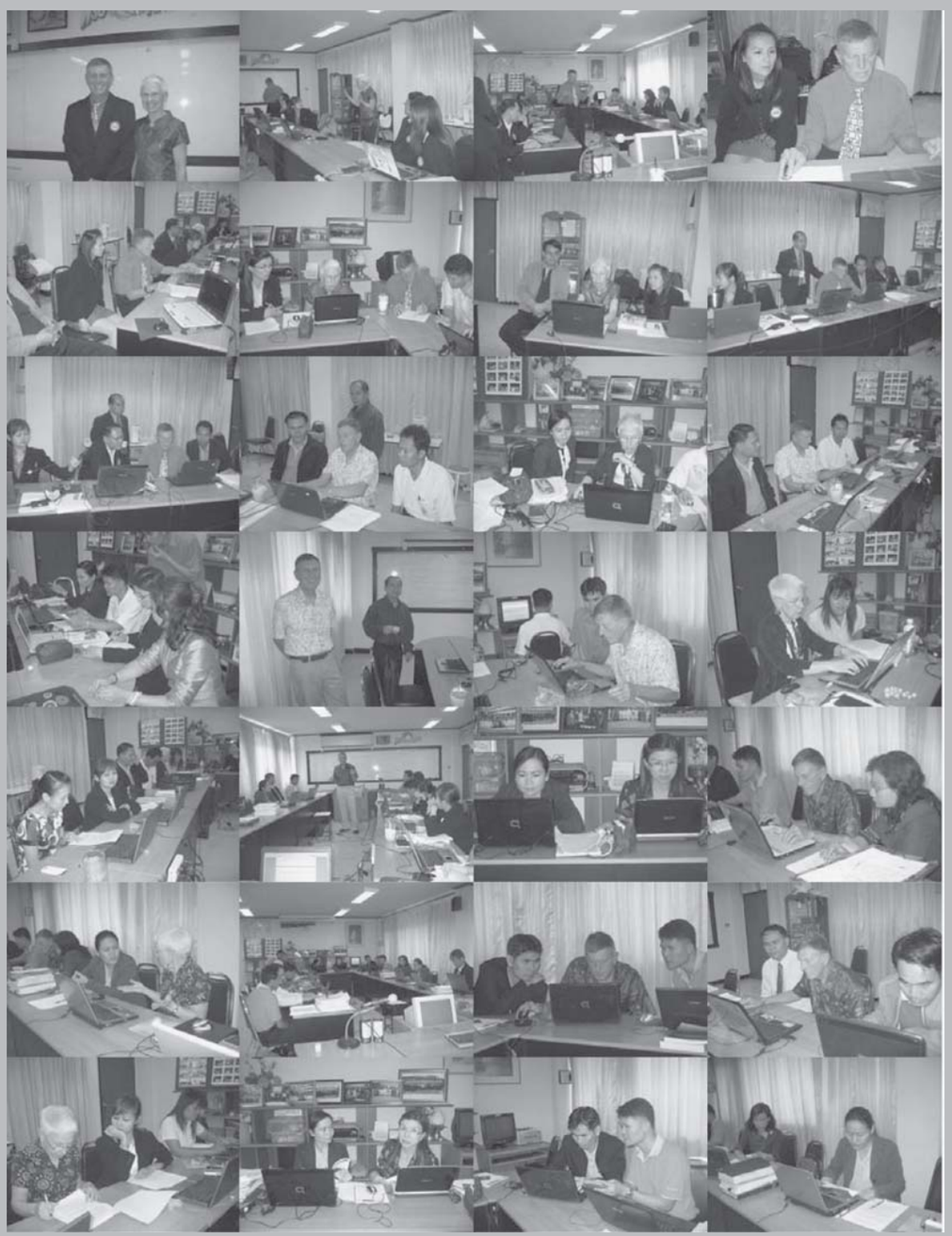
2 ประมวลภาพการจัด Intensive Workshop สำหรับนักศึกษาปริญญาเอกสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษา คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น รุ่นที่ 7 โดย Professor Emeritus Dr. Merrill M. Oaks เรื่อง A New Paradigm in Educational Research 8-11 มกราคม 2552 และเรื่อง Research in the New Millennium: Theory and Practice 15-18 มกราคม 2552


มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น

3 ประมวลภาพการจัด Intensive Workshop สำหรับนักศึกษาปริญญาเอกสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษา คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น รุ่นที่ 7 โดย Professor Emeritus Dr. Merrill M. Oaks และ Professor & Dean Dr. Muriel K. Oaks เรื่อง The Comparative Research for Educational Leadership ระหว่างวันที่ 24-31 พฤษภาคม 2552



ขอเชิญชวนหลักสูตรสาขาวิชาการบริหารการศึกษาหรือหลักสูตรภาวะผู้นำทางการศึกษา สถาบันต่างๆ ส่งข่าวสารกิจกรรมในหลักสูตรเพื่อการเผยแพร่ โดยส่งข้อความและภาพถ่ายประกอมายังกองบรรณาธิการวารสารบริหารการศึกษามหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น