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Editor’s Note

The theme for this issue of the Rangsit Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (RJSH) is ‘creativity’. We are so pleased that many of the articles in this first issue of Volume 3 describe new developments, new challenges, and new ways of thinking.

The previous issue (#2, 2015) focused on international relationships between China and Thailand. In some respects those articles, too, were about new developments and new challenges but in international affairs. Increasing complexity was certainly evident in that important area.

This current issue includes articles which give attention to the importance of innovation in other areas of human endeavour. It seems that there is no area that can escape increasing levels of complexity. This fact inescapably puts pressure on us and our institutions to devote more time and resources to innovation. And, innovation is not possible without creativity.

You will find the article by Saifon Suidramedhi refreshing. It describes how a community in Japan has become a unique example of creative thinking and local planning. It has achieved distinction partly because of its inclusivity: linking the producers, local organizations, including universities and, yes, even consumers. A creative solution to problems associated with declining work opportunities for young and old alike.

Moving on to another part of the world, Africa, Kwadwo Aduse-Asante and Peter Hancock, studied a community project in Ghana. That project was not at all successful. The two researchers learned that the Traditional Chief had managed to ‘take over’ a school-community project. Originally, the project was intended to be one that involved the participation of the whole community. However, with the ‘take-over’ by the village chief, local people began to lose interest. The project did not achieve the goals that were set. The researchers concluded that a community development project which relied on co-opting elites is more likely to fail. Community members can lose interest in such a ‘top-down’ management strategy. And, the local people lose a sense of ownership, so critical to local community based projects.

Creativity is clearly the central factor uncovered by Miquel Padrés González and which he describes in his article on product design and development. The researcher studied how a small manufacturer of bottled drinking water was able to get a ‘slice’ of the intensely competitive market ‘pie’ through design creativity from manufacturing through to branding.

Taoline Oaas and Annarbha Supaneedis describe a school-based strategy that appears to help young students develop more positive attitudes about themselves as individuals as well as their relationships with others. The strategy is known as Transcendental Meditation (TM). The authors suggest that there may be also some improvements in academic achievement. The school is not an ordinary school – it is very special: a Buddhist boarding school for 620 at-risk girls. The TM strategy that is employed at this school calls for two daily periods of about 15 minutes each. The authors write: “Not a sound was heard for 15 minutes. The feeling in the room was extraordinary.” This article also is very much ‘worth a read’.

Women soldiers? Sasiphattra Siriwato examines the changing role of women soldiers in combat zones. Since the year 2000 international development agencies such as the United Nations have urged governments to improve the situation of women in their countries with respect to parity of opportunity – not only in the general workforce but with respect to higher education.
Many male dominated cultures have viewed military service, particularly with respect to combat duty, as a man’s job. Women have always had ‘behind the scenes’ roles in most countries for a number of years. The author reports that the U.S. military recently ‘allowed’ women soldiers to be involved in combat duty in Iraq and in Afghanistan. They have been given ‘equal opportunity’ to work in all units. It is argued that this has come about because of the nature of those particular combat zones where there was no clear line between enemy and friendly territory.

This situation clearly called for a new ‘way of thinking’ on the part of military leaders. Old thinking, combat was a man’s job, appears to have given way to new thinking which resulted in a policy which equalized the responsibilities of all soldiers, men and women. All had to be ready for active combat. However, the author wonders if these ‘innovations’ will continue to be ‘in place’ should the demarcation lines (between foe and friend) be clear and stable in future conflict zones. Or, will the role of women in the U.S. military revert to ‘old ways of thinking’?

These articles suggest that innovation happens when there is a need. But it is a venturing away from familiar ‘ground’ often into uncharted territory. To venture away from the familiar requires some combination of bravery and, of course, creativity.

Dear readers: if you, too, find these articles interesting, as well as informative, please don’t hesitate to share them with your colleagues and friends.

After all, that is why journals such as RJSH exist: to connect consumers of knowledge (learners) with producers of knowledge (researchers). As the editorial team, we see this as our job: sharing new knowledge, including alternative ways of perceiving the complex issues that all of our societies face on a day-to-day basis.

We welcome your comments – and, of course, your manuscripts. Links to our manuscript submission site can be found at RJSH Online Submission and Review System: http://rjsh.rsu.ac.th. We look forward to hearing from you

Sincerely,

Anek Laothamatas
Editor-in-chief
RANGSIT JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES (RJSH)
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The Sprinkle Case behind the Scenes

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Abstract

The consumer psychological thinking when purchasing products is dependent on multiple factors that go beyond the price and the visual attraction of the product. However, in the water industry, the decision-making process is all about branding and communication.

In several western countries, the bottled water market is highly segmented according to target groups, types of water and other categories. It is common to find top notch brands selling spring water, carbonized water and even iceberg extracted water. However, in the Kingdom of Thailand, the major market share belongs to the purified drinking water industry. Consumers buy drinking water on a daily basis; this water can be delivered by a supplier or purchased directly at a convenience store or supermarket. In order to prevent market speculation with this vital good, the government regulates drinking water with a low price fixing. With this limitation, the industry capabilities of investing in marketing development and promotional campaigns come with very small budgets. With all contenders on equal footing the battle to gain national recognition is fierce. Major corporations such as Singha Corporation and Chang (Thai Beverage Plc.), which are well known for the sale of other products, play in a clear advantage. How then can a medium size company compete to win its place in the market?

The example of Sprinkle is the example of an ambitious business project that mastered to take a design thinking approach on how to enter an overcrowded market. Sprinkle’s design process, value understanding, was a key element to gain success and popularity. The following paper narrates the total process, from experiences and obstacles in dealing with the business of water, to the meticulous design process which goes all the way to manufacturing. The aim is to make a contribution to Thai society where this project serves as a reference which can help guide the business, educational, and intellectual communities by providing the readers with an in-depth understanding of the design process and the value of design itself through the success of this project.

Keywords: sprinkle, branding, design strategy, product design and development

1. Introduction

On daily food and beverage purchases, the consumer brain selection performs in different ways depending on the desired product type. Illustrated by The Economist (The Way the Brain Buys. Special Christmas Double Issue, 2008), it is contrasted that most beer consumers have their mind made and take less than 2 minutes to complete the purchase process. As Dr. Rajeev Sharam says “they are on autopilot”. The selection of juice otherwise is a more complex decision for the consumer. A study revealed that 12% of people spent 90 seconds looking at juices, studying the labels but not selecting any. This is explained with the connection between juice and a healthy modern lifestyle. Despite the interest in acquiring nutritious products, the excess of false information and claims lead to consumer confusion who decides to walk away.

Each product we find in a convenience store or supermarket translates into a specific consumer behavior. The decision-making is influenced by several social, psychological, and visual aspects which will determine the buyer’s perception of the product. The ultimate goal is to engage the consumer with our product and to create a long-lasting tie.

In the particular case of drinking water sales in the Kingdom of Thailand, as informed by The National News Bureau & Public Relations, the Department of Internal Trade has strict regulations which set bottled water price at 7 baht for 600 milliliters bottles and 14 baht for 1,500 milliliters.

With these limitations bottled water providers have a much-reduced unit sale budget margin to work with. For this reason, providers are mostly inclined to keep all bottle production, labeling and printing costs as low as possible. Minimizing the technological investment required to manufacture a bottle
will render higher incomes on water sales.

The following article describes the Sprinkle rebrand and design process case study as an example on how to create brand awareness and connection to the consumer in a government controlled market with voracious competition.

2. Rebrand and Design Process

2.2 Client Brief

A clear and concise client brief is the starting point of any creative process. The client brief aims to define goals and objectives of the project. It is the first documented client/designer rapport which establishes the foundations of the project.

For the Sprinkle case, the message was clear. Sprinkle aimed to gain awareness in the drinking bottle market. The company was already well known for delivering 5-gallon drinking water containers to Bangkok’s households and offices. However, Sprinkle was unknown for the regular supermarket and convenience store consumer.

Entering this crowded market segment was without doubt a completely new challenge that had to be tackled with the right approach in order to guarantee success.

Sprinkle’s background and name recognition in the water supply played to their advantage, but a strong brand and design strategy was required to position the company amongst the top bottled water sellers.

2.2 Benchmarking

Thorough research was conducted to define the Thai market’s competition spectrum and to identify key advantage selling points. The insight gathered from the research manifested a general norm in the industry. All providers outsource or manufacture the water bottles with little regard of aesthetic looks. The bottle was mostly seen as a purely functional object that had to be able to stand compression and flexion stresses when held, drunk or transported.

A few international bottle design references by Ross Lovegrove (Ty Nant Water Bottle. Bethania, Wales 2000 - 2002 ) and Philippe Starck (Saint Georges Water Bottle. Paris, France 1998) were set out as

![Image 1](Bottle set visual rendering)
good examples on how to create brand awareness by creating the necessary ‘wow’ factor which was inexistent in the daily Thai water consumer experience.

The only competitor who had taken a firm position and had a key marketing advantage over the rest was Namthip water (Coca-Cola’s Eco-Crush bottle uses 35% less plastic, 2013). Namthip Company, which is owned by Coca-Cola Thailand, had clearly positioned itself as the sustainable water brand in Thailand by reducing 35% the polyethylene terephthalate (PET) used to produce the bottle. The material reduction that was originally developed by Coke’s global packaging research and development (R &D) center gives a thinner bottle wall allowing it to be ‘Eco-Crushed’. This innovative technology clearly helped Namthip to gain national brand recognition and consumer attachment thanks to the brand alignment with environmentally sensitive values.

Other game players such as Singha Corporation and Chang (Thai Beverage Plc.) would merely use their renowned popularity and large marketing budgets from the beer market to create awareness through nationwide advertising campaigns.

2.3 Brand Positioning and DNA

An essential stage of the brand creation process is to have a clear understanding of the brand character. For the design team, it is fundamental to know what is the client’s vision about their own brand and how are they perceived by the consumer. Ultimately the client will be asked how they wish to be seen.

This brand psychological frame was developed by a series of collaborative workshop exercises between client and designer. The activities were aimed to analyze and comprehend the client’s strengths and weaknesses, personal qualities, admiration references, dreams and feasible ideas that they wanted to achieve.

A business mapping was conducted to point to the actual brand positioning in the market and to establish a plausible future direction and strategy to be taken. Definition and forecasting of possible brand segments according to consumer audits were also planned.

The brand DNA analysis was done with a visual exercise where the client had to link key words that are defining the brand’s identity to several iconographic material. Words like “happiness” may have multiple subjective interpretations (wealth, freedom, comfort, etc.), pictures on the contrary are a very accurate representation of personal imagination and thoughts.

The gathering of images with a connection to words is a common practice in the design process. Whether by observing or referencing, the absorption of visual symbols is a tool that can help the designer have a clear vision of a brand identity and core values.

Image 2 Brand DNA brainstorm
2.4 Business and Strategic Development.

As part of a brand strategy, Sprinkle was assisted with establishment of a solid business plan for the brand’s growth perspective. The strategic development plan set out an idea mapping and action timeframe of current and future operations and products which could bring value to the brand at different levels.

A comprehensive road map marketing plan outlining the major communication, distribution, and retail milestones was provided. Also a key performance control guide to refer to for brand image and quality perception assessment.

3. Rebranding Process and Brand Development

A key element for branding success lied on the identification of the company’s values and market positioning elaborated in the creative workshop activities described in the point 2.3. (Brand Positioning and DNA). With a crystal clear vision of Sprinkle’s DNA, the graphic design team was able to develop several representative corporate identity concepts that had a strong connection to the company’s core values.

![Brand DNA key words](image)

The typeface adopted to create the logotype had to be carefully selected to represent trustworthiness and professionalism. The high commitment of being the major drinking water supplier in Bangkok’s metropolitan area is a huge responsibility that had to be portrayed by both principles.

Since Sprinkle’s R & D capabilities are obviously not comparable to those from Coca-Cola Thailand, the intention of embarking into the bottled water business had to take an approach different than Nampthip’s sustainable innovation strategy. Sprinkle required the need to find its own way to stand out from other products in the market with a distinctive value differentiation. Our research findings highlighted that most brand identities were formed with values associated to health, cleanliness and sustainability. The identity colors and typographic styles which are selected by the competitors are obvious examples of it. The use of blue, white and green colors is common as well as fresh and young looking fonts.

In order to stay away from those redundant classic graphic congenital connections between water, health and other key words we decided to give a new approach and give the chance to a 7 baht bottle to embrace a premium look. To do so we explored several typefaces and colors that could represent the new conception. The use of dark colors (grey and black) combined with white along with the selection of a capital letter sans serif font generated the desired excellence look that could differentiate from the competition.
This unique approach had the risk of being rejected by the customer because adopting a premium look could induce the consumer brain to think the product was expensive. However, what if this expensive looking product was available at the same price of other products? As Steven D. Levitt and many other economists argue, the human being is moved by incentives, so it is logical to think that when offered multiple choices with the same cost we tend to prefer the choice that gives us the most. For the Sprinkle case study time has proven that the resulting consumer decision-making experience response of the new prime looking brand is excellent. Predictably the consumer prefers the distinctive choice that enhances his personal image and makes him feel ‘cool’.

![Sprinkle Logo Design](image)

Image 4 Logo design

4. **Product Design and Development**

4.1 **Observation and Inspiration**

With the ultimate goal of creating beauty to stand out from common functional water bottles in the market, an observation process took place in order to gain inspiration for the concept creation. The inspiration process is somehow personal, but a common practice based on image gathering and the visualization of objects out of context was used to generate new ideas that could break away from the mundane and the conventional.

Among all the ideas sparking from the inspirational brainstorm, the preferred original one which made up the present concept was conceived from the vision of capturing a photographic shot of a dropping crystal bottle in the exact instant of impacting with the floor. The unique essence of that moment was aimed to represent the uniqueness on the bottle’s ‘morphology’.

The direction of the styling development process took the primary idea inspiration as a reference and endeavored to emulate structural chaos and order paradigms that can be found in nature. An evolution
of this first thought was matured in order to obtain a final look that would be aesthetically representative of both antagonistic concepts. Examples of natural structural chaos and order paradigms are the veins of a leaf or the geometrical order that defines snow crystals.

![Image 5](image5.jpg) Inspiration image

![Image 6](image6.jpg) Bottle concept illustration by Herald Ureña

### 4.2 Concept Refinement

After the form, language was decided the mission was to bring it to reality. A common step in this stage is to make a series of quick mock-ups that give the designer the first perception on how the product will look like. This is an iterative “hit or miss” process that will help get close to the final form by judging the physical models that are built.
The complexity of the amorphous surfaces representing “chaos” proved to be very hard to prototype by hand. Instead, several computer-aided design (CAD) models that were based on the conceptual sketches were made. The CAD models could easily be rendered and prototyped with the latest 3D printing technologies to imitate an approximation of the real experience feeling when interacting with the bottle.

4.3 User Experience and Response

In order to validate the concept design several user experience (UX) and consumer response activities were carried out. Amongst these activities we can highlight bottle role play usability and drinking experience tests, shop shelf displays research to determine the optimal position of the label, user surveys and blind test including a 100 participants to assess cognitive response.

The blind test helped to illustrate how diverse target groups react when instructed to select one object among a group of different object forms. The tests showed that females were more preferential for the soft curvy organic forms while males would feel more identified with the minimalistic uncomplicated shapes. The same test also compared competitor’s bottle forms concluding that Singha and Nampthip have the strongest form recognition mark.

The complete insight was structured to develop diagrams and mappings connecting target empathy, brand identity recognition, form factor and usability. The data conclusions were of extraordinary value to keep the design team on focus with the brief and to assist on the verification of the concept in hand.
Slight modifications of the concept were made based on the researched input data. For example, subtle alterations of the overall form, which transformed the bottle’s main surface from a planar look to a more sinuous curvature, had to be done to improve attractiveness to the feminine audience.

On the other hand, the consumer recognition mark was to be achieved by the amorphous faceted surface only if the facets arrangement, size, and sharpness were purposely designed in a manner that could easily be perceived by the human eye.

### 4.4 Final Prototyping and Feasibility Study

Parallel to the refinement process we started visiting plastic bottle manufacturers who could provide a complete fabrication solution delivering a blow molded (Thompson, R., 2007) bottle, cap and labeling. The final concept prototypes that were presented to the supplier raised manufacturing and logistic concerns to the engineering and factory management team. The absence of neither vertical nor horizontal structural ribs in our concept made it extremely susceptible to stress deformations. The design we presented had a large plain surface that could easily bend when stacking several levels of bottles for transportation.

An alternative to all structural problems was to increase the quantity of polyethylene terephthalate of the 500-milliliter bottle (PET) from 17 grams to 32 grams. A larger bottle weight would translate into a thicker bottle thickness that could be able to stand high compression stress. What would result from increasing the bottles plastic from 17 grams up to 32 grams would have a substantial impact on unit cost thus shrinking the profit margins per unit sold making the business of commercialization less interesting to our client.

The manufacturer also raise the labeling dilemmas of using a sticker or shrink wrap technique. We were certain that covering the irregular faceted area of the surface with a plastic shrink film wrapped around would diminish the overall tactile experience. Prototype tests confirmed that not only the touch feeling had worsened but also the aesthetic appearance would be diminished.

The labeling alternative was to use a sticker on the regular surface of the product; however this solution presented problems as well. The surface radius was too curved for the labeling machine to roll properly a sticker onto the bottle’s surface. In addition, it was hard to control the exact position of the sticker on the bottle in a consistent and repeatable manner.

All the technical restrictions presented a real challenge for the engineering team whose mission was to modify the existing concept once again without altering the overall look and feel of the product too much. All work done up to that point had born in mind the main focus of the brief, “creating an elegant, attractive product that could excel from the rest.”
From that point on new CAD models were made. The models were studied with finite elements analysis (FEA) to estimate possible deformations and surface stresses. Mold making tools were also used to ensure product feasibility.

![Finite elements analysis](image)

**Image 9** Finite elements analysis

Finally, the engineering team came up with a concept that would arrange the triangular facets to create a structure that could stand compression and flexion stress. The final look of the bottle goes beyond merely an aesthetic exercise. Instead, it emulates geometrical primary nature cases such as the spider net, the structure of a leaf or the crystallization of water to integrate technology and provide a solution for the user.

The solution provided for the sticker labeling issue was resolved in a way that increases brand awareness. The creations of a front face with a different bottle curvature allowed an optimal sticking process and emphasized the front / back form asymmetry of the bottle. The new front face definition delimited by two vertical subtle ribs would accentuate the branding area and generate a stronger form recognition mark that would make it easier for the consumer to visually identify the product.

The vertical ribs are the outcome of the intersection of the new front branding face and the bottle general form radius. The convergence of both curved surfaces produce a vertical line that delineates the labeling area and also works to absorb top load compressions.

The final proposed solution was capable of meeting both manufacturing and creative needs in an exceptional harmonious confluence between engineering and design practices. An exemplification of this success was the achievement of international recognition with the concession of prestigious design awards such as the Good Design, iF and Red Dot design award. At a national level Sprinkle has been able to gain prominence in the market and it has increased sales in both bottled products and home and office drinking water supply.
5. Conclusions

The Sprinkle case is representative of how influential the design process is for the consumer decision-making situation when purchasing products. The importance of creating a first love visual attraction between consumer and product is a key element shared by design thinkers and business strategists.

Regrettably, in Thailand and other parts of the world, only a few businesses have their mind set to allow design practitioners to participate in strategic and brand development processes. This situation opens the debate if the creative community is ready to tackle high-level business challenges.

Yet, the economic and intellectual growth of an entrepreneurial society that day by day is acquiring knowledge and developing itself to absorb new design thinking tendencies such as human-centered and systematic design for innovation welcomes a new future that breaks away from archaic business mindsets.

The Sprinkle project was only a small contribution to this change that will require greater efforts from both creative and business communities.

Image 10 Final product

6. References

The Transcendental Meditation Program at Dhammajarinee Witthaya School - A Qualitative Analysis

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Abstract

A qualitative analysis of the twice-daily practice of the Transcendental Meditation (TM) technique at a Buddhist boarding school for at-risk girls, Dhammajarinee Witthaya, Ratchaburi, Thailand, reveals intriguing findings. Suspension rates have been dramatically reduced to 5% from 30%. A student survey, interviews with the director and full-time faculty, overall results of standardized tests, and awards won by students in competitions with students from other schools describe a transformation in student behavior, an increase in happiness, and suggest that academic performance may be improving as well.

The TM program is an effortless, secular, mental practice that is easily learned by students during a few short lessons. Over 380 published studies worldwide document a) brain wave EEG (electroencephalographic) changes that show increased brain integration—global brain wave coherence over the whole brain—and b) physiological studies that suggest the body is resting deeply. The studies further document that as the brain starts to function more coherently and the body gets deep rest, behavior improves, happiness increases, intelligence and creativity increase, health gets better, and anxiety and stress levels drop.

The Dhammajarinee Witthaya students and faculty report that they enjoy the TM practice and also report numerous behavioral and cognitive improvements. It is the hope that this qualitative analysis will inspire controlled quantitative studies at Dhammajarinee Witthaya to elucidate further how the TM practice helps to transform the school climate.

Keywords: Transcendental Meditation, Dhammajarinee, total brain functioning, consciousness, student behavior, academic performance, happiness, self-development

1. Introduction: The Transcendental Meditation (TM) Program—Overview of Benefits for Students

“Every once in awhile, when visiting a successful school, you see something that makes your jaw drop, something so extraordinary, you have to stop and make sure what you saw is actually what it appears to be.” This comment by David Markus, former Editorial Director, Edutopia, (2015, August) about the Transcendental Meditation® program in a school he visited in California, USA, matches my experience when I sat in with over 350 students at Dhammajarinee Witthaya School, Thailand, during their afternoon practice of the Transcendental Meditation (TM) technique. After only 30 seconds, the natural chatter and vibrancy of pre-teen and teenage girls settled down, and the room became completely still. Not a sound was heard for 15 minutes. The feeling in the room was extraordinary.

Dhammajarinee Witthaya is a girl’s boarding school near Ratchaburi, Thailand, where over 600 girls live and study under the guidance of Buddhist nuns. In 2008, two daily TM periods were incorporated into the school’s curriculum by the director, Mae Chee Aunampai Passakchai, as an experiment to help the students manage stress. These students come from extremely challenged backgrounds. Mae Chee explained,

‘In Thailand, we have many girls who lack an opportunity for proper education. From different provinces all over Thailand, they come from poor families, broken homes; some are orphans. Some are violently abused or at-risk of being sexually abused. Our school provides all students with a free education. Everything is free: free clothing, food, personal items, and school supplies.’

(Dhammajarinee Witthaya School website, December 3, 2012)
Coming to Dhammajarinee Witthaya, girls are welcomed into a compassionate, loving, and supportive, yet highly structured environment. In this atmosphere, they live, study, and learn practical skills. Seven years after introducing TM, Mee Chee Anumpai reports that the TM practice has transformed the school climate. This paper investigates how the TM practice impacts the students at Dhammajarinee Witthaya.

It is well-known that stress affects the learning process—it diminishes cognitive function, emotional well-being, physical health, and behavior (Center for Wellness & Achievement in Education [CWAE], 2015, April 21, p.5). Over 380 published studies document benefits of TM practice including improved stress management. The TM program was introduced to Southeast Asia and the West from India in 1958 by Maharishi Mahesh Yogi. It is an effortless, secular, mental practice that students learn in a few short lessons. Worldwide, over 750 educational institutions in 48 countries, including 235,000 students from various cultural, religious, and economic backgrounds participate in the same twice-daily practice of the TM program. Three high schools and one middle school in San Francisco, California, USA, use the TM practice in a program called Quiet Time. Seventeen studies, conducted at these four schools by CWAE, document positive benefits for students including improvements in stress management, behavior, happiness and self-esteem, academic performance, and health (CWAE, 2015, April 21).

1.1 The Experience of Transcending

Every experience changes the brain. Every experience results in a cascade of electrical activity over the brain that gives rise to the conscious perception of the situation. When an action is repeated, the imprint left on the actual physical structure of the brain becomes stronger, and the corresponding functions in those areas are strengthened. Neural pathways get structured. One creates brain circuits by the choices of behavior and experiences that optimize one’s ability to respond in the future. For instance, Woollett and Maguire (2006) found that experienced London taxi drivers have thicker brain areas that guide planning a route, estimating time, or looking out for obstacles in the road. Dr. F.T. Travis, professor and Director of the Center for Brain, Consciousness, and Cognition at Maharishi University of Management, USA, who has published more than 70 studies on autonomic and EEG correlates of the meditation experience says that inner experiences also strengthen specific brain circuits and thereby change how one sees the world. (Personal Communication, August, 2015).

The Transcendental Meditation® (TM) technique brings a new inner experience into the student’s life—that of transcending. In an effortless and systematic manner, TM leads to transcending.

Transcending refers to the experience of allowing one’s attention to go beyond active localized thinking and open to the non-localized quiet field of wakefulness inside. To illustrate this transcending experience, the student’s mind can be compared to the ocean with its constantly wavy surface and silent depth. The ocean surface relates to the active, wavy surface of the student’s thinking/feeling mind and the silent ocean depth to the underlying transcendental level of wakefulness inside. See Figure 1 below. During the practice of the TM technique, the attention is naturally drawn within and students easily let go of the wavy level of their localized concerns (A)—whatever they may be—to effortlessly experience increasingly quieter, less wavy, levels of the thinking process (B). Then, they transcend wavy thinking altogether and open their awareness to the inner ocean of pure wakefulness that is quiet and non-local (C) (Maharishi, 1963/2001, pp. 362-364). This quietly awake level of the mind is called pure consciousness because it is wakefulness without an object. Maharishi calls this inner transcendental wakefulness, Transcendental Consciousness, and also explains that it is a reservoir of inner happiness or bliss (pp. 102-103).
1.2 A Unique Mind-Body State—Restful Alertness

Over 50 years of research on the TM technique has brought forward two main physiological (body-brain) markers of the experience of pure or Transcendental Consciousness. These markers are a) natural breath suspension (Badawi, et al., 1984), and b) high alpha1 (8-10 Hz) global brain wave coherence (Travis, et al., 2010).

Natural breath suspension1 means that the body is resting profoundly. On the other hand, high alpha1 global coherence signifies inner wakefulness—lively inner silence. While most experiences activate localized brain areas, such as sensory, emotional, or motor areas, the experience of Transcendental Consciousness leads to a global EEG pattern—alpha1 coherence across the cortex—that can be called total brain functioning. In this situation, it is not that the whole brain is active, the whole brain is awake (Travis et al., 2010). Researchers call this unique mind-body state, restful alertness (Wallace, 1970). Orme-Johnson and Farrow (1977) describe the restful-alertness achieved during the Transcendental Meditation practice. Stated most simply, this state is one of extreme quietness and coherence in the nervous system, experienced in full conscious awareness, and achieved by means of a remarkably quick and natural process. (p. 25)

Importantly, the goal of the TM program is to stabilize the state of restful alertness during daily life—outside the TM practice—to benefit students in everything they do. The restful state enables students to manage stress. The holistic alertness—integrated brain functioning—enables students to perform well. Travis, Harung, and others explain that coherent brain waves over the total EEG pattern—alpha1 coherence across the cortex—that can be called total brain functioning. In this situation, it is not that the whole brain is active, the whole brain is awake (Travis et al., 2010). Researchers call this unique mind-body state, restful alertness (Wallace, 1970). Orme-Johnson and Farrow (1977) describe the restful-alertness achieved during the Transcendental Meditation practice. Stated most simply, this state is one of extreme quietness and coherence in the nervous system, experienced in full conscious awareness, and achieved by means of a remarkably quick and natural process. (p. 25)

Importantly, the goal of the TM program is to stabilize the state of restful alertness during daily life—outside the TM practice—to benefit students in everything they do. The restful state enables students to manage stress. The holistic alertness—integrated brain functioning—enables students to perform well. Travis, Harung, and others explain that coherent brain waves over the total brain signify an underlying holistic wakefulness that allows practitioners to be able to see parts in terms of the whole—a larger abstract arena that includes time, values, memories, and goals. With this holistic awareness, the student can spontaneously experience the unity of diversity. This higher brain integration is associated with increased happiness, higher creativity, and the ability to make good judgments. In other words, integrated brain functioning is the foundation that enables the student to think holistically; it is the basis for happiness, mental clarity, and ethical behavior (Travis and Lagrosen, 2014; Harung and Travis, 2012; Travis, Harung, and Lagrosen, 2011; Harung, et al., 2011). Researchers say that everything good about the brain comes from its coherent functioning.

These results are observed soon after learning the technique. In one study, Travis and Arenander (2006) found an exceptionally high level of pre-frontal global EEG coherence during the TM practice (eyes closed) after only two months and that same high level of coherence was maintained during all post tests—after 6 and 12 months. Further, outside of the practice with eyes open and performing a challenging computer task, the researchers found increasing measures of global coherence in the prefrontal area suggesting that the prefrontal cortex is gradually learning to function in an increasingly integrated and effective way. The researchers explain that because the prefrontal cortex is well-connected to all other brain areas, prefrontal cortex coherence signals coherence over the whole brain. One further study suggests that brain Integration continues to develop throughout life (Travis, Tecce, Arenander, and Wallace, 2002).

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1 Technically, the breath is not completely suspended. The individual can breathe but he is spontaneously experiencing apneustic breathing—a long slow inhalation of breath.
1.3 Published Studies Document Positive Results for Students

Experiencing this unique restfully alert state allows students to prepare themselves for their school day—they are calm and happy inside, yet alert and ready to learn. Hundreds of published studies document results that benefit students (CWAE, 2015, April 21). A few are presented below.

Decreased anxiety demonstrates the ability to effectively manage stress. Researchers at Stanford University Medical Center, Eppley, Abrams, and Shear (1989), conducted a meta-analysis of 146 studies and found that the TM practice showed a significantly greater effect in reducing trait (chronic) anxiety than standard or alternative treatments, including mindfulness-based therapy and other meditation and relaxation practices.

Improved school behavior creates a more settled learning environment. Barnes, Bauza, and Treiber (2003) found that after only four months of practice of TM, behavior of adolescent students significantly improved when compared to a control group in these measures: Absentee Class Periods (p = .05), Rule Infractions (p = .03) and Suspension Days (p = .04).

A higher level of moral reasoning supports the growth of good judgment and ethical behavior in students. Nidich et al. (1983) studied the relationship between the practice of TM and moral reasoning by comparing scores for TM practitioners with non-practitioners. Scores on moral reasoning were significantly higher (p = .001) for practitioners than non-practitioners.

Increased creativity and intelligence lead to academic excellence. So and Orme-Johnson (2001) studied 362 high school students at three schools in Taiwan. They found that regular practice of TM for 6-12 months improved cognitive ability on five variables: Creativity (p = .0001), Field Independence (p = .0001), Practical Intelligence (p = .0001), Mental Efficiency (p = .0003), and Abstract Intelligence (p = .001). EEG measures during creative moments and during the practice of the Transcendental Meditation technique show marked similarities, explaining why creativity increases with regular practice of the Transcendental Meditation technique (Kaplan, 2010, May 25).

Increased ego development supports the growth of self-confidence and self-esteem—qualities that support learning and expression during student life as well as success in daily life after graduation. In a 10-year comparative study, Chandler et al. (2005) found that students who learned TM in college and regularly practiced for ten years afterward demonstrated a significant increase in self-development (p = .0000002) in contrast to the control group who did not learn TM.

Reducing substance abuse is one further area of interest for schools. In 1994, a meta-analysis of 198 treatment outcomes found that practice of TM significantly reduced tobacco, alcohol, and illicit drug use compared to standard substance abuse treatments and prevention programs. Usually, treatment outcomes fall off within three (3) months; however, the effects of TM practice increased over time. Total abstinence from tobacco, alcohol, and non-prescribed drugs ranged from 51% to 89% over an 18-22 month period (Alexander, Robinson, and Rainforth, 1994).

2. Objectives

A large body of published quantitative research (CWAE, 2015, April 21, pp. 48-49) together with a qualitative analysis of reports from students, faculty and administrators from four USA schools (pp. 34-46) suggest a wide range of benefits for students from the twice-daily TM practice. In this paper, we seek to know how the TM practice impacts the Thailand school, Dhammajarinee Witthaya, by analyzing: a) suspension rates; b) students’ responses to a survey asking them to report on results of their TM practice in three categories—cognitive, affective (emotional), and behavioral; c) observations of students by the director and full-time faculty; and finally, d) results of a five-year review by the Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA) and awards that students won in competitions with students from other schools. Further, we seek to identify patterns that can be used in hypotheses for future quantitative controlled research to substantiate this qualitative analysis.

3. Design and Methods

This paper uses a naturalistic qualitative research design that utilizes observation and includes suspension rates, student survey, semi-structured interviews, performance on standardized tests, and a student awards. Suspension rates, even though quantitative, are included because the findings support the
observations of improved student behavior. This design was adopted after a discussion with the school director who explained what school records exist.

3.1 Subjects

In 1990, a small group of Buddhist nuns opened a home to care for and educate 10-15 at risk girls in Thailand. Their home quickly grew into the current school, Dhammajarinee Witthaya, a girl’s boarding school, offering a standard curriculum from Kindergarten through grade 12. The school is directed by the principal, Mae Chee Aunampai Passakchai, who has been at the school since its beginning.

She did not learn TM when her students learned in the fall of 2008. She wanted to remain objective and quietly observe how the students reacted to this program. She reports that, first of all, the students did not complain about being required to participate twice a day. Second, she noticed that the students were becoming more calm and happier (Personal Communication, Mae Chee Aunampai Passakchai, March, 2013). Because she noticed considerable improvements in the students, Mae Chee Aunampai learned TM herself in December 2008. She reported, ‘After my TM practice, I feel self-confident and happy inside. Before I learned this technique, I used to become angry easily. Now, I feel calm and peaceful. My health has improved significantly. When working, I have a more comprehensive vision; yet at the same time, I am more precise and efficient. I am more compassionate and patient. Mainly, I enjoy a playful mood.’ (Personal Communication, March 13, 2013).

Each year since 2009, all new incoming students, grade 4-12, learn TM during the first month of school. They practice TM in a large group twice daily every day. In the academic year of 2015-2016, of the 620 total students, 368 students are in grades 4-12. All 368 students participate in the TM program. During the academic year of 2014-2015, 242 students were in grades 4-12, all practicing TM as part of their school day.

3.2 Instruments


2. Student survey (three-part). In February 2015, two Thai teachers of the Transcendental Meditation program conducted a survey of the 242 students from grades 4-12. A survey, formulated by Dr. Saksit, professor, Graduate School of Education, Rajapark Institute, Thailand, was administered to all 242 students. See Appendix. The survey was in Thai and the students responded in Thai. Both questions and responses were then translated into English. Part 1 asked for general information (grade level, age). Students were not asked to give their names. Part 2 asked students to respond on a five-point Likert scale—1 for strongly agree and 5 for strongly disagree to questions about results of their TM practice in three areas: cognitive, emotional, and behavioral. Sample questions were: TM helps me understand my friends better or TM helps to improve my behavior or TM helps me to have self-confidence. Part 3 was optional, open-ended, asking students to describe results of their TM practice in their own words.

3. Semi-structured faculty interviews. The director and all twenty-one full-time faculties practice the TM technique regularly. The above researchers interviewed all faculties and asked these 4 questions to assess the changes they observe in the students:
   i. Subjects they teach, age, number of years at Dhammajarinee Witthaya;
   ii. Do you observe positive changes in students after they learn TM (yes or no);
   iii. List details of positive changes observed in:
      a. behavior
      b. academic performance, and,
   iv. Results of TM practice you have noticed in yourself.

4. Standardized Tests and Student Awards. Finally, two indications of academic performance: a) results from the Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment five-year review;
and b) awards received by students in regional and national competitions—during 2009 and 2014—are presented.

4. Results

4.1 Suspension Rates

School records show that suspension rates decreased each year after introducing the TM practice to a low of 5% (Personal Communication, Dhammajarinee Witthaya School Records Manager, August, 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2008-2009</th>
<th>30% (TM practice started)</th>
<th>2009-2010</th>
<th>25%</th>
<th>2010-2011</th>
<th>20%</th>
<th>2011-2012</th>
<th>15%</th>
<th>2012-2013</th>
<th>10%</th>
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4.2 Student Survey (three-part)

All 242 students responded to part 2 of the survey. In summary, the responses showed that 94% of the students were certain that they are gaining benefit from the TM program. Across all three sections (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral), more than half of the students (52%-55%) responded that they Totally Agree with the benefits mentioned in cognitive skills, emotional maturity, and behavior. A slightly lesser percent responded that they Agree with the benefits in all three sections. A much smaller number—around 5%—responded Not Sure. Further, a much lower percent (ranging from .01% - 1%) said they Disagreed or Totally Disagreed with the components in all three categories. A slightly stronger certainty was observed for the emotional (affective) components than the other two. See Appendix.

Of the 242 students, 213 students responded to part 3. All responses were positive. The responses were compiled into seven general categories (below). Next to each category name is the number of responses reported for that particular result. Note: If a student described two or more results, each result was included separately. To show the wide range of results described, 40 sample responses are presented below. Category #’s are given in brackets [ ].

1. Improvement in behavior—increased harmony in relationships, becoming a better person (110 responses)
2. Improvement in studies—mental clarity, memory, intelligence (109 responses)
3. Increased happiness/self-confidence/better mood (89 responses)
4. More relaxed/less stressful (72 responses)
5. Increased creativity/expressive ability (10 responses)
6. Better sleep (8 responses)
7. Good things come to me (7 responses)

Total: 405 results described by 213 students.

Sample comments from students:

1. Before I learned TM, I felt I had no one in my life, no parents and relatives. Now, because I have been meditating regularly, my life is much, much better. [7]
2. TM helps me release my stress so I have more intelligence. [4,1]
3. I am very happy from the practice of TM. It helps me feel so relaxed all the time. When I’m tired after a long day of study and work, TM gives me a good rest. [3, 4]
4. TM makes me more awake and more active. I can concentrate better in the classroom and can get along with others easily. [1, 2]
5. TM makes me sleep better and feel fresh and have a good day. [6, 4]
6. TM makes me better in behavior, speech, and action. [2]
7. After I practice TM, I am more expressive in thinking, speaking and acting, and TM allows me to be more creative. [5]
8. After I practice TM, I have better relationships with others. Whatever I desire, it gets fulfilled. I am good with my friends. [2,7]
9. Before TM, I always got angry easily. TM makes me happy and not feel angry with anyone. [2]
10. I can understand my studies in the classroom better and I can understand people better. Thereby, I gain more knowledge. [2,1]
11. TM is a peaceful practice, feeling like I am by myself. TM helps improve my brain, clearer thinking. [4,1]
12. TM is one of the beautiful things in the world; it makes me happier. [3]
13. TM really helps me reduce stress. It makes me happy and I behave better. Whatever I want, I get it easily. I want all the people in Thailand to practice this technique. Then everyone will have good heart, generosity toward people in the world so that we can live together in peace. [4,3,2,5]
14. TM makes me feel that I want to study; I am more self-confident. I trust others more than before. [1,3,2]
15. When I practice TM, I feel so calm and peaceful. When I feel stressful and then I practice TM, I feel light, clear—stress does not increase. [4,3]
16. Practicing TM helps me think more positive without stress. [3,4]
17. Every time I practice TM, many good things come into my life. [7]
18. TM is a meditation technique that is really good. I feel my life has a lot of good things coming to me. My brain is clear; I feel silence within myself. [7,1,4]
19. Any day I put my attention on practicing TM, I feel so happy. Whatever I do, it seems to be smooth. [3,7]
20. TM makes us feel so restful, happy in daily activities, feeling calmer and more peaceful. I don’t argue with friends as before. I am calm; I get along with others. I am myself more. [4,3,2,5]
21. TM makes me calm, be able to concentrate, have good thoughts, more intelligence. [4,1,3]
22. TM helps release stress. The more I practice, better things come into my life. Whatever I want, I get it. I feel very happy. [4,7,3]
23. My study is better after I practice TM. [1]
24. TM makes me happy and healthy. [3]
25. TM makes me cheerful, energetic, and more attentive to my study. [3,4,1]
26. Meditation helps me with my study and I feel so relaxed. [1,4]
27. TM helps with my study, feeling comfortable, happy, and have a better understanding. [1,3]
28. TM helps me change my behavior. I can put my attention on my study. [2,1]
29. I understand more in all of my classes. TM improves my study. [1]
30. Before, when I meditated using another kind of meditation, I got headaches. But after I practice TM, now I feel more relaxed and less stressful. [4]
31. My memory is better. My life has changed in a better way. [1,7]
32. Practicing TM makes my face look brighter, more cheerful, and I have better behavior. [3,2]
33. TM makes my brain function better. I have a better life and it helps my family have a better life too. [1,7]
34. TM gives me enough rest, more concentration, better mood, and happier. [4,1,3]
35. TM improves my brain, have a better memory. Good things start to flow into my life. [1,7]
36. I feel more responsible in whatever I do. I am happy and not so stressful. [3,4]
37. Practicing TM helps clear my brain. [1]
38. What I ask for, I always get it. Good things come to my life regularly. I have better concentration in study. [3,7,1]
39. I can solve problems in class easier, more concentration, understand the context of my study, and I am happy in my daily life. [1,3]
40. TM brings many good changes in my life. I am happier, more natural, have a better mood. I used to have nightmares every night but now I don’t have them anymore. [7,3,5,6]
4.3 Semi-structured faculty interviews

Each of the 22 individuals interviewed (the director and 21 full-time faculty) gave answers to all four questions. Regarding the yes/no question #2, all 22 responded yes. Further, all responses to question 3 were positive. Some described their observations in detail. Seven examples are presented below.

Mae Chee Aunampai Passakchai, Director and Principal, 20 years at the school:
I had been at Dhammajarinee Witthaya for 15 years before introducing the TM practice. Because the students come from extremely challenging backgrounds, they come to the school very depressed, stressful, and unhappy. We tried many things but the students’ behavior remained quite rough, and they still did not study well in class. They did not have self-confidence. However, after the students started to practice TM as part of their school day, I have observed that they are doing dramatically better. I attribute improvements in behavior and studies to an increase in inner happiness that they get from their TM practice. After learning TM, they become happy, more cheerful, and joyful. As a result, they can concentrate better in class and focus better in their studies. Their behavior becomes more gentle. Their self-confidence improves. They become more responsible.

F1. Science teacher and manager of school records (age 32) 7 years at school:
   a. After learning TM, the behavior of the new students is softer, less aggressive. They listen better to the teacher.
   b. I observe that the students study better; they can concentrate more easily and are more lively, responsive, and expressive in class. Also, their overall grades are much better.

F2: Science teacher and Director of Student Activities (age 32), 6.5 years at school:
   a. After TM, I observe that students are more kind and considerate. They are aware of the consequences, and that makes them more disciplined in their behavior. They are more tolerant, more positive in thinking, and more discreet.
   b. After TM, I observe that students have better memory, including winning national memory competitions. They are more expressive in answering and speaking in class and during activity outside class. They understand the context of the lessons more quickly. They express more creativity in their art projects and Mind Map competitions.

F3: Social Science teacher (Age: 25) 1.5 years at school:
   a. When students first came to the school, they were very quiet, no response in class, not polite in their speech. After TM, they speak to their friends more, pay attention to their study. They have better relationships with their classmates, very few arguments in class. After students practice TM, there are zero wrangles, and they are interested in gaining more knowledge.
   b. I observed they have a better memory (e.g. they won prizes for memory competitions many times). They are able to explain what they learn in class very well. They increasingly put more attention on their study especially when they have to do a group project. They are very creative and do very well in drawing, doing research.

F4. The Assistant for Personnel Management (age 35) 1 year at school:
   a. I observe that the students’ behavior is much better after learning TM. They are happier; they smile more. They have better relationships with each other, and b) better academic performance.

F5: Science and Health Education (Age 25) 1 year at school:
   a. I observed that after the students learn TM, they are more enthusiastic in learning, have better health, are cheerful and happy. They are able to live harmoniously with others. TM is one of the relaxing techniques. For example, sometimes when students are sleepy, after practicing TM before class, they look so relaxed and refreshed. They are able to study.
   b. I observed that students are able to connect what they learn in one subject to other different subjects. Many of them want to express their ideas in positive and more creative ways. They understand the lesson and connect their knowledge to the new knowledge; they can identify the
differences and utilize them. They are eager to learn new things. Most of the time, students are quite creative, either by themselves or in groups. They have their own individual ideas; they are innovative and bring out points that are useful for the society.

**F6: English teacher (Age: 29) 1 year at school:**
- a. I observed that before TM, the students dared not express their ideas. However, after TM, they are more friendly, more natural. They are more themselves and not shy to speak. Practicing TM helps to draw out the goodness in the students in a natural way, resulting in better learning ability and better living in daily life.
- b. I observed that after TM, they remembered what they have been taught and retain the material longer. They take part in any project, presenting their work very well. They are interested in gaining knowledge—the teacher can notice from their eyes and faces that they are receptive and ready. They are becoming very creative especially in arts and music.

**F7: Thai Language teacher (Age: 25) 1 year at school:**
- a. After TM, some students who used to be quite aggressive have become obedient and do what we ask them to do. I also notice some changes in their physiology—radiant faces and clearer skin.
- b. I observed that after TM they can concentrate better in class. Students are better able to remember past lessons that they used to forget. They are more expressive in speaking out their ideas. They get better scores on their exams. Most of the students enjoy their study. They are very creative even beyond the teachers’ expectation.

### 4.4 Standardized Tests and Student Awards

Mee Chee Anumpai explains that students did not do very well in academics before learning TM; therefore, before 2009, the emphasis was on learning practical skills, including agriculture, waitressing, and cooking. Starting early in 2009 (the year the TM program was introduced), students started taking the national standardized test, O-NET (Occupational Information Network) and continue to do so regularly. Also, the school has shifted to a more academic orientation because the students are doing better in their studies. The Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA), who visit the school every five years for an official evaluation, gave the Dhammajarinee Witthaya a pass on O-NET in 2014. This means that the students, even with their challenging backgrounds\(^2\) are performing at least up to the national academic standard for Thailand. (Personal Communication, Dhammajarinee Witthaya School Records Manager, August, 2015).

Regardless, the director feels the best indications of improved academic performance are the awards earned at regional and national competitions where the students compete with students from other schools. Because the director saw improvements in behavior and academic skills after introducing TM to the students, she felt confident to send the students to competitions. The students first entered into three competitions in 2009 and won no awards. During the academic year of 2014-2015, 118 students in grades 4-12 (almost 50% of all students in grades 4-12) participated in 60 regional and seven national competitions (Personal Communication, Mae Chee Anumpai, August, 2015). Their achievements are presented in the figure below. Blue color designates regional competitions; green designates national competitions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Prize</th>
<th>Second Prize</th>
<th>Third Prize</th>
<th>Consolation</th>
<th>Gold Medal 1</th>
<th>Gold Medal 2</th>
<th>Gold Medal 3</th>
<th>Silver Medal</th>
<th>Copper Medal</th>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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</table>

**Figure 5** Competition prizes awarded

The students placed or received Honorable Mention (Consolation) in all 67 competitions they entered. Top prizes were earned in 32 of the 67 competitions. Regional competition top prizes were earned

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\(^2\) A significant number of Dhammajarinee Witthaya students come from the Hill Tribes in northern Thailand. Students attending village schools in these locations score very low on O-NET (Ryann, 2013, February 19; Kaewmala, 2012, February 23).

Top prizes for national competitions were earned in Mind Map @ Home, Mind Map Live, and Sorapanya Chanting. On 29 May 2015, five students from grade 6 received the National First Place Award for their Sorapanya Buddhist Chanting from Her Royal Highness Princess Mahachakri Sirindhorn (Personal Communication, Dhammajarinee Wittthaya School Records Manager, August, 2015).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This qualitative analysis shows how TM impacted the Dhammajarinee Wittthaya school. Suspension rates dropped from 30% in 2009 to 5% in 2014. A student survey showed that 94% of students agreed with statements suggesting they have benefitted cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally from their TM practice. Also, 213 students described 405 positive results from their TM practice in their own words. During interviews, the director and all full-time faculty noted that they observed positive changes in both the behavior and academic performance of students after they learned TM. Further, in 2014, ONESQA reviewed student scores on O-NET and confirmed that Dhammajarinee Wittthaya students, even though they come from extremely challenged backgrounds, are meeting the Thai education standards. Finally, 118 students out of 242 participated in the 2014 competitions and all students placed. In most academic settings, awards won at competitions would not be considered indications of overall academic performance. However, in this case, almost ½ of the students placed in competitions with students from other schools. The success of students in 2014-2015 was many times more than in 2009.

Although all findings are intriguing, they are neither comprehensive nor conclusive. Only a few variables have been evaluated, and no controlled studies have been conducted yet. Still, these findings suggest that the TM practice is helping Dhammajarinee Wittthaya students manage stress much better, become happier and more joyful, improve their behavior, and could possibly be influencing their academic performance. To substantiate these findings, more research is necessary. For future research, hypotheses could be based on the director’s rationale for results of the TM program:

| TM | restful-alertness | happiness | improved behavior | academic performance |

Then, controlled quantitative research can be conducted including tests to assess how the TM program impacts brain functioning and autonomic changes (restful alertness); standard psychological tests to assess anxiety, well-being, happiness, and self-confidence (happiness); standard tests for improved behavior (behavior); and standardized tests and other objective data to assess academic performance. These results could further elucidate how TM practice helps to transform the school climate.

In educational institutions across the globe, status quo programs are not adequately educating students for the 21st century. While gaining knowledge or specialized training, students also need to learn systematic methods to develop total brain functioning (holistic thinking) and to manage stress. One prominent American educator observes,

‘I have been watching countless classrooms in countless schools trying countless programs (including programs of my own design) for improving the learning of disadvantaged children .... By far the best thing I have seen is also the simplest to do and loveliest to witness—children meditating. They close their eyes, they calm down, and they rest in silence. The effect of doing this regularly on all the things we care about in schools—attendance, behavior, engagement, performance, creativity, and self-control—dwarf the effects of anything I have done or seen done in schools.’

(Professor Joshua Aronson, Ph.D., Steinhardt School of Education, New York University, CWAE, 2015, April 21, p. 46)

Our students are the 21st century. If we teach our students how to open their attention to their inner quiet wakefulness and experience themselves fully, we will shape a brilliant future.
6. Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank the Dhammadarinee Witthaya School Director, Mee Chee Anumpai, for her support for this research project and particularly for her loving dedication to providing a free, high-quality education for girls in Thailand, Acharn Benjamas Maijande for her assistance in obtaining school records, and Acharn Pornpen Kanjananiyot for her research and translation assistance. The authors also sincerely appreciate Professor Fredrick Travis’s valuable input and editing suggestions.

7. References


**Appendix**

Steps of design for the student survey of attitudes toward TM practice so that they have relevant meaning for students (Personal Communication, Dr. Saksit Khattiyasuwan, August, 2015):

1. Study related literature: basic concepts of attitude, TM practice, and how to measure attitude together with basic education, core curriculum relating to morality.
2. Design the attitude test: it consisted of three parts; personal information of the respondents, 30 items of attitude, and an open-ended part for more opinions of TM practice.
3. Develop the test as the instrument of collecting data for the research.
4. The instrument content validity was established by a panel of three experts.
5. Pilot study of the instrument was performed on 30 students as a means to test the clarity, validity, and reliability of the instrument.
6. The reliability of the instrument was estimated by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (0.95).

**Part 2: Student Survey: Questions and Responses (raw data)**

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<th>Questions</th>
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<td>1. TM helps to develop brain potential</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>140</td>
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<td>2. TM helps to develop morality</td>
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<td>109</td>
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<td>4. TM helps to solve problem</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>129</td>
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<td>5. TM helps with creativity</td>
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<td>6. TM helps to develop learning ability</td>
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<td>7. TM helps to develop mental health</td>
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<td>8. TM helps to develop physiology health</td>
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<td>9. TM helps to improve behavior</td>
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<td>2. TM helps relaxing</td>
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<td>4. TM helps to be calm</td>
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<td>5. TM helps to have happiness</td>
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<td>6. TM helps to be comfortable</td>
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<td>1. Regularly in practicing TM</td>
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<td>2. Be able to utilize the benefit from TM in daily life</td>
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<td>3. Better understanding towards others</td>
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<td>4. More compassion towards others</td>
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<td>5. Have better relationship with classmate</td>
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<td>6. Be more respectful towards adults</td>
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<td>7. Have more concentration in the classroom</td>
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<td>8. Have more harmony</td>
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The Treatment of Chinese Culture in the New Practical Chinese Reader

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Abstract

Taking the position that learning a language is learning how to do things in that language and its cultural context, this paper is concerned with how a textbook can provide appropriate coverage of culture in the teaching of language. As a specific example we consider the first three volumes of a popular textbook for learners of Mandarin Chinese, namely the New Practical Chinese Reader (Liu, 2002), reviewing what sort of things this textbook enables learners to do in Chinese, including how well it supports the learning of aspects of culture that can be relatively independent of language learning, such as appropriate behaviour at Chinese banquets. We find that the first three levels of New Practical Chinese Reader ultimately build to an excellent approach to Chinese culture, but that the first level alone is relatively weak in this respect. Even for the first year of language study such materials should provide a good basis for learners to cope with the basic aspects of culture they would encounter in a visit to China.

Keywords: Chinese, culture, interculturalism, mandarin, new practical Chinese reader

1. Introduction

The importance of learning culture in connection with language has long been recognised, but it has undergone some redefinition over the years. There was a time when ‘culture’ was generally taken to mean ‘high culture’, that is, the historical and artistic achievements of a people. This focus was generally displaced by recognition that being able to use a language (communicative competence) required not only the ability to produce and understand the language (linguistic competence), but also some appreciation of the everyday cultural norms and contexts within which the language was used. More recently still, the goal of attaining competence with such everyday cultural concerns has to some extent, and perhaps in just some countries, been displaced by a related but somewhat different goal of intercultural competence, which does not focus so much on mastery of a new culture but rather on attaining a higher level position — a ‘third place’ (Kramsch, 1993) — from which to be a mediator between the new culture and one’s own.

We feel there is merit in all three positions, but that the third tends to result from the second, which should not ignore the first. That is, the second position — working towards an ability to interact properly in a new culture — can certainly benefit from an appreciation of related aspects of the first, ‘high culture’. For example, even learners of Chinese for everyday purposes may find themselves in situations where it would be helpful for them to know what references to such figures as Lei Feng, Lin Daiyu or Sun Wukong4 might actually mean. At the same time, the second position — an attempt to attain some competence in some particular culture — also seems to be an important step in the direction of the third position, since higher order intercultural appreciation surely cannot be learned in the abstract.

In order to avoid discussing these issues in the abstract, we will explore them here by examining the treatment of culture in the popular text New Practical Chinese Reader (Liu, 2002). Our intent is not really to critique this text as such, but rather to use it as a concrete basis for addressing the question of

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1 This paper was originally presented at CLaSIC 2012: The Fifth CLS International Conference, National University of Singapore, Singapore, 6-8 December 2012. At that time both authors were employed by Charles Darwin University, which supported their attendance.

4 Lei Feng has been portrayed as a selfless model Chinese citizen since the 1960s. Lin Daiyu is the beautiful but fragile true love of Jia Baoyu in the novel A dream of red mansions. Sun Wukong is the name of the monkey king in the novel Journey to the west, popularised in some countries though the television series Monkey magic.
what learners of Chinese should be taught about Chinese culture and how. Before we do this, however, we do need to look more closely at the rather problematic concept of culture and what it means to teach it.

2. Teaching Culture with Language

Culture is a difficult and complicated notion, and a potentially dangerous one to the extent it can lend itself to stereotyping. It has thus been criticised as ‘an all-encompassing notion that can reduce sociohistorical complexities to simple characterizations and hide the moral and social contradictions that exist within and across communities’ (Duranti, 1997, p. 23). Even so, it is difficult for language teachers to avoid some such notion if they are to help learners go beyond mere mastery of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary to gain an ability to actually make use of the language. We will thus consider the problems with the notion of culture (in 2.1) and what this means for language teaching (2.2).

2.1 The Concept of Culture

While culture can be conceptualised in various ways (see Duranti, 1997), what is important for the language teacher is that it is involved in their typical aim of helping learners become able to use the language to pursue and hopefully accomplish their various purposes in life. This is essentially the notion of communicative competence pioneered by Hymes (1972), which involved not only linguistic competence — the ability to understand literal meanings and to create grammatical utterances — but also sociolinguistic competence, an ability to deal with how language fits in with the social situation at hand. Such situations are culturally defined: for example, to address your mother-in-law, the appropriate choices in Chinese culture (e.g. as mā ‘Mum’) are quite different from those in many Australian Indigenous cultures, where one would not address one’s mother-in-law at all (Dixon, 1980).

Some later views of communicative competence involve notions of culture more broadly. In particular, as elaborated by Bachman (1990) it involves a more general ‘knowledge of the world’ that Black (2004) referred to specifically as ‘cultural competence’. Whatever one calls it, it is clear that all sorts of cultural understandings affect how people understand and use language. As an example, consider how listeners or readers might react to the following sentence: ‘When the waitress brought the tea, I used it to wash the cups and dishes.’ In some parts of China this action would be viewed as a common practice, while the context of culture and what it means to teach it.

Thus language teachers do need to deal with some kind of culture-like notion, but it is a complicated one. Communication involves drawing on understandings of one’s interlocutors and the situation one is in. Some of these understandings may be quite specific to the people and/or the situation: for example, a conversation between husband and wife may be based on a great deal of knowledge shared by them but not by most other people, who may thus find their conversation very difficult to follow. Other understandings may be quite general, such as more widespread expectations about how a husband and wife should interact. It is the latter, more general understandings that one might want to call ‘culture’, but it is not a simple dichotomy of the sort Halliday’s two-way distinction between ‘context of situation’ and ‘context of culture’ may suggest (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). There is a complex range of possible understandings between the most special and most general, based in part on the social characteristics of the people involved, such as their gender, age, upbringing, schooling, professions, hobbies, religion, political affiliations, and so on; see Clark (1996) and Holiday, Hyde & Kullman (2004). If two people are both doctors, chess players, or were raised in Wuhan, for example, then they will also share various specific understandings that can affect the way they communicate with each other.

Our cultural identities are thus actually made up of all of the various overlapping subcultures we are involved in. Moreover, even within the subcultures, there is no reason cultural expectations should not be dynamic and thus variable. The closer one looks at the notion of culture the more distinctions, imprecision and variability one sees, until it is no longer possible to clearly identify something called culture. To borrow a simile from the mathematician Mandelbrot (1967), it is like looking at the coastline of Britain. On a small map the coastline may seem quite regular and easily measured, but on a more detailed map one will see more irregularities, and if one follows them closely, one will find the coastline is actually much longer than first thought. If one then actually goes to the coast to measure it, one finds smaller irregularities within the larger ones, so that the coastline must be longer still. Studying the smaller
irregularities with a magnifying glass would find further irregularities within them, and the same would happen if one extended this to increasingly microscopic levels.

Mandelbrot (1967, p. 636) thus concluded that ‘Geographical curves are so involved in their detail that their lengths are often infinite or more accurately, undefinable.’ In much the same way, the closer you look at cultural traits, the harder they are to distinguish from all of the other sorts of commonalities and differences among people. To extend the simile, the problem is also exacerbated by cultural variability and changes, just as the detailed shape and length of a coastline varies with the tides and as each wave rolls in. At the same time, the simile itself suggests a practical solution in the case of culture. If you want to sail a ship around the British coast, you do not really need to know the length of the coastline in any detail; you just need to know where and how far to sail the ship. Similarly with culture, the language teacher just needs to help the learner become able to navigate around the culture, not to grasp every tiny, changeable detail.

2.2 Learning Culture

The fact that cultural expectations are so complex and variable highlights, on the one hand, the impossibility of teaching learners all they need to know about a culture and, on the other, the importance of helping them learn how to continue their learning on their own. This in itself is nothing new: helping learners ‘learn how to learn’ has commonly been taken as an important aspect of language teaching (Harmer, 2007), since one would hope that much more language and culture would be learned outside the classroom than it is possible to cover in a few hours a week of classes.

This view is shared by the recent intercultural approach to language learning, whose focus is not so much on mastery of another language and culture as on learners developing ‘an understanding of their own language(s) and culture(s) in relation to an additional language and culture’ (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 1). This is based on the position that learners cannot really hope to gain native-speaker mastery of a language and culture, which thus cannot be considered a realistic goal of language learning. At the same time, learners already possess a language and culture of their own, so a more realistic goal is for them to take advantage of this and develop an ‘intercultural competence’ that will help position them as mediators between the two cultures. As developed by Byram (1997), this intercultural competence involves five types of savoir ‘knowing’, including savoir apprendre/ faire ‘knowing how to learn/to do’, as well as others relating to cultural sensitivity.

Whether or not one adopts intercultural goals, we believe it is clear that language teaching must involve serious attention to matters of culture, including helping prepare learners to learn more on their own. At the same time, learning how to learn more about culture, as about language, is not something done in the abstract: it surely depends on learning something about a culture to start with. As Liddicoat et al. (2003, p. 7–8) note, ‘In order to learn about culture, it is necessary to engage with the linguistic and non-linguistic practices of the culture and to gain insights into the way of living in a particular cultural context’, even though ‘Cultural knowledge is not... a case of knowing information about the culture; it is about knowing how to engage with the culture’. Accordingly we will now start to consider how much and just how learners of Chinese should be learning about the associated culture by examining how culture is handled in the *New Practical Chinese Reader*.

3. Culture in the New Practical Chinese Reader

3.1 The Nature of the Materials

The *New practical Chinese reader* (Liu, 2002), henceforth *NPCR*, is a set of six levels of Chinese teaching material created within the Beijing Language and Culture University under the sponsorship of the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (NOTCFL). It represents a substantial revision of an earlier *Practical Chinese Reader* first published in 1982. A second edition of some of the volumes of *NPCR* began to appear in 2010, but since the changes are largely in format rather than content, we will simply refer to the original, 2002 edition.

Here we will be concerned with only the first three levels of *NPCR*, since these are the ones we used as a basis for a three-year program on Chinese in an Australian university. Our program covered each level over two 12-week semesters, with up to four hours of class each week. Since the materials for each
level are extensive, our students found this a substantial workload, although we are aware of at least one other Australian university that covers a full level each semester in a more intensive program. Each of the three levels was represented by a textbook, workbook, and accompanying CDs and DVDs, as well as an instructor’s manual. Here we will generally take the textbook to represent each level, except to comment briefly on the workbook at points.

The first three levels of NPCR include 38 lessons, with Lessons 1-14 in the first, Lessons 15-26 in the second, and Lessons 27-38 in the third. Each lesson begins with two dialogues (or just one in review chapters) accompanied by lists of new words and notes; it then continues with exercises and sections on grammar and Chinese characters. Lessons 1 to 6 also have a section on ‘phonetics’, while starting with Lesson 7 a supplementary text is added at the end of the exercise section. There is also a brief ‘Cultural Note’ in English at the end of Lessons 1-26, in Textbooks 1 and 2. The notes and lyrics of one Chinese song are also given in each volume of the textbook, in Lessons 13, 20, and 36. Each volume also ends with a small number of appendices, including lists of vocabulary and Chinese characters.

One of the strengths of this textbook is that the lessons are based on the daily lives of a small number of characters, including several Chinese and overseas students, as well as Chinese teachers, a reporter and (in later lessons) a tour guide. This continuity of cast, if not story line, across the lessons gives learners some familiar ground to stand on: they are hearing and reading dialogues about people they are getting to know, not about characters that are always entirely new.

3.2 The Handling of Culture

The intention of the designers of the text was to integrate structure, function and culture (Liu, 2003). The handling of culture actually changes considerably as the lessons progress. While all the lessons may be viewed as having cultural aspects, in the first volume these tend to be secondary to aspects of structure and function, while they become successively more prominent in the next two volumes. In Textbook 1, for example, the dialogues and exercises in Lessons 1-7 cover culturally appropriate ways of doing such things as greeting, introducing and thanking people, making suggestions, asking permission, declining offers and apologising, but the cultural aspects of these are left implicit rather than brought out explicitly. The accompanying cultural notes do not deal with those things, but rather basic facts about the Chinese language (Lessons 1-4), food (5), Beijing Opera (since it is mentioned in Lesson 6) and common surnames (7).

Culture gets somewhat more attention in the remaining lessons in Textbook 1. Lesson 8 deals with family, and while it introduces only a few basic kin terms, the cultural notes do point out such differences from English as how Chinese has distinct terms for paternal and maternal grandparents. The dialogues of Lesson 9 are about age and celebrating a birthday. The vocabulary includes 寿面 shòumiàn 'longevity noodles' and the verb 生 shēng 'to be born in the year of (one of the twelve animals associated with years)', and there are explanatory notes on both matters. The cultural notes for the lesson are about region styles of cooking, including the Beijing roast duck mentioned in one dialogue. Lesson 10 is about buying things in a shop and the marketplace, including the practice of bargaining in the latter; it introduces Chinese measures and money, while the cultural notes provide pictures of Chinese currency. The focus of Lesson 11 is on optative verbs and how to tell time; one dialogue is set in a ride in a taxi, while the cultural notes are on loanwords in Chinese. Lesson 12 is about illness and seeing a doctor, with cultural notes on traditional Chinese medicine.

Lesson 13 is one of the culturally more interesting lessons. It is about a student wanting to rent an apartment to be able to spend more time alone with his girlfriend. In the second dialogue the student has found an apartment to rent, but complains that it is too expensive, so his classmate phones their reporter friend, who is a friend of the manager of the rental agency, and the students invite the reporter and manager out to dinner to seek their help. This illustrates a common use of 关系 guānxì ‘relationship’ in China, although the term itself is not introduced and any explanation is left entirely up to the teacher. Also in this lesson are examples (in the exercises) of addressing an envelope and writing a personal letter, and the notes and lyrics for ‘A Love Song of Kangding’. The cultural notes are simply about how most Chinese university students live in dormitories.
The final lesson in Textbook 1 is a review lesson with a dialogue based largely on a Christmastime phone call in which a Chinese-Canadian student brings his Chinese-speaking mother up to date on what he has been doing in China. There are cultural notes on prominent Chinese cities and rivers and the Great Wall.

The workbook accompanying Textbook 1 adds little relating to Chinese culture. Occasional newspaper clippings, advertisements, receipts and timetables provide the basis of some exercises, some of which actually require little knowledge of Chinese. There are some simple texts accompanied by questions, and they can touch on such matters as buying things in China. Reading a famous poem by Li Bai is given as a ‘pronunciation drill’ for Lesson 12, but the vocabulary is beyond what learners will have studied thus far and there is no translation or explanation.

While the coverage of culture is thus somewhat limited and often implicit in Textbook 1, it gradually becomes much stronger in Textbooks 2 and 3. At the beginning of Textbook 2, Lesson 15 has dialogues about visiting Xi’an (with its terracotta warriors) and Shanghai, including mention of how to say ‘I don’t know’ in the Shanghai dialect. The cultural notes are on Xi’an and other former Chinese capitals. The next three lessons have less direct focus on things distinctive to China. Lesson 16 relates to obtaining a library card, with cultural notes on the Chinese educational system; a supplementary text does introduce learners to a noisy Guangdong tea house. Lesson 17 is about comparing and buying clothes, in particular traditional Chinese dress (the cheongsam), with cultural notes on traditional Chinese garments. The dialogues in Lesson 18 involve interacting in a post office and taking a bus; the cultural notes merely give gross figures on railway and road mileage and air routes in China.

Most of the remaining lessons in Textbook 2 have a clearer focus on things distinctively Chinese. Lesson 19 relates to traditional Chinese painting, including particular pictures by Xu Beihong and Qi Baishi. Lesson 20 is a review lesson whose dialogue relates to celebrating the new year; the cultural notes deal with on festivals and customs in China, and the supplementary reading is based on a traditional story of drawing legs on a snake. After a lesson (21) relating to sports, Lesson 22 relates to Shaoxing opera and the classic novel A Dream of Red Mansions (红楼梦), with cultural notes on classical Chinese poetry, prose and novels. Lesson 23 is about a visit to the Great Wall, with largely geographical cultural notes on differences between Eastern and Western China. (The supplementary reading in this lesson is a readable humorous story, but not distinctively Chinese; it seems an adaptation of Aesop’s fable of ‘The two fellows and the bear’.) Lesson 24 relates to changes in living conditions in the rural areas of China; this seemed useful to us, though Zhang (2006) did not consider it very authentic. Here the cultural notes consist of simply a list of the administrative divisions of China and their capitals. After a lesson (25) on an accident and a visit to the hospital, the dialogue in the review lesson (26) has the overseas students reminiscing about their time in China and ‘becoming a Chinese hand’ (中国通).

The workbook accompanying Textbook 2 occasionally introduces other culturally relevant material, through brief texts with questions, exercises involving things like advertisements and tickets, and a couple of poems used as ‘pronunciation drills’. For each lesson there is now also a ‘cultural experience’, which is generally a suggestion (in Chinese) for some sort of activity, such as to tell a friend what colour(s) you like and why (for Lesson 17).

There is a noticeable shift in how culture is handled in Textbook 3. While there are no longer cultural notes at the ends of lessons, the dialogues often deal quite explicitly with cultural issues and indeed cultural differences. The characters in the dialogues contrast Chinese and western practices with respect to eating (Lesson 27), gift giving (28), privacy (32), and paying for meals (37), with the final lesson (38) devoted to cross-cultural misunderstandings between a western man and the parents of his Chinese bride. In Lesson 35 the cultural comparison is not between East and West, but rather between different generations in China on their views of the merits of hard work and borrowing money.

Other lessons deal with culture without such explicit comparison. In a visit to a professor in Lesson 29, the student characters learn the maxim 弟子不必不如师 ‘Disciples are not necessarily inferior to teachers.’ Lesson 30 has the students observing the bustling street activities, such as exercise, that can often be seen in China. Chapters 31, 33, 34, and 36 relate to China’s scenic spots, environmental issues and climate, and include lines from Tang dynasty poems by Li Bai. Supplementary texts in these lessons include a story of a calligrapher and a monk (Lesson 27), an account of the moon goddess Cheng’e (28), a short
piece by Lao She on growing flowers (29), a text on General Zhang Xueliang’s snuff bottle (34), a story about how the Tang poet Jia Dao refined a particular line of poetry, resulting in the expression ‘research and think deeply’ (36), and a story about how Wang Anshi came to create double happiness character (38). Chinese culture becomes heavily implicated indeed, and the comparison of Western and Chinese culture can also contribute explicitly to the development of an intercultural position.

3.3 Critique of Textbook 1

The handling of culture in NPCR thus becomes excellent by Textbook 3, and this is in accord by a study by Zhang (2006) that found that many students believe that NPCR can help them understand differences between Chinese culture and their own. The way Textbook 3 leads students to compare aspects of Chinese culture with their own lends itself to an intercultural approach in a way that Liddicoat et al. (2003, 24) consider very important:

‘An important dimension of intercultural language teaching is that it is possible to understand another culture only by comparing it with one’s own... Intercultural language teaching, however, does not assume that students know their own culture, in fact, because our cultural practices are largely invisible to us, we do not usually see them as cultural and constructed. As a result in order to learn about another culture we need to learn about our own culture at the same time by comparing our own culture with the target culture.’

Textbook 1, on the other hand, seems much weaker on culture, and yet it provides the basis for the full first year of such Chinese language programs as our own. To the contrary, Liddicoat et al. (2003, p. 23) maintain that ‘it is not the case that cultural teaching can be held over until a later time.’ They continue as follows:

‘Culture is taught from the beginning of language learning and is not delayed until learners have acquired some of the language. The key concern here is that delaying input about culture does not delay culture learning, but rather leads to false culture learning as a result of a lack of awareness of difference and does not begin the process of thinking about one’s own culture.’

(Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 24)

The weaknesses in Textbook 1 are of two types, namely in the extent to which culture is covered and how it is covered. To start with the first, the range of culture that should ideally be covered is of course a debatable matter. Hanban (2008) has created an International Curriculum for Chinese Language Education that includes specifications of cultural knowledge and understanding expected of five stages of Chinese study. For Stage 1 some of the expected cultural knowledge is indeed covered by NPCR Textbook 1, such as aspects of simple social etiquette, customs, and interpersonal relations, but some is not, such as allusion and connotation in simple Chinese stories, Chinese costumes, and understanding developments in education and culture. But why were the latter considered useful to cover in Stage 1?

Our own expectation for the first year of Chinese study is that it should prepare learners to accomplish various everyday tasks they will encounter when visiting or living in China, such meeting people, eliciting directions and other information, finding accommodation, food and transportation, and shopping. Textbook 1 touches on these topics, but it does not really take them very far. While Zhang (2006) thought NPCR better designed for use in English-speaking countries than another text, this may be because of the comparison of English and Chinese cultural background in some parts of Textbook 2 and especially in Textbook 3. Textbook 1 seems better designed for someone studying in China so that the text can be supplemented by firsthand contact with Chinese daily life.

As for just how culture is covered in Textbook 1, Wang (2010) found some aspects somewhat mechanical, and felt there should be more realism in the design of cultural points and exercises. We do not see this as much of a problem ourselves, considering the limitations in the level of language; our main concern is that much of the coverage of culture tends to be implicit, embedded in the language taught but not brought out well through explanation or discussion. This allows learners to miss such points, rather than ‘notice’ them in a way needed for cultural and intercultural learning (see Liddicoat et al., 2003). It also does
not invite learners to be active analysts of the culture and its differences from their own, which Corbett (2003, 34) suggests would ‘help them along the road to independent intercultural analysis and interpretation in a range of situations where they might otherwise be at a loss, and where authoritative guidance is unavailable.’

3.3.1 Example 1: Forms of Address

As an example of both the extent of and approach to coverage of culture, let’s consider how Textbook 1 deals with the very complex matter of how people address each other in Chinese. One would not expect a full and deep coverage of this in Textbook 1 alone, but it does take a reasonable approach of illustrating four types of options, thus providing some framework for learning additional specific forms later. At the same time, explicit discussion is more limited that one might hope. The four types of address are as follows:

1. By name alone, as when the university student characters and their reporter friend address each other (Lesson 1 and later). Lesson 4 deals with how people can introduce themselves with surname and/or full name, and how the surname comes before the given name.

   Even this simple matter can deserve a bit more attention. Specifically, learners could wonder why the students Lin Na and Song Hua are consistently addressed with both surname and given name, while Ding Libo, Ma Dawei and Wang Xiaoyun are normally addressed by given name alone, as Libo, Dawei and Xiaoyun. This has to do with the numbers of syllables: Chinese tend to avoid using such single syllable names as Na and Hua unless the relationship is very close. Another matter is why the students address their reporter friend Lu Yuping with his full name of three syllables; this may be because he is a slightly older professional, rather than one of the students.

2. By a relationship (or kinship) term, as when one student calls his brother gēge ‘elder brother’ (Lesson 2), and when a teacher addresses a student’s grandmother as wàipó ‘(maternal) grandmother’. Relationship terms are briefly discussed in a note in Chapter 3 and in the cultural notes at the end of Chapter 8.

   A common related usage does not seem to be covered in Textbooks 1 to 3, namely the use of kin terms that have no basis in actual relationships, such as a child calling an adult male friend of the family shūshu ‘uncle (father’s younger brother)’.

3. By a surname plus title, as when the students refer to their teachers by adding lǎoshī ‘teacher’ (Lesson 3) and jiàoshòu ‘professor’ (Lesson 7) after their surnames. This matter is discussed in a note in Lesson 3.

   Some Western learners may wonder why the title ‘comrade’ (tóngzhì) is not found at all in Textbooks 1 to 3. Due to cultural change, perhaps learners are simply unlikely to encounter it nowadays.

4. By a title alone, as when a waitress is addressed as xiǎojie ‘miss’ in Lesson 5, a fruit seller calls a student xiānshēn ‘mister, sir’ and the student calls him shīfu ‘master’ in Lesson 10, where there are notes on these forms, and a teacher is addressed as simply lǎoshī, without the surname, in Lesson 11.

   A common option not introduced in Textbook 1 is to address or refer to someone by their surname preceded by xiǎo ‘small’ if they are younger than the speaker or by lǎo ‘old’ if they are older; this is not mentioned until Lesson 32 in Textbook 3. This may be because the lessons are designed for students and others who may have little need for it. It would be different for learners who are married to Chinese speakers (as in the case of the present authors) and frequently encounter this usage within the family and among family friends and associates, but such learners can and do learn it from their spouses.

   An aspect of address not introduced at all in Textbooks 1 to 3 is the use of nicknames, such as those formed by reduplicating a syllable of the given name, as in the case of Ōuōu for someone named Lín ē ōu, or by adding 阿 ā before part of the personal name.
For how to address people there thus seems to be some reasonable coverage in Textbook 1, but not as much explicit discussion as could be useful. In particular there is no discussion that might problematise address forms, highlighting them as an issue and inviting comparison with practices in one’s own culture. (Nice examples can be found in the text on Chinese culture by Wu (1994), but this depends on the learner already being able to read Chinese at an intermediate level.) If forms of address were highlighted as an issue, English-speaking learners might appreciate how complex and variable the matter is in their own culture, such as how much more common the use of first names is in Australia (e.g. even by university students to their lecturers) than in some other English-speaking countries. This might make them better able to appreciate that Chinese culture could be no less variable and complex.

3.3.2 Example 2: Less Linguistic Aspects of Culture

Another issue arises to the extent that culture tends to be left implicit in the aspects of language being taught: how can learners come to grips with aspects of culture that generally do not come out in how the language is used? Some of these relate to basic survival skills for anyone visiting China, such as knowing that:

a) Cars normally do not yield to pedestrians at pedestrian crossings;

b) Holes and other hazards on the pavement are not normally marked;

c) People do not normally queue to find seats on a bus;

d) It is normal to take off ones shoes when entering people’s houses;

e) Some hotels are not approved for taking in overseas visitors;

f) There will be many courses at a Chinese banquet, and that they can keep coming well after a Westerner may feel that they have finished eating;

g) In such places as banks you may need to take a number, e.g. from a queuing machine, to be ‘in line’ to be served;

h) To leave some supermarkets you need to present your receipt at the door and have it stamped;

i) In shopping centres you often do not pay for goods where you acquire them, but rather take an invoice to pay at a central location, using the receipt to pick up the goods.

Such matters can of course be discussed in the language, and this would make an interesting activity, but learners at a beginners level would not have enough language for much discussion. An alternative would be to raise such matters in English, and this is exactly the sort of thing done in short intercultural training programs (Landis & Bhagat, 1996) for those who may spend some time in China for such purposes as business but who do not see the need or opportunity to study the language. It seems more problematic to integrate them into the study of the language in a way that nicely complements the language study rather than detracts from it.

We raise this as a problem, but we do not have a clear solution. For learners studying outside of China the best we can do is to suggest that multimedia could be a valuable tool for dealing with such matters. For example, such issues could perhaps be introduced through a series of videos on what learners are likely to encounter while visiting or living in China. Such videos could be in relatively simple Chinese, and it need not matter if the Chinese were somewhat beyond what learners could comprehend, since much of the information could be conveyed visually, and in ways that might actually help learners grasp some of the new language they hear on the video. To some extent less verbal issues could easily be dealt with in videos that also provide examples of the aspects of language being taught; for example, the common hazards of Chinese streets and traffic (Xiao xin! ‘Be careful!’) could be illustrated in a video on asking and following directions. Perhaps there are already videos available that might lend themselves to this purpose, but we are not aware of them, and those that accompany NPCR Textbook 1 do not go very far in this direction.

4. Conclusion

Whether or not one cares to take an intercultural approach, it is clear that language teaching involves helping learners come to be able to use the language appropriately in the culturally complex settings in which the language is spoken. This involves introducing learners to relevant aspects of culture,
and since these are many and variable, it surely also involves preparing them to continue learning more on their own. In an intercultural approach it can also involve having the learners make explicit comparisons with aspects of their own cultures.

The New Practical Chinese Reader provides an increasing excellent introduction to Chinese culture as it proceeds through its first three levels, but the first level alone does not seem to provide a particularly strong basis for learners to cope with basic aspects they would encounter in a visit to China, even though learners may spend a full year on this level. The coverage of such aspects of culture is somewhat limited and not always brought out as explicitly as one might hope, and certainly not in connection with the learners’ own cultures at this level. The failure to deal meaningfully with less linguistic aspects of culture is an additional problem for this and probably most other largely print-based introductions to Chinese.

5. References
The Development of Community Enterprise:  
A Case Study of Moku Moku Farm in Mie Prefecture  

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Abstract  
It is generally believed that community solidarity will give way to globalization. This study, however,  
suggests that community-based development can revitalize community solidarity.  
Over the past three decades, many countries in Asia adopted the “One Village One Product” concept in Japan  
for moving the community economic development. Community-based products have been developed and turned into  
small and medium community enterprise. Such changes have been introduced in order to connect local products to the  
global market. There are three major factors contributing to long-lasting community enterprises. Firstly, community  
products should be locally initiated based on sufficient local resources. Secondly, community products should have a  
strong local cultural base and unique characteristics of the area. Thirdly, the production, development, and marketing of  
local products should be carried out through a unified network among farmers, cooperatives, local government, local  
Chambers of Commerce and Tourism Associations, local tourism associations, universities, and consumers.  
The ability of Moku Moku Farm in Mie Prefecture to compete with other big businesses is not limited only in  
raw agriculture products. The successful Moku Moku Farm has ventured into farm products processing business and  
creative tourism. Such development gives their business high value-added to their products. Thus, it is clear, Moku Moku Farm of Mie Prefecture has become a successful model of community enterprise, utilizing  
the strategies of farm product value-added, community-based, green business, cultural and social capital, local  
government subsidies, unique location, farm fan club membership, and the uniqueness of their products.  
Keywords: community enterprise, creative tourism, community development  

1. Introduction  
Among the big problems in the rural communities of Japan is that the population is both declining and aging. The majority population in the countryside is over 65. Apart from agricultural production, rural  
communities play various roles aside from agricultural production in local areas. Due to the emergence of  
various movements, such as OVOP, SMEs policies, and other community enterprises has led to the  
revitalization of rural communities and its sustainable economic growth.  
In the 1960s, Oita Prefecture located in the south of Japan faced many problems, including  
population decline as the labor force of young people in the local communities and rural areas was pulled  
towards the larger cities where industrial mass production of inexpensive standardized goods offered  
employment (Hiromichi Moriyama, 2012). Morihiko Hiramatsu who was the former Governor of Oita  
Prefecture promoted “Isson Ippin” or One Village One Product (OVOP) in Japan and OVOP was advocated  
in Oita Prefecture in 1979. He discovered that the income of the citizens was low. He came up with three  
reasons to initiate the OVOP movement. The first and ultimate goal of the movement was to increase the  
per capita income of citizens and to revitalize the society in the rural community where all citizens could be  
proud and feel satisfied with their lifestyles in each of their respective communities. The second goal was to  
invigorate regions using two approaches: exogenous development and endogenous development. The  
exogenous development attracting outer investments cannot promote all areas, but endogenous development as a type of revitalization approach in the rural areas can make full use of their potential resources and  
capital, preserve the environment, and develop the areas by promoting semi-secondary industries. This is  
the spirit of the OVOP movement. The third goal aimed at a gross national satisfaction (GNS) oriented  
society for the improvement of the quality of life, the pursuit of a worthwhile life, and the coexistence of  
nature and humans. The GNS-oriented society was based on the philosophy of the sufficiency economy.
From the 1960s to the present, there are many world-renowned companies such as Canon Inc., Canon Meterial, Daihatsu Motor Corporation Limited, Toshiba Corporation, and Nippon Steel Corporation in Oita Prefecture. The output of Oita Prefecture amounts 3,029,900 million yen (up 6.2%) and ranks second in the Kyushu region. Many small to medium-sized enterprises have entered Oita Prefecture for supplying parts and assisting the manufacturing process." (Yuijiro Okara, 2009) Oita Prefecture has accumulated various social capital, including: OVOP groups, social organizations, farmer networks of the prefecture, cities and agricultural cooperatives, OVOP corporations, expansion of the product associations, and tourism development organizations.

In 1963, Japan enacted the SME Basic Act. The ultimate goal of the small and medium enterprise (SMEs) and the micro and small community enterprise (SMCEs) was to revitalize a society in the rural community and create sustainable economic growth. These concepts are ones that have been adopted in the circle of community development to promote self-reliant economies as well as the principles of community enterprise, community economics, community industry, and self-sufficient economics. The basic principles of policy on SMEs have been revised according to the needs throughout the period, and supporting measures have been implemented and enhanced, e.g. policies on finance, promotion, guidance, and unionization.

At present, the small and Medium Enterprise Agency, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry reported on September, 2013 accounting for 99.7% of all companies, 70% of all employees, and more than 50% of all added value. SMEs form the very basis of the Japanese economy. Even such large corporations as Toyota, Honda, and Sony started out as small backstreet factories, and the revitalization of SMEs can promote competition in the marketplace, creating new industries and becoming the motivating force behind economic restructuring. The majority of the products of large corporations consist of components from SME subcontractors; thus, it is the hidden strength of SMEs that underpins trust in Japanese products. The economies of Japan’s provincial areas are supported by the activities of SMEs - mainly in the “industry, retail trade, and the construction industry” – and SMEs play a part in revitalizing local economies and boosting employment opportunities. Supporting SMEs means the creation of jobs for new business development in such areas as agriculture, commerce, and manufacturing. The support provided to new SMEs and Microenterprise, aimed at developing and cultivating markets for advanced new products and services. (METI, 2013)

There are many OVOP projects that have been developed into SMEs or community enterprise. A community enterprise is a social enterprise that serves a geographical community or a community of interest and has representatives from the community on its board of directors. It provides goods and services and has a long-term commitment to create jobs or provide a service for members of the community. It may also contain a significant sub-sector within the wider social enterprise sector, sharing the same definition of social enterprise: an organization trading for social purposes with profits reinvested rather than going to shareholders.

At present, Japan’s efforts are towards increasing farm income by promoting the “sixth industry”. Farmers’ income comprises agricultural income, income from agriculture production-related businesses, such as the processing of farm products and restaurant operation, non-agricultural income and other components. Japan’s net agricultural production (amounting to Japan’s total agricultural income) totaled 3 trillion yen in FY2008, halving from FY1990. Individual farmers’ income has slackened. In order to expand farmers’ overall income, the government should support promoting the “sixth industry” to increase their income from agriculture production-related businesses in addition to their agricultural income. (MAFF, 2010) Efforts to expand agricultural and agricultural production-related incomes include those made mainly by individual farms, producing areas, and other groups. It is important for them to find future challenges and development directions based on past cases for these efforts. Farmers should cooperate with commercial and industrial sector players in making these efforts by integration of production, processing and marketing or combination of agriculture with tourism, expansion of added value, development of regional brands, responses to demand for processing and commercial uses of farm products, expansion of exports, and reduce of shipment and distribution costs. Processing of farm products, direct sales and tourist farm management are frequently cited by farmers as actions that they want to undertake for promoting the “sixth Industry”. (MAFF, 2011, p.30-31)
Promoting the “Sixth Industry” means that agriculture, forestry and fisheries as the primary industry, manufacturers as the secondary industry, and retailers as the tertiary industry are promoted comprehensively and integrally to create new added values using regional resources. (MAFF, 2010)

Community-based farm cooperatives: these farm cooperatives consist of farming households in certain regions that have developed a relationship through the local community or other geographical bases. In these cooperatives, farming households conduct agricultural production as a collaborative enterprise. Adopting the three basic tenets of (1) aggregation of diverted paddy fields, (2) communal use of communally purchased equipment, and (3) communalization of the entire farming process from production to marketing with farming leaders playing a central role. These cooperatives take different forms and approaches depending on their geographical location. (MAFF, 2010)

However, the movement that has influenced community enterprise or community products was creative tourism. Iga no Sato Moku Moku Tezukuri Farm is one such enterprise, developing a business by adopting the OVOP concept movement. They approached financial support through the Government, and using the creative tourism concept. All of these concepts call “Cultural Economy” paradigm.

Iga no Sato Moku Moku Tezukuri Farm developed from individual farmers who were trying to survive within the big market. They have since grown into a medium sized community enterprise. There are approximately 1,000 employees with 140 permanent staff, 160 part-time staff with long-term contracts, and 700 part time employees with short-term contracts. Annual profits in 2012 were 5.1 billion yen. Iga no Sato Moku Moku Tezukuri Farm is the best practice of rural community development in Japan.

This study explores the development of a medium-sized community enterprise and tries to find factors contributing to its success. In general, it is not common to develop the community products into the sixth industries. In this manner, the researcher aims to find out how Moku Moku farm can operate to be one of the sixth industry in Japan. The lesson learned from Moku Moku farm is important for the developing countries, especially Thailand. This study has been carried out using qualitative research methodology; employing documentary analysis, in-depth interviews, and participatory observation in the field.

2. Rural Community Development in Japan

2.1 The present state of rural areas

The local or rural communities in Japan have a big problem (Hideharu Uemura, interviews on May 7, 2014). Rural is defined as eighty percent farming. The population of Japan is anticipated to decline for a long time hereafter (MAFF, 2008). Japan’s total population in 2012 was 127.52 million. This ranked tenth in the world and made up 1.8 percent of the world total (Statistic Bureau, 2013, p. 10). Trends of an aging population (age 65 and over) will increase to 29.1 percent in 2020, 31.6 percent in 2030, 36.1 percent in 2040, and reach 38.8 percent in 2050. It is important to note, however, that the elderly population was 30.79 million in 2012, or 24.1 percent of the total population, the highest percentage of the population in the world. The Population Census shows that Japan has 56.3 percent were nuclear-family households, and 32.4 percent were one-person households (Statistic Bureau, 2013, p. 13).
By classifying agricultural areas as a mountainous, urban, hilly, or flatland areas, it is estimated that the population in mountain farming areas in the year 2020 will be approximately 70 percent of the current population. Rural communities play various roles aside from agricultural production in local areas. At present, there are 139,000 rural communities nationwide in Japan as of 2005, of which 110,900 thousand communities have maintained their community functions excluding rural communities in urbanization of promoted areas. In the depopulated areas, the function of community is weakening or is difficult to maintain in communities where fifty percent consist of nine or fewer households or in forty percent of communities in which the rate of aging population is more than fifty percent. When the average household membership is two people or fewer, the above-mentioned percentage becomes higher (MAFF, 2008, p. 38).

2.2 Rural Areas Revitalization

A current problem in the rural areas, prefecture-by-prefecture population changes from 2005 to 2010, indicate population growth in nine urban prefectures, such as Tokyo, Kanagawa, Chiba, Okinawa, Shiga, Aichi, Saitama, Osaka and Fukuoka. All have seen accelerated drops in rural prefectures. Population drops are particularly large in Akita, Aomori, and Kochi. Population in rural regions is estimated to decline to 81 percent of the 2005 level, with the aged population rate rising from 22 percent to 35 percent. As rural population declines and ages, farmers cite such life-related problems as abandoned cultivated land, farmland care, wildlife damage, employment, and emergency medical services. Under this situation, a decline in community functions and depopulation are seen for some rural communities (MAFF, 2008, p. 39-40). The population decrease is causing many shops to close.

Presently, the Japanese government is trying to revitalize rural areas via collaboration among the agricultural, commercial, and industrial sectors.

Many Japanese private sectors would like to combine three sectors of industry: 1) Primary industry including agriculture, forestry, and fisheries, 2) Secondary industry, such as the processing industries, like processing food, processing of tea, mining and quarrying of stone and gravel, construction and manufacturing, and 3) Tertiary industries, such as activity merchants and services such as wholesale and retail trade, transport, and postal activities, information and communications, finance and insurance, accommodations, eating and dining services. In one decade, many Japanese private sectors would like to
promote the “sixth industries” agriculture, forestry and fisheries as the primary industry, manufacturers as the secondary industry, and retailers as the tertiary industry are promoted comprehensively and integrally to create new added values using regional resources such as crops, food and food processing, and sales on products from agriculture production, the processing production and service activity. (Hiroshi Ehara, interviews on 16 May, 2014)

The promotion of product development and market cultivation is a key to revitalize rural areas through the close collaboration between the primary industry and Small and Medium sized Enterprise (SME), including food processing industries and lodging service industries, supported by the Act on Promotion of Business Activities by Collaboration between SME Operators and Operators of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, which came into effect in July 2008. It is expected to realize the revitalization of local areas by employment creation and income improvement by not only utilizing human resources completely and know-how in rural areas, but also through the broadening of multiple initiatives of collaboration among agricultural, commercial, and industrial sectors, which bring out originality and ingenuity. Regarding collaboration between agriculture and related industries, it is indispensable for the agricultural sector to link with various industries including, but not only, the food and restaurant industries and the tourism industry. The initiatives to promote the local consumption of local produce through collaboration with local shopping areas where an increase and continuing state of empty shops are nationwide issues have made progress. For example, a good case study of collaboration among agricultural, commercial, and industrial sectors through revitalization in local areas is Noshiro city, Akita Prefecture, which established the Holding Yu-ichi (evening market) by bringing agricultural products and processed food to an unused shop. A group of farmers holds Yu-ichi at this otherwise vacant shop in the local shopping area. Farmers bring and sell agricultural products and processed food by themselves. It has gained popularity among people on their way home from work and with housewives living nearby. The shop has a long line of customers. Sales have increased two-fold as compared with when they sold directly in front of the post office (MAFF, 2008, p. 42). The collaboration among agricultural, commercial, and industrial sectors is a new concept in Japan.

![Figure 2](image_url)  
**Figure 2** Significance of the collaboration among agricultural, commercial, and industrial sectors  

Creating employment in rural areas through agricultural employment programs is a way to initiate rural revitalization. Owing to the worldwide financial crisis, Japan’s economy is adversely affected and continuing to decline rapidly and is in a severe condition. Employment conditions are worsening rapidly; there is a decline in the number of job openings as compared to the applicant ratio. Due to the expectation of the labor demand in primary industry, the government is strongly promoting the support of job creation and other employment measures in order to advance employment numbers at a rapid pace.

In December 2008, MAFF established rural employment counseling counters. These consultation services are getting many inquiries. The total number of consultations and inquiries gathered at this
consultation service (and other similar consultation services in prefectural governments) rose by 22,656 from December 24, 2008 to April 15, 2009. The total number of newcomers recruited in agriculture, forestry, and fisheries through the consultation services from December 2008 to April 15, 2009 is 1,370. In the agricultural sector, the government launched the agricultural employment program, which provides support for agricultural corporations to undertake on-the-job training for motivated individuals who have incentive to work. There are 1,226 participants in training courses at 1,057 agricultural corporations under this project. In order to foster individuals who can be leaders contributing to the revitalization of rural areas, the government launched the project of “Inaka-de Hataraki-Tai.” This project provides practical training regarding the revitalization of rural areas to the people living in urban areas interested in resettlements. Local government is subsidizing this project. Agricultural corporations employ job applicants and implement practical training, with training costs approximately 97,000 yen / month, with a training period of 12 months or less.

2.3 The case of Mie Prefecture

Mie Prefecture is part of the Kansai region on the main island of Honshu. There are 7 districts and 29 municipalities. The capital is Tsu. Mie has a coastline that stretches 1,094.9 km (680.3 mi) and a 5,777.22 km² (2,230.30 sq mi) landmass, of which 64.8% is forested, 11.5% agriculture, 6% residential area, 3.8% roads, and 3.6% rivers. The remaining 10.3% remains unclassified. The total population of Mie is 1,820,324 persons (April 1, 2014)

The economy of Mie depends on the manufacturing industries, the seafood industries, and on traditional handicrafts, such as Iga Braid, Yokkaichi Banko Pottery, Suzuki Ink, Iga Pottery, and Ise Katagami. Northern Mie is home to a number of manufacturing industries, mainly transportation machinery manufacturing, such as Mitsubishi, Honda, and Isuzu, and heavy chemical industries and oil refineries. Due to the amount of industry, the GNP in northern Mie is higher than in other areas. In southern Mie (Nansei Area), seafood is the biggest industry, supplying dry fish, tuna, and pike. Southern Mie prefecture is economically poorer than northern Mie. Along with these industries, Mie also produces tea, beef, cultured pearls, and fruit, mainly mandarin oranges. Food production companies include Azuma foods.

The researcher selected Mie Prefecture due to many kinds of agricultural farm emerged in the rural areas and the idea has led to the revitalization of rural communities and its sustainable economic growth.

3. Iga no Sato Moku Moku Tezukuri Farm

Iga no Sato Moku Moku Tezukuri Farm is an agricultural theme park nicknamed “Moku-Moku.” Moku means wood in Japanese. Moku-Moku farm is situated in a rural area in Iga city, Mie Prefecture. Moku-Moku farm produces many varieties of food, but it is most well-known for its pork and beer. It is one of the largest farms in Mie and draws a decent number of tourists to its main farm in northern Iga. It also runs a number of buffet-style restaurants and shops.
The location of Iga city is in the mountains of western Mie, close to Kyoto and Shiga prefectures. As of September 2012, the city had an estimated population of 95,137 and a population density of 170 persons per km². The total area is 558.15 km². Iga developed in the Edo period under the Tokugawa Shogunate as the castle town of Iga Ueno Castle. Iga is known as the birthplace of the haiku poet Matsuo Basho and the home of the ninja Hattori Hanzo.

3.1 Development

Moku Moku Farm was established in 1983 by five pig farmers who raised “Iga–buta” (Iga pig). The company was not well known at the time. However, the farm change from just five pig farmers to what is now an agricultural producers’ cooperative. At first the thought was that having resources and good tasting food would make additional farmers can raise pigs and other animals for sale. Their profit margin is not large so that we can sell the animals at a low price. As time passed, they looked for a consortium to provide the meat and the processing for the business.

In 1987, the company established “the Moku Moku Ham Factory”, run by pig farmers in the Iga city community. In 1989, they started teaching the process of making hand-made sausages. In 1995, they opened “Moku Moku Tesukuri Farm” and start making local beer. In 2002, they opened a restaurant and by 2013 they had opened their 7th branch restaurant, in Abeno, Osaka Prefecture. They now have seven restaurants (two branches in Nagoya, two branches in Osaka, and three branches in Mie), four gift shop branches in Mie, and one branch in Tokyo.

The total area of the farm is 30 hectares (185 rai). On the site, there are four restaurants, cottages for overnight accommodation, a hot springs spa, educational classes to learn about farming, cooking, baking, and brewing beer, a petting zoo and pony rides, and gift shops selling products from the farm. One of the restaurants, the Tomato Café, has a tomato theme, with most if not all of the products being tomato based. They serve pasta, cake, ice cream, and other dishes, all using tomatoes.

Nowadays, the number of members (fan club members) of Moku Moku Farm is about 45,000 members, primarily Japanese who have made purchases from the farm and who give the farm information. Advertising is for website sales, the farm, the restaurants, and the park, all under the concept “food and farming”, “natural food”, “agriculture”, and “handmade”. 30% of the farm’s income comes from the park, with another 30% coming from website sales, and 40% from the restaurants. Income in 2012 was 5.1 billion yen.

Figure 4 Products of Farm
3.2 Management

Business management of the farm consists of seven areas: (1) Management of the farm (rice, vegetables, fruit, and Shiitake mushrooms), (2) Management of the agricultural and livestock processing plants (ham, sausages, local beer, bread, sweets, and bean curd), (3) Operation of the Shokuno learning center (*shokuno = food & agriculture), (4) Mail order & gift shop, (5) Direct sales shops, (6) Restaurants, and (7) Rent farms, which operate under five organizations, as follows;

1) Moku Moku Tezukuri Farm. Managing the farm in a self-sufficient manner, providing agricultural guidance to local farmers, overseeing the production of processing foods, beer, bread, sweets, and bean curd, leading professional workshops, and running the agricultural park (farming and Shokuno learning).
2) Agricultural Cooperation. “Moku Moku” manages mail orders, the online shop, and gift shops (four branches in Mie and one branch in Tokyo).
3) Iga no Sato Company Limited manages the restaurants (two branches in Nagoya, two Branches in Osaka, three branches in Mie).
4) Local Industrial Laboratory is the local industry consultant.
5) Hahatoko Company Limited administrates the restaurants’ funding and investments by its staff.

Figure 5 Products of Farm

These products are separated into three types: (1) Agricultural products, (2) Preserve or processing products, and (3) Primary production sections. The company wants to distribute these products to branches of the company or sales shops such as restaurants in Mie, Nagoya, Osaka, Shiga, and Tokyo, and through their web service.

Sales and processing production includes sausage, ham, beer, Japanese rice, Shiitake mushrooms, strawberries, dairy cows, sweet for the production of mochi, bread, and Tofu. All of these products are produced primarily from the agriculture of this area.

In the early days, when the business began, there was not much money available for advertising and promotion, so the way they let people know about their business was primarily through word of mouth. The director said:

“When the business started, we didn’t have money for advertising, so we just used story telling from customers to their friends. Usually middle age women, they like to relate some interesting experiences to their friends, you know, “word of mouth”.”
3.3 Agriculture Farm and Creative Tourism

UNESCO explained the definition of ‘Creative Tourism’ as one that emphasizes and includes greater access to culture or history (“fewer museums, more squares”), and involves doing something experientially, an authentic engagement in the real cultural life of the city.

“Creative Tourism” is considered to be a new generation of tourism. One participant described his perspective that the first generation was “beach tourism,” in which people come to a place for relaxation and leisure; the second was “cultural tourism,” oriented toward museums and cultural tours. “Creative Tourism” involves more interaction, in which the visitor has an educational, emotional, social, and participative interaction with the place, its living culture, and the people who live there. They feel like a citizen. This third generation requires that managers also evolve, recognizing the creativity within their city as a resource, and providing new opportunities to meet the evolving interests of tourists. (Unesdoc, 2002)

While creative tourism must be linked to culture, the particular cultural expressions will be unique to each place. For example, the group discussed low-rider cars as being a cultural expression of northern New Mexico, and tango dancing as being particular to Buenos Aires. (Unesdoc, 2002)

After significant conversation, the group adopted Santa Fe’s working definition of creative tourism: “Creative tourism is travel directed toward an engaged and authentic experience, with participative learning in the arts, heritage, or special character of a place, and it provides a connection with those who reside in this place and create this living culture.” (UNESCO, 2006)

From this meaning, Moku Moku Farm created various activities toward engagement in authentic experiences, with participative learning in art and culture, involvement in the processing and production of food, beer, bread, sweets, and bean curd, as instructed in professional workshops. In the Agricultural Park, customer can enjoy a variety of activities such as farming, Shokuno learning, a brewery tour for watching the process of making their local beer, strawberry picking (January - April), mushroom picking, a mini pig show, as well as the workshops for making sausages, bread, and pasta. There is also a hot spring facility at the farm. Additionally, there are approximately 100 special events in a year. Examples include: (1) Thong Thong Festival (Golden Week Festival), (2) Pig Festival: Attendance is around 10,000 customers, (3) Piglet activities, (4) Bonsai Festival: A private party for students and alumni of Waseda University, (5) Christmas Festival, and (6) Summer Camp: A weeklong festival for Moku Moku Farm fan club members.
Customers pay 500 yen to participate in activities and educational workshops. Activities can include early morning farm work (milking cows, feeding animals), harvesting fruits and vegetables, and classes on making different foods (bread, sausage, beer, seasonal items). All of these activities involve educational instruction related to life on the farm and the production of the food there, along with the enjoyment of the experience. The director said:

“The ordinary way is to have customers can harvest strawberries in 1:30 hours by themselves and that’s it. but here, we do it a different way. Our customers are educated in how to grow strawberries and the different kinds of strawberries. Our customers get a lot of knowledge, and then the customers can harvest by themselves. They learn how to use the machinery for beer production. Another example of the experience, it is an interesting story. When children see a brown cow, they ask, “If the cow is brown, why isn’t the milk brown? Why is the milk white?” This kind of education is important. This farm has idea to educate people, especially children. This is important. Another example of the importance of education: When we ask senior engineers, “Do you know how many udders a cow has?” Some of them answer 6, some answer 4. Senior engineers don’t know how many udders a cow has. This should be basic knowledge.”

The farm tries to practice the keys to creative tourism. However, there are many activities for managing the farm because at the beginning, the business was an association. Five farmers made up the group, with each member proposing a different activity for the farm. In this way, as customers visited the farm, there were different activities for them to take part in, allowing customers to return multiple times without doing the same thing over and over and thus getting bored (and therefore no longer coming to visit). With a variety of activities, customers can return and try new things each time, if they so choose.

![Image of farm activities](image.png)

**Figure 7** Learning Activities for their Customers

4. Success Factors

4.1 Farm products value-added

Moku Moku Farm was considering what could be added or what the value of their product was and would they be able to sell it. They agreed to put the emphasis on their “knowledge”, “reasoning”, and “making” as the theme of their farm. Their concept of putting new values on farming and agriculture was the key factor in their success. One item they chose was a novelty item produced for the birth of a grandchild. Rice is sealed into a small pillow as a keepsake for grandparents. On the front of the pillowcase is a photo of the newborn grandson or granddaughter for the grandparents as a gift.

Story telling is another way value can be added. The farm explains that when we look at an ordinary pig, it is a bit funny, but there is an explanation behind the status of a pig. It is believed that when
you rub a pig, it brings good luck in work and love. Of course, there are also souvenir shops and stores where products are sold directly.

Figure 8 Pillowcase seal newborn picture
Figure 9 Pig in Souvenir Shop

4.2 Community-based use

Moku Moku Farm makes good use of its community charm and characteristics in order to flourish as a community. Harmony between the producers and consumers coexist since both sides understand that learning and becoming aware of the importance of agriculture as a way of life and through giving and receiving new values of agriculture makes everyone happy and satisfied. The whole community works side by side. The employers themselves are also the owners of the farm, while the consumers get the experiences of the farming community through food and agriculture education (classes).

Moku Moku Farm has had two strategies since it opened: (1) The strategy in the big cities - Tokyo, Nagoya, and Osaka - is to inform the activities in the cities. The restaurants not only serve delicious food to their customers, they also act as advertising for the farm and the shops, where customers can go to purchase the farm’s products, and (2) The strategy in the rural areas, such as Iga city, is to address the situation of an aging population. Senior citizens prefer to eat fresh foods and traditional Japanese dishes, but supermarkets sell their products in big packages that are too much in quantity for the elderly, who often live alone. At Moku Moku Farm’s restaurants and shops, fresh food can be purchased in small amounts that are better suited to those people with smaller appetites or who live alone.

4.3 Green business

Moku Moku Farm does not just do business but also greatly contributes to protecting the environment, and at the same time makes good use of their resources for the growth of the whole community (cooperative). The farm makes efforts to be a green, environmentally sound business as follows:

1) Their shops sell their drinks in paper cups.
2) Customers also have the option of buying reusable cups to keep throughout the day and take home with them.
3) Their products are packaged very simply, in packaging that is useful.
4) The farm makes it’s own chopsticks to use with its products.
5) “Kuru Kuru Juice” is a juice they sell that customers make themselves at the shop, with the electricity needed to make juice coming from a human powered wheel.
6) Guest bungalows for accommodation include electricity meters for guests to keep track of how much electricity they are using, the idea being that if people can easily see how much electricity they use, they are likely to reduce their consumption.
7) Customers are encouraged to bring their own shopping bags. With each bag a customer brings, the farm gives the customer a token, for 10 yen, which the customer may put into a donation box. At the end of the year, the company collects the tokens and donates 10 yen to charity for each token.
The average year-end total is 1.5 million yen, which the farm donates to environmental organizations. Customers can also contribute money, which the farm will add to its donations. Customers are surveyed as to which organizations they would like the money donated to.

### 4.4 Cultural and Social Capital

![Ninja Show](http://www.centrair.jp/en/tourist-info/ninja.html)

Iga developed in the Edo period and is culturally significant as the birthplace of the haiku poet Matsuo Basho and the home of the ninja Hattori Hanzo. Local products from this area include Iga ceramics, or Igaware, wheat cookies, and the Ninja Castle – a museum housing Samurai, Tofu, and Higu artifacts. The farm uses this culture capital as an activity in order for customers to learn about the region. They have a traditional shop in front of Ueno Castle in the Japanese housing style, which they use to sell Bento boxes. The farm’s director has said:

> “The company asks to buy traditional housing from the farmer to sell in traditional Bento boxes. In this shop, the customer can eat the product in this housing, this very traditional housing. The customer may ask, “How can I buy smaller amounts of salad?” If you go to the supermarket, there is only the standard packaging that the supermarket provides, but in our shop, customers can purchase products in amounts that suit their needs.”

Moku Moku Farm has developed networking between farmers and the prefecture, the city, agricultural cooperatives, NGOs, resident associations, the Chamber of Commerce and Tourism Association, the Japan Agriculture association, and Mie University as social capital for supporting their business.

### 4.5 Local Government subsidies

The Japanese Ministry of Agriculture gives subsidies to build facilities for food processing. If the business meets the application criteria, they can receive subsidies for certain projects. Moku Moku Farm has employed former Ministry of Agriculture government staff and therefore has good connections and a good relationship with the Ministry of Agriculture. Total costs for company activities at the farm are six billion yen, of which two billion yen came from central and local government subsidies. The central government puts subsidies into the budget of the local government, which can then be given to local businesses that apply for the money. The subsidies can only be used for buildings and processing of food products and may not be used for accommodation facilities.

### 4.6 Unique Location

The farm is located close to Shiga prefecture, not far from Mie prefecture and easily accessible to the bigger cities of Osaka and Nagoya. These products are separated into three types: (1) Agricultural
products, (2) Preserve or processing products, and (3) Primary production sections. The company wants to distribute these products to branches of the company or sales shops, and through their web service. There are seven shops and restaurants. Three shops are in the cities - Tokyo, Nagoya, and Osaka - and there are four shops in Mie prefecture (Front of a Castle, Matsusaka city, Iga city and a department store along the motorway), where the farm is located. The farm’s idea is to build the relationships between the farm and its customers, so they have opened shops and restaurants in areas close enough to the farm that customers can visit the farm if they like. For this reason, they have not opened shops and restaurants in locations considered too far from the farm for their customers to be able to visit. Expanding to more distant areas is not currently in the plans for the future.

4.7 Farm Fan Club Membership

The number of members (fan club members) of Moku Moku Farm is about 45,000 members, primarily Japanese who have made purchases from the farm and who give the farm information. Advertising is for website sales, the farm, the restaurants, and the park. Fan club members help for advertising, so the way they let people know about their business was primarily by word of mouth.

![Figure 11 Activities in Farm](image)

4.8 Uniqueness of their products

Moku Moku Farm wants to differentiate their products from other, larger brands. Realizing that they could not compete with the large brands on existing products, Moku Moku Farm decided to find their own niche in the food and beverage market. Beer was one area where they could set themselves apart from the large corporations by brewing craft beers unique to their business that would not try to compete with the large breweries. They still brew beer in similar varieties as the large corporations, but with a different taste and signature style. The director quoted:

“We set up a point of the variation from the major brands. We will have weaknesses. Therefore, we don’t set up the same goals with the major products. We have to think about how to compete in beer. We know Asahi is a famous brand in Japan. We produce beer, so our taste goals must be different from Asahi. We try to produce a light beer, and of course the taste will be, of course, different from Asahi. We cannot win against Asahi. So, we produce a completely different beer. We try to find our own niche. The targets are also different from Asahi. For us, word of mouth is most important. We will not fight against Asahi.”
5. Conclusion

As a whole, Moku Moku Farm is far more than a farm; it is an experience and a very good place for learning, both for the younger and older generations. They do not just do business; they greatly contribute to the protection of the environment and at the same time make good use of their resources for the growth of the whole community (cooperative). The business itself is noteworthy in its efforts to revitalize the community through their new values in farming and agricultural practices while producing delicious and safe food. They see the importance of “knowledge” and “thinking” together with their customers. They understand the importance of employees and farmers engaging together for business, and they give high priority to the “spirit of cooperation,” which makes this farm both unique and sustainable.

(Go Ma.Karen Quilloy: 2012) The motto of Iga no Sato Moku Moku Tezukuri Farm is as follows:

- Agriculture to promote local economy
- Leading to maintain the agricultural culture
- Efforts to protect the natural environment
- Production of quality and safe foods
- Business to share the knowledge and experiences with the customers
- Work environment to cherish the richness of human minds
- Top priority of the cooperative spirit and business based on laws and democratic rules

The development of Moku Moku farm has become the new trend for community development to increase the per capita income and to revitalize a society in the rural community. All citizens can be proud and feel satisfied with their lifestyles in each of their respective communities. This case study confirms the hypothesis that globalization and local community can co-exist.

In my personal opinion, I feel the success of Moku Moku farm lies in its creative and innovative idea. The mixing of the innovation and methodology is one of a kind small business that can do well in a big market are not something toy see very often. Thus, in order to increase rural development goals that are the revitalization and per capita income, we must both promote local products and invite manufacturing companies to set up in rural areas as the case of Mie Prefecture in Japan, which is relevant to Thailand in cultural-based form. In consequence, the system can be simultaneously implemented to serve Thailand or iesthe other developing country in ASEAN.

6. References


**Interviewers**

1. Professor Dr. Hideharu Uemura, Japan College of Social Work, Tokyo, on May 7, 2014.
2. Professor Dr. Hiroshi Ehara, Mie University, on May 16, 2014.
3. Director of Moku Moku Farm, on May 29, 2014.
Does Deference Enable Elite Capture?  
Evidence from a World Bank Community-Based Project in Ghana

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Abstract
The contribution of ‘development brokers’ to the creation of elite capture is not well represented in the community development literature. We attempt to fill this gap by presenting findings from a doctoral research in Ghana on the World Bank’s Community-Based Rural Development Projects (CBRDP), implemented between 2005 and 2011. We present the findings of research from the Eastern Region of Ghana and document how a Traditional Chief inadvertently ‘captured’ a local school project that was to be maintained by an entire ‘community’. We found residents of the locality to be apathetic to the upkeep of the project, emanating mainly from their Traditional Chief’s ‘benevolent’ capture of the initiative. Through an attitude of deference to the Traditional Chief, relevant CBRDP officers were also found to have been biased in monitoring the project, resulting in its failure. The paper suggests that community participation and engagement is more important than co-opting elites to manage community-based programs.

Keywords: community-driven development, development, elite capture, traditional chiefs, Ghana

1. Introduction
The subject of ‘elite capture’ is emerging, albeit slowly, in community development literature, particularly those focused on sub-Saharan Africa and Asia Pacific regions. According to the World Bank ‘elites are actors who have disproportionate influence in the development process as a result of their superior social, political or economic status’ (World Bank, 2008: p.1). Other scholars have described them as the ‘educated’ in poor communities, who dedicate more time to local initiatives and with better connections with outsider and development agencies (Rao & Ibanez, 2003; Platteau & Gaspart, 2004). Some commentators also present ‘elites’ as being the ones who seem to take the most critical decisions on local projects and have the tendency to favour projects that may represent their own preferences rather than community preferences or by misusing the funds provided to the community (Bardhan, 2002; Labonne & Chase, 2007; Araujo et al., 2008). Portrayed variously as a ‘phenomenon’, a ‘concept’ or a ‘situation, ‘elite capture’ is believed to happen when ‘elites’ shape development processes according to their own priorities and/or appropriate development resources for their private gain (Platteau, 2004; World Bank, 2008; Dutta, 2009).

Although some scholars consider elite capture to be useful for facilitating local development in some contexts, a greater part of the literature appear to condemn it for having tendencies to breed corruption and undermine participatory development values (Stokes et al., 2013). While we validate the notion that the phenomenon is detrimental to community development and decentralisation, and should be guarded against, our point of departure is; 1) The seeming exoration of ‘development brokers’ from the factors and conditions that contribute to the creation and perpetuation elite capture; and 2) The apparent blaming of ‘only’ elites as perpetrators of the phenomenon. We draw on the ideas of Lewis and Mosse (2006) to define ‘development brokers’ as government bureaucracies, development practitioners and organisations involved in policies and activities that affect people-mainly the poor. As applied in this paper, the ‘elite’ refers to the Traditional Chief of Dabidabi from the Eastern Region, whom we encountered, during a doctoral research fieldwork in Ghana between August 2010 and March 2011.
2. Objectives
This research explores the following points:
1. To show that development brokers do patronize elites, particularly, in contexts where deference to socio-cultural institutions, like Chieftaincy, is prevalent.
2. To show that local people do not feel they have a responsibility to contribute to developing their communities as long as elites are in-control.
3. Provide new and empirical literature for community-development practitioners on the factors and conditions that create elite capture
4. To show that ‘co-opting’ elites by development brokers further perpetuates elite capture.

3. Method
The data presented in the paper was extracted from a PhD dissertation (Adusei-Asante, 2013). The doctoral study drew on a seven months ethnographic fieldwork in Ghana between August 2010 and March 2011 to examine the issues that influenced the implementation and outcomes of Ghana’s Community-Based Rural Development Projects (CBRDP). The thesis critically examined international development aid, specifically the manner in which decentralisation theories and concepts such as ‘empowerment’ and ‘community’ influence its community-based program outcomes.

The research that informed the PhD thesis and this paper was conducted in nine localities from the Eastern, Greater Accra and Eastern Regions of Ghana. The current paper is based on a case study of Dabidabi1 in the Eastern Region, which received a three-classroom block school under the CBRDP to boost education in the locality. The case study formed one of five case studies in the thesis proper. The data was generated from a review of relevant literature, participant-observation (ethnography), interviews and focus group discussion with Traditional Chiefs, residents of CBRDP beneficiary localities and local government officials. Respondents were purposively sampled and had to reside in localities in which the projects were delivered and possess intimate knowledge of its implementation. The semi-structured interview questions sought information, for example as to how and why Dabidabi’s school project was selected, implemented and the issues affecting the maintenance of the classrooms. Edith Cowan University’s Ethics Committee granted ethics approval in 2010. The entire data was analysed manually, and the themes that emerged on elite capture are presented in this paper.

4. Literature review
‘Elite capture’ is an accepted concept applied mainly in political economy (Putnam, 1976 & 1977; Bottomore, 1993; Stokes et al., 2013). However, its use in community studies and practise is a recent development. Elite capture emerged as a major shortcoming and threat to the effectiveness of Community-Driven Development (CDD) programs2, an approach believed to give control over planning decisions and investment resources for development projects to community groups (Dongier et al., 2003; Mansuri & Rao, 2004; World Bank, 2012).

CDD programs became popular from 2000, endorsed by the World Bank as a credible alternative to top-down development policies, which were prevalent in the 1980s (see Chambers, 1983; Escobar, 1995). According to Binswanger-Mkhize et al. (2010), between 2001 and 2008, CDD funding was almost USD 2 billion annually and reached USD 7.8 billion in 2010 alone (Mansuri & Rao, 2012). An Independent Evaluation Group review of sixty-two country assistance strategies found that CDD operations formed an integral part of the World Bank’s strategy in more than seventy-four per cent of relevant countries (Binswanger-Mkhize et al., 2010). In 2008, the International Development Association’s (IDA) lending for CDD-related programs averaged seventeen percent of its total lending (World Bank 2010), while the number of CDD programs active at the IDA for the 2007–2009 period averaged over seventy-two. A recent report shows that the World Bank is implementing nearly four hundred CDD projects, worth USD 30 billion, in ninety-four countries (Wong 2012).

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1 For ethical reasons the region and names of the town where the fieldwork happened and Traditional Chief have been de-identified.
2 While CDD programs can be implemented in different forms (such as Ghana’s CBRDP and Sierra Leone’s 2003 National Rural Infrastructure Program) they draw on the fundamental principle of giving control to communities.
Notwithstanding its popularity, CDD has been impacted by many shortcomings, one being elite capture (Baird et al., 2009; Platteau, 2009; Labonne & Chase, 2007). As earlier indicated, elite capture is believed to transpire when elites, in most cases, few politically and/or economically powerful people, manipulate local decision-making and agenda to their personal benefits (Dutta 2009; Wong 2010; Platteau 2009). As Duchoslav (2013: p.7) observed:

‘The idea that CDD projects are prone to elite capture may seem somewhat counterintuitive. By allowing the intended beneficiaries to play an active role in the management of the projects, the very design of participatory development is supposed to limit the corruption often associated with top-down approaches to development.’

Unequal power relation at the local level underpins most cases of elite domination. According to Platteau (2004) elites can capture initiatives meant to benefit an entire community because of their: (1) privileged access to economic resources, (2) asymmetrical social positions, (3) varying levels of knowledge of political protocols, and (4) different education attainment. Elites also perpetuate their ‘power’ and domination through land holding, family networks, employment status, wealth, political and religious affiliation, personal history and personality (Wong, 2010; Dasgupta & Beard, 2007; Stokes et al., 2013).

Although scholars disagree on whether the elite capture of community-based projects is an exception or a generality, the literature seems to favour the latter. This is particularly evident in developing countries, where non-government organisations, lineage-based social systems, politico-cultural institutions (such as Chieftaincy) and corruption appear to be prevalent. Despite this, most scholars agree that elite capture is not easy to investigate (Hartman & Crawford, 2008; Olken, 2007; Ahmad & Brosio, 2009; Platteau, 2009).

Two major attempts to reduce and/or eliminate elite capture have been identified in the literature: ‘counter-elite’ and ‘co-opt’ elites approaches. Counter elite approach excludes elites from community-based projects, while the latter includes them (Rao & Ibanez, 2005; Labonne & Chase, 2009; Wong, 2010; Duchoslav, 2013). The notion of co-opting elites in community-based projects is rooted in Platteau’s (2004) suggestion, and confirmed by other scholars (Mansuri and Rao 2004; Wong 2010) that there are ‘benevolent elites’ who, despite their wealth and influence, want to serve their communities out of a sense of duty.

Sam Wong (2010) discusses the results of two case studies in which elites were included and excluded from community-based projects respectively. The author avers that elites can be absorbed and challenged in the same project at the same time, as suppressing their authority in managing community-based projects does not necessarily undermine their influence. Wong argues further that co-opting elites reinforces power inequalities and exacerbates powerlessness of the poor. Using data from randomised controlled trial in rural Sierra Leone, Duchoslav (2013) also concluded that excluding elites from managing community-based projects does not have any effect on their eventual success.

Given the paradox above, a growing body of literature has been encouraging development brokers to champion and adopt measures to eliminate and/or at least reduce elite capture of community projects (Platteau & Gaspart, 2003; D’Exelle & Riedl, 2008; Dutta, 2009; World Bank, 2012). Such suggestions are exemplified by Wong’s (2010, p.14) argument that:

‘NGOs and other development agencies should maintain their high power sensitivity at the post-implementation stage of the projects. They should continuously provide support to local people in order to monitor the influence of the elites over the development processes.’

Alatas et al. (2013, p.30) also commented that:

‘[Development brokers] …should take seriously the possibility that improving the skills of local leaders through training them and challenging them to perform by giving them important responsibilities may contribute more to welfare than cutting them out of the whole process to avoid capture…’
While their role in suppressing elite capture is significant the seeming exoneration of development brokers from factors that create elite capture is inconsistent with our findings from Dabidabi in the Eastern Region of Ghana. As discussed below, we present a case study that shows the complicity and impact of development brokers' patronage of a Traditional Chief who essentially captured the World Bank’s CBRDP in his town.

5. The World Bank’s community-based rural development projects in Ghana

The World Bank’s Community-based rural development projects (CBRDP) was designed as a type of Community-Driven Development (CDD) program. CDD programs are designed to do what the term implies, to be driven by the community, implying community ownership and management of projects. The project was principally aimed at contributing to the empowerment of rural population while strengthening the country’s decentralisation system (CBRDP Implementation Manual 2006). Funded with loan facilities from the World Bank’s International Development Association and the Agence Francaise Development, the CBRDP served as one of the vehicles for the implementation of Ghana’s Poverty Reduction Strategy (Yaron, 2008; Binswanger-Mkhize et al., 2010).

To facilitate implementation, the CBRDP officials divided the country into four Zones; the Eastern Region (the focus of this paper), Eastern and Greater Accra regions fell into Zone IV. Each Zone had a Zonal Head and other staff to provide administrative and coordinating support to the project. The CBRDP had five stages of implementation: (1) Training of Area Councillors, (2) Preparation of Community Action Plans, (3) Approval of Action Plans, (4) Implementation, and (5) Monitoring and Evaluation. Ghana’s Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development and Municipal/District Assemblies facilitated the project’s implementation processes, together with the CBRDP Headquarters. It is important to mention here that, officially, these two bodies selected the beneficiary districts and municipalities, whereas localities within the districts had to apply for aid. However, there is some evidence to suggest that some localities were handpicked because of their political affiliations with the government of the day or as a so-called emergency response to pressing local needs (Adusei-Asante, 2013).

Localities that wished to benefit from the CBRDP took part in several rounds of training, where they were tutored to prepare community action plans, sometimes as a mere formality. A CBRDP action plan had to capture the respective locality’s district/municipal development blueprint and justify the importance of the project. It also needed to be explicit about the prospective project implementation and procurement plans, while ensuring that the project selected formed part of the CBRDP options.

The CBRDP secretariat received, reviewed and approved the action plans, the beneficiary locality received seed money of GHC15,000 in three equal instalments. The expectations were that District Assemblies would contribute ten per cent of the project sum while the beneficiary localities contributed labour and/or offered hired services at a reduced market rate. In some of the localities researched, the District Assembly funds never came, while others also suffered the ‘usual’ financial bureaucratic delays. In such circumstances, ‘influential’ local people pre–financed the projects.

Aside from this development being a recipe for elite capture, the CBRDP Headquarters’ seeming lack of attention to the CBRDP processes at the grassroots level, together with the nepotistic political climate of the day, appeared to have offered other loopholes for elites to capture the resources around the CBRDP. For example, we discovered through interviews that the CBRDP Headquarters seemed to have paid little attention to the processes of developing action plans at the grassroots level as prescribed. Adusei-A (2013) argues that the Secretariat, in some instances, cowered to political pressures from the government of the day by allocating projects to unqualified localities. As a result, he contends further that some of the CBRDPs were in a deplorable condition because some residents of beneficiary localities did not approve of them as being the most vital need in their respective localities at the time. It is within this context that one has to appreciate how some Traditional Chiefs benefitted from the CBRDPs.

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4 Approximately USD 10,000 at the time.
6. Traditional Chiefs in Ghana

Traditional Chiefs are a class of elites in most West African nations. Regarded as the custodians of the land, Traditional Chiefs are respected and influential in Ghana. Chiefs are recognised by Article 246 of Ghana’s Constitution, which restricts the State from interfering in their affairs. Traditional Chiefs also hold thirty percent of the seats of District Assemblies, while they receive nearly twenty–five percent of the revenue from Stool Lands (Donkor, 2005; Ahwoi, 2010). In a 2005 survey conducted in Greater Accra, over fifty per cent of the over a thousand respondents considered Traditional Chiefs to be more powerful than Members of Parliament (Knierzinger, 2011).

Traditional Chiefs are not just custodians of culture, but also of spaces with well–delineated boundaries. As a result, they wield political influence at the local and national levels–aside from the cultural legitimacy they enjoy. As a matter of fact, many Traditional Chiefs, unlike the past, are now acquiring formal education, with some setting up foundations for improving education, healthcare and environmental sensitisation in their respective traditional areas (Knierzinger, 2011; Sackey, 2012). Culturally, the more developments a Chief champions in his locality, the greater respect he commands (Abotchie, 2006; Manboah–Rockson, 2007). Consequently, Traditional Chiefs in Ghana do regard initiating developments in their localities as both an obligation and a means to maintain their acceptability.

Most Ghanaian Chiefs also consider it as a right to be consulted and involved in local development projects, and would resist any attempt to sideline them. We provide evidence to this effect elsewhere (see Adusei-A & Hancock, 2012). Likewise, using examples from Sierra Leone, Arcand & Bassole 2007, confirm this assertion when they discuss the role played by Traditional Chiefs in determining which villages were eligible for the World Bank’s National Rural Infrastructure Program in the country in 2003.

Against this background, we proceed with a discussion of the case study below from the Eastern Region of Ghana, which shows the role a Traditional Chief played in attempting to ensure that his locality benefitted from the CBRDP. The implications of the tacit and/or open patronage of the CBRDP Headquarters’ (as ‘development brokers’) of this ‘benevolent elite’ on the project are also presented. The case study presents as a cautionary tale for other development projects that are community–driven.

7. Case study: Dabidabi, Eastern Region, Ghana

Dabidabi is an old, but relatively small town in Eastern Region of Ghana. The Ewe ethnic group inhabit Dabidabi, many of whom are farmers, and a small herdsmen population, who hail from the northern parts of the country. At the time of data collection, the population was almost a thousand. As of the time of fieldwork, the inhabitants of Dabidabi had neither a pharmaceutical shop nor a health facility. Until recently, the entire population relied on surface water and hand–dug wells for their water needs (Dabidabi Area Council Action Plan 2006–2009).

Dabidabi received a three–classroom school block under the CBRDP. Before this time, pupils in the town had to walk four kilometres to school at Gorbeh, which inhibited attendance and exacerbated attrition levels. Attempts had been made by the leaders of the town to establish a school in tents and under trees, but parents would usually avoid the school and still send their children to Gorbeh, as the local ‘tent’ school lacked teachers and could not function anytime it rained. According to the Assembly Member of Dabidabi, the fact that the children travelled long distances to school became a disincentive for school attendance. It was under these circumstances that the Traditional Chief of the town, Nana Tagboto (Nana) lobbied for a primary school, eventually under the CBRDP.

In an interview, Nana revealed that he wrote the majority of the school project’s action plan, which was a prerequisite to benefit from the CBRDP. Asked if he followed the participatory processes required by the CBRDP principles in developing the action plan, he mentioned that his people trusted his
judgement and that he only told them in a meeting of his decisions to apply for a school instead of other development projects in the town. Nana explained further that the CBRDP National Managers admired his persistence and commitment to advocating for development for his people and rewarded him with the primary school, which he considered as one of his greatest achievements as the Chief of Dabidabi. In fact, some officials in the CBRDP National Headquarters office often referred to Nana as one of CBRDP Zone IV success stories.

Meanwhile, before the CBRDP was implemented, Nana had initiated and facilitated the construction of public toilet facilities, pipe–borne water and the presence of electricity in Dabidabi under different funding schemes. Even so, because the Dabidabi primary school project was supposed to be ‘driven’ by the community, we were curious to understand the contribution of the local people to the project. The findings were intriguing.

When Dabidabi was selected, Nana Tagboto requested that the project is implemented under the Rapid Response Initiative under the CBRDP. As a result, the school project had to be completed within a hundred days before the seed money of GHC15,000 would be disbursed. The project’s seed money, which was expunged in just over three months, could only fund a three–classroom block and one veranda. As a result, Nana pre–financed the entire project and also offered to sponsor the construction of an additional veranda, which the school critically needed.

When the project was completed, Nana bought books, furniture and other educational materials for the school and paid the salaries of the teachers for over two years until the Ghana Education Service adopted the school. Moreover, because the three classrooms were limited in size and quality, Nana went ahead to construct two more pavilion structures to cater for the upper primary classes. Asked why he invested in the school so much, he would always say: “I believe in education”. The Assembly Member of the town confirmed the influence of the Nana, when he admitted that: ‘I have not done much for them because Nana is influential and is able to lobby the powerful people in government to solve the problems in the locality.’

Notwithstanding the benevolence and influence of Nana at the time of fieldwork, the school had many challenges, which were beyond the resources of Nana and revealed the consequences of community–based projects that do not have the support of the majority of the people for whom they were intended. A normal primary school in Ghana has ten classrooms (kindergarten to primary six). However, the Dabidabi School had only five classrooms, three of which were constructed under the CBRDP and the two pavilion structures constructed under the auspices of Nana. Under the circumstances, at the time of collecting the data, the teachers merged some of the classes as follows: (1) Kindergarten & KG One, (2) KG Two & Nursery, (3) Class One, (4) Classes Two & Three, and (5) Classes Four & Five. The situation meant that the pupils followed syllabi not appropriate for their levels of education. Additionally, the furniture available to the pupils was so limited that some of the pupils were required to sit on the floor during class sessions. While Nana was doing his best to get the school running, it lacked many crucial resources a mainstream school should have: textbooks, toys, writing materials, and other educational aids.

Our interviews with some of the teachers revealed a sense frustration. Their concern was that the paucity of facilities was retarding the progress of the children. A female teacher remarked:

‘Some of the children in Primary Four should be writing their names by now, but they can’t. Even the Primary Five pupils have problems with reading and solving simple arithmetic problems ... it is so sad. Some of the children come to school virtually empty–handed, without even a pencil. There have been instances that we have tried to help with our own monies, but we can’t do that always. I have only one textbook for the Classes Three and Four and had to photocopy the text for the entire class out of my own pocket.’

Another female teacher explained that:

‘When I want to teach them about computers, I have to walk all the pupils to Nana Tagboto’s office because he is the only one who has the machine in this locality. It’s hard to explain to these children the difference between a computer mouse and the animal mouse. We lack so many basic learning materials. For instance, if I want to teach them about geography, I use an orange because we don’t have a globe. We love our jobs as teachers, but working in these conditions is too frustrating.’
Also, owing to the limited number of classrooms, pupils who completed Primary Five at Dabidabi Primary School had to travel on foot to Gorbeh to continue their Primary Six and Junior High School (JHS) education respectively, the very reason Nana had requested for a school to be brought to his town in the first place.

Aside from the lack of educational resources, the school had no urinal and toilet facilities. The teachers had the option of either using the public facility in the town, Nana’s private facility or the bush — to which most of the pupils had resorted. The female teachers and pupils found the situation very inconvenient. While the teachers commended Nana for his efforts, they were not enough to sustain a community-based project, and wondered why the local people were not offering the needed support that was a design pre-requisite for the project to succeed.

The data pointed to a two-fold problem with the Dabidabi CBRDP. First, the facilitators and implementers of the CBRDP appeared to have focused on Nana, instead of the entire residential population. As pointed out earlier, the project was given to Dabidabi, partly because of the influence of Nana. As a result, the CBRDP Secretariat appears to have relied on the Chief during the implementation stages, rather than working in collaboration with the Dabidabi ‘community’, which would have garnered far more resources, labour and goodwill.

Officials at the CBRDP Headquarters we interviewed mentioned that Nana was capable of managing the project, as custodian of the landed properties of Dabidabi traditional area. Given this notion, relevant officials seemed satisfied with the Dabidabi project, as one mentioned that, ‘We have a lot of respect for Nana, and trust him to involve his people in developing and maintaining the project…He is doing well and has become of our great success stories’.

They officially never visited Dabidabi, and many appeared to have paid little attention to the Dabidabi school project, despite the fact that it needed to be monitored for the sake of the community it was supposed to serve. They considered Nana ‘elite’ enough to be in-charge.

Because Traditional Chiefs are culturally expected to initiate and provide leadership for the maintenance of local development projects in Ghana, many of the Dabidabi residents we interviewed appeared not to care about the school’s welfare. Although, many of them indicated that they took part in the communal labour during the building of the school, they considered it as a normal routine in the locality and tended to regard Nana as the one who had the responsibility of maintaining the school. Interestingly, some of the residents thought that the project was Nana’s initiative, as they claimed that the CBRDP officials never came to the town to explain the process to them. Others maintained that Nana was not categorical about the project being externally funded, and suspected he had benefitted financially from the project.

As a result of the erroneous impression created of the project as being one of the ‘usual’ initiatives of Nana, many of the residents saw nothing wrong with not contributing any money to buy books or educational materials for the school, as well as time and labour to maintain and expand the school when required and the critical issue of hygiene remained. The general impression gathered through the interviews and questionnaires was that Nana kept all the funds of the town (from the sale of traditional lands) which they expected him to use to develop the school. While some conceded that it was the duty of the entire locality to seek welfare for the school, the residents’ perceived the maintenance of the school as the duty of the Chief, and by implication they expected him to manage the project. Thus, many respondents argued that Nana had no right to request funds from the residents to run the school. A woman, who had lived in the locality for over twenty years, remarked:

‘The school is for all of us. However, as a traditional town, we also have proceeds from the sale of stool lands and the... stone quarry ... Nana Tagboto cannot levy anyone to pay anything towards the school...there is money to take care of the school.’

Asked why the local people have left the entire school’s burden on him, Nana said out of frustration:

‘[Some] of my people don’t have foresight nor appreciate the value of education … they feel it’s my responsibility to meet every need of the town and school. Although I’m culturally the head of the town, I shoulder all its needs.’

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In the midst of the challenges, Nana appeared to be uncomfortable with seeking support from the CBRDP Headquarters. He seemed to regard such a move as a failure on his part and preferred to portray to the officials, who rarely visited the project, that it was being well-maintained. Incessant calls on relevant officials to visit the school to ascertain challenges facing the project were ignored.

The other findings related to poverty. Many of Dabidabi appeared to be economically poor and therefore, lacked the financial resources to support the project. As of the time of fieldwork, Dabidabi did not offer any jobs to its citizens. Many of them were not engaged in profitable economic activities, aside from subsistence farming. Thus, in reality, most of the local people appeared to lack the means to contribute any meaningful sums of money towards the project’s upkeep. For example, 70% of the respondents surveyed in Dabidabi indicated being unemployed. Tellingly, the researchers found during numerous visits to Dabidabi that some of the local people depended on Nana for income. Being poor, the people of Dabidabi relinquished the maintenance of the school to Nana, although many of them claimed to be a part of the ‘community’. This finding is consistent with Botchway (2001) observation during the implementation of a Canadian water project in the northern parts of Ghana, where the locality lacked the resources to maintain it.

8. Conclusion
The notion that development aid should be driven from the communities it is designed to serve is a commonly accepted ‘wisdom’ in much literature on the topic. In theory, it would seem a simple process to deliver aid to the poor in Ghana, for example, and at the same time include communities who would be positively affected by it. We found that, based on one case study alone, that this notion is flawed and too easily ignored, simply by the process of elite capture. We studied the World Bank’s Community-Based Rural Development Projects (CBRDP), implemented in Ghana between 2005 and 2011. By focusing on only one region in which the project was deployed we found clear evidence of the ways in which elite capture negatively impacts on community-based project outcomes. One Traditional Chief, in this case, was the focus of the displacement of the project’s aims and objectives. While he was acting in good faith, we found that this undermined the sustainability of the project, because the community and relevant CBRDP national officials assumed that the project would be managed and maintained by this elite and as a result successfully serve the community. In fact the opposite resulted, as in elite capture, the community distanced themselves from the machinations of the project and in turn failed to provide what was intended, which was adequate classrooms and associated facilities. Elite capture in our paper was a simple process to observe and in turn very easy to explain. The focus of this paper, a Traditional Chief, who all stakeholders, officials and the community relied upon, and ‘traditionally endowed’ with such reliance, was unable to motivate community-based support for the community-based project and this in turn led to apathy and a lack of sustainable input at the grassroots level. As a result, although a school was built, it was not of adequate quality, had few amenities, no toilets, lacked appropriate books, furniture and was dysfunctional.

The policy implications from our research are clear. Community-based programs should not be implemented based on assumptions that traditional leaders or chiefs should be the focal point for aid and associated project development and in some cases funding. Policy-makers need to make concerted efforts to avoid elite capture by monitoring projects more rigorously to ensure that the community that is the target of development aid actually feels like they are part of the solution and not simply assume that a local leader will take care of everything. Simple policy solutions should focus on the community apathy we observed as well as the assumptive indifference of CBRDP officials and the embedded and legal position of a Traditional Chief in Ghana, a position and process that warrants further attention.

Our study has also underscored the need to apply research methods (such as ethnography) to compliment relevant quantitative instruments to explore how aid-funded projects work on the ground. The use of ethnography enabled the researchers to uncover subtle cultural issues that plague international development programs, which in our view, are unlikely to be unearthed by program evaluation models that rely solely on quantitative methods.
9. References


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Elements that Influence Celebrity Image Building in the Entertainment Sector of Thailand

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Abstract
This study deals with elements of building the image of celebrities working in the entertainment sector of Thailand. The research was done through employing both qualitative and survey-based/quantitative data accumulation using: 1) In-depth interviews with celebrities, persons related to celebrities, and academics; 2) Group interviews with celebrities’ fan clubs; and 3) Opinion surveys of a sample of Thai citizens. When analyzing the data collected, it can be established that factors that have the greatest impact on the image-creation and reputation of celebrities in the entertainment industry of Thailand are related to: sales channels, communication and marketing, operations, and character/personality. Secondary factors include: artist management staff, pricing, activities for society, and management executives. Finally, additional factors are: remuneration, fan base, and artistic work.

Keywords: celebrity image, image building, entertainment sector

1. Introduction
Image is something that is developed in the hearts of the public towards something or someone referred to as “subjective knowledge” and it is composed of reality, values that we develop ourselves whereby individuals collect information through subjective knowledge related to various things that they are surrounded by what they experience, what they have faith in, and believe to be true (Rungrat Chaisamret, mor por por). Creating the right image is an essential thing that must be done, because it is sustainable marketing, especially in the entertainment industry where there is a high level of competition and a swift and ever increasing growth in value (Thai Journalists Association, 2014). Furthermore Price Waterhouse Coopers and Idate (2012) revealed information that from 1998 to 2010 revenue from the entertainment industry worldwide grew from USD$ 449 billion to USD$ 745 billion which is the reason that many people aspire to a career in entertainment and attempt to find ways to find work in this industry, and once they achieve this they usually want to maintain their popularity for as long as possible whereby different people have different ways of doing this whether it be through developing their abilities in order to create acceptance, or improving their appearance and physique. But, in more than a few cases people employ the method of creating a buzz in the media for the purpose of creating a memorable image of themselves whereas the image of celebrities that is presented to the public is something that easily impacts on society as a whole in profound ways because famous people are considered role models to the youth in this day and age, who when often displaying certain forms of behavior can influence trends and public perception of what is to be considered normal and what behaviors that are appropriate to imitate. This creates certain sets of values. If they are good and appropriate, those values produce positive effects; and conversely, if they are not that good, the impact is that when the public is fed with this kind of information often, they become accustomed to it, and start to perceive it as a normal doing, since even performers that many label as their role models also behave themselves this way. These things can bring about change that has a negative impact on society, for example when celebrities change partners often.

Based on the information presented above, we may conclude that popularity and image run parallel to each other, because building image is essential to a career in entertainment. Whereas we can see that in the past very few performers are able to produce creative work and an image that is positive on a consistent basis, thus in order for us to learn the principles of acceptable behavior for performers, it is highly necessary to study the essentials or elements that comprise building an image for celebrities in the entertainment industry, and specifically the process for creating an image for celebrities in Thailand’s entertainment industry.
2. Literature Review

2.1 Image

Image building must be coupled with public relations. This is crucially necessary for the marketing and advertising business. Image building is first generated in one’s mind where one gradually creates an image based on reality and personal evaluation. Over the time, this becomes a reality of awareness that consists of model or construct object, believable object, static and realizable object, clear visual and materialized object, ease of understanding object, and fact and expectation. In general, one can divide image into ten (10) categories which are: a) overlapping image; b) present image; c) mirror image; d) pleasant image; e) ultimate image; f) correct and incorrect image; g) goods and services image; h) brand image; i) organization image; and j) institution image (Boulding, 1975). Each type of image will have different characteristics based on the characteristics of holistic figures and importance of elements. The image of a person in relation to any topic differs according to event and environment, communication channel, personal element, and awareness and impression. Sometimes, image building must be well planned in order to create a good impression to one’s audience (Pongthep Worakijphokatorn, 1994). The elements of an image building plan should identify target groups, the objectives behind the plans, communication strategies or communication tools, media strategies and activities, information presentation strategies, and image assessment and evaluation methods (Rungrat Chaisamrej, N.A.). Image building methods must consist of: image scope planning, permanent image promotion and protection, and image improvement and development. Good image building must cover several areas: executive image, teamwork image, product and service image, process image, social activity image, artifact image, organization culture image, and working environment image (Duangporn Kumnoonwat and Wasna Jansawang, 1993). Expression behavior factors, honesty factors, participation factors, service factors, and public relations factors are important to the image building of a person or organization (Rungrat Chaisamrej, N.A.)

2.2 Concept and Theory in Image Building

2.2.1 Self-image Theory

Self-image theory is personality, ability, or expression which affects the interpretation of personality and potential by the audience (Putuchon Buddawang, 2010)

1. Actual self is the real character of a person, as in the character of a person in reality which that person may or may not be aware of.
2. Ideal self is the ideal character which a person cannot have in the present.

The self-image or personality of a person consists of his/her actual and ideal character depending on personal holistic experience, environment, and rationale in reality. If the person’s experience is unable to adjust to his/her environment and be rational in reality, this can lead to emotional, mental, and personality problems. But if the person’s experience can adjust to the environment and be rational in reality, he/she in in good mental health and has the potential to develop real person realization.

2.2.2 Kevin Lane Keller’s Image Building Concept Theory

Kevin Lane Keller (1998) stated that image is an important element in the success or failure of an organization because image affects the decisions of consumers. If an organization has a good image, consumers will support it which will lead to the success of the organization. But if the organization has a bad image, consumers will not support it which leads to the failure of the organization. The elements of good image building are shown in the following figure:
2.2.3 Gregory and Wiechmann’s Image Building Concept Theory

Figure 1  Concept in Image Building [Source: Kevin Lane Keller (1998)]

Gregory and Wiechmann (1991) stated that in basic work, “knowing us/knowing them” is crucially necessary to image development. “Knowing us” is acknowledging all related matters in one’s firm in order to define the present situation of the organization. “Knowing them” is important in creating an image because it will provide information regarding the demands of others or consumers. If we acquire information regarding consumer demand, we will be able to satisfy those demands accurately. Gregory and Wiechmann summarized organization image building as follows (Information and Public Relation Office, Heath Service Support Department, 2012):

1) Realization of target group demand
2) Specifying clear direction towards image building targets
3) Knowing our image and expected image
4) Knowing what we are doing and having a clear role
5) Employing creativity to satisfy target groups as much as possible
6) Having consistency, regular image building
7) Employing public relations to communicate real capabilities and regularly adjust target groups’ understanding through true information to counteract rumors

2.2.4 Brenda Bence’s Personal Branding Concept Theory

The “image building under personal branding” concept of Brenda Bence discussed the expression of character and personalization of actions to the public so that the public develops a memorable impression and visualization of the performer that conforms to that. It could be compared with the self-selling of celebrities to make others aware of their personality and character so that they (referred in Natawat Wongwilasnurak, 2010):

1) Are well known and memorable
2) Increase their personal value
3) Make themselves outstanding compared to others
4) Make themselves professional

2.3 Celebrity

According to the marketing definition of “celebrity” or “celebrity endorser”, a celebrity is a person who is known by his/her popularity (Boorstin, 1972) while a celebrity endorser is a person who is accepted by the public and accepted and known in society, such as actors/actresses, athletes, etc. who are presented in advertising for the benefit of companies who employ that celebrity (Mc Cracken, 1989).
Although this marketing definition of “celebrity” is a general clause, in fact, not all celebrities under this definition utilize their fame for commercial benefit in all respects such as employing their celebrity status to their advantage through being attractive characters in advertising campaigns. In order to do so, celebrities must have specific characteristics that impress the consumer or be able to employ their celebrity status to benefit the credibility of products or services. They must be trustworthy people to create credibility for companies’ products or services.

Nowadays, being a great person does not always mean he or she is a hero. Anybody could be built up to be a hero to satisfy human need and would not be considered a great person anymore. He/she would be a celebrity instead. Thus, the celebrity hero image is deteriorated by famous persons in their public images only.

In general, an actor’s image cannot be generated solely by public relations or marketing promotion. There are several important elements involved in creating image such as:

1) Appropriate personal character is the most important element in building image because it is the primary thing that evokes the feelings of most people in their first impressions which in turn more or less affects perception and appreciation. One must portray trustworthiness expressed through character, appropriate dress, speech which employs speaking tactics and action to persuade people through smooth methods and technique, being unbiased, honest, brave, cautious, responsible, and diligent. Moreover, most importantly, one must always be creative and smart, especially in work related to emotional or highly sensitive expression.

2) Planning and specifying the scope of image to be projected into regular people’s minds. First of all, we must acknowledge the status of the actor/actress, his/her standpoint and what direction to take to process the desired direction of image or, in other words, how we want people to feel or react to the actor/actress.

2.4 Related Research

Sasitorn Nguanphan (2013) said that “social activities are an important element in building image”, Jirathip Thongsuk (2006) said that “activities are the political image building process of senators”, and Supaporn Suthamkosol (2004) said that “participation in political activities and social activities for the public is image building that creates acceptance and trust among citizens”. Compensation is a factor that indicates fame and popularity in people’s minds. Operations prove the importance of being responsible and punctual in work. Good management influences the image of celebrities. An operation plan should be prepared in compliance with Sasitorn Nguanphan (2013) who said that “a business operation plan is an important element of image building”. The team of, or those people who work close to celebrities, are found to affect the image of the celebrities. Employees, team members, and supporters should have good human relations skills, be responsible, be punctual, and be friendly. This complies with what Sasitorn Nguanphan (2013) said that “building employee image is an important element of an organization” and what Aroon Narumitrlert (2006) said that “the quality control of teamwork members is an important element in the image building of members of parliament”. Personality is an important element of being a celebrity, especially appearance. This complies with Aroon Narumitrlert (2006) who said that “a clear specification of personality influences the good image of celebrities such as Abhisith Vejajeewa”, and the statement of Soonthorn Kamyou (2009) that “the personality of Northern females effects others’ perception of the characteristics of Northern females”, and that of Supaporn Suthamkosol (2004) who stated that “having a trustworthy personality affects the image of people in the entertainment sector who are also politicians”. In general, there are two objectives in the marketing communication of celebrities: information and correction. Celebrities should continuously and regularly apply marketing communication through several channels in order to widely develop people’s awareness. Good marketing communication can influence the good image of celebrities as confirmed by Sasitorn Ngyanphan (2013) who said that “marketing communication is an important element in image building”, Ekteya Saisanan (2009) who stated that “media is the premier element in the image-building of celebrities”, Jirathip Thongsuk (2006) who said that “communication is the political image-building process of senators”, and Nattawadee Duangtadum (2006) who put forth that “mass communication effects the image presentation of celebrities such as Ms.
Ongsan Xuji”. Distribution, good planning, and management of distribution channels influences the decent image of celebrities. Management executives are perceived to provide opportunities and promotion that affects the image of celebrities. This complies with Sasitorn Nguanphan (2013) who said that “executives are an important element in building image” and Kietya Saisanan (2013) who said that “executives or the actor’s advisors are factors in the success and image of the actor”. Performance fees affect the image of celebrities in employment. Appropriated pricing in celebrity fees enhances the possibility of being employed. This complies with what Sasitorn Nguanphan (2013) stated that “pricing is an important factor in building image”.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Source of information for study

3.1.1 The public and sample groups

The public and sample groups used in this study were divided into three groups as follows:

a) People studied through in-depth interviews, consisting of Thai celebrities, persons related to celebrities, and academics in the field of studying the image of celebrities.

b) People studied through group interviews, consisting of members of Thai celebrities’ fan clubs.

c) People studied through public surveys, consisting of the Thai general public.

3.1.2 Random Selection

a) The random selection of persons selected for in-depth interviews

The random selection of persons selected for in-depth interviews was chosen through a process of non-probability sampling and purposive sampling based on the discretion of the one conducting the study. The characteristics of groups chosen was based upon the purpose of the study, namely, nine celebrities who have achieved success in the entertainment industry of Thailand: nine (9) persons related to celebrities, comprising three (3) personal managers of celebrities, three members of the media, and three television drama producers, and four academics specializing in the image of celebrities.

b) The random selection of people chosen to take part in group interviews

The random selection of people chosen to take part in group interviews was determined through a process of non-probability sampling as well as quota sampling whereby groups were chosen based upon characteristics suitable to the purpose of the study, that is: two groups of Thai celebrity fan club members, namely, one group of Thai celebrity fan club members consisting of students, and one group of Thai celebrity fan club members of working age. The groups consisted of ten members per group.

c) The random selection of members of the public to be surveyed

The random selection of members of the public to be surveyed was chosen through a process of non-probability sampling as well as an accidental sampling of 400 citizens from all provinces of Thailand aged 15 years and over. They were selected using Taro Yamane’s (1967) formula from a total of 64,871,000 Thai citizens (citing census information from The Institute for Population and Social Research as of the 1st of July, 2014) (The Institute for Population and Social Research, 2014).

3.2 Method for Collecting Data

Data for this study was collected and formulated using three methods, namely:

1) In-depth interviews were conducted in compliance with quality research standards using open-ended questions with a semi-structured interview format. Interviews began with specific questions at first, after which the interviews were conducted according to the regulations established for in-depth interviews with individuals. (Donald R. and S. Schindler, 2007)
2) Focus group interviews conducted with Thai celebrities’ fan club groups to determine trends and factors employed in creating an image for celebrities in Thailand’s entertainment industry.

3) Survey research using questionnaires with a sampling of Thailand’s general public in order to determine trends and factors employed in creating an image for celebrities in Thailand’s entertainment industry. Random selection of persons surveyed was conducted in accordance with non-probability sampling and accidental sampling standards.

3.3 Data Analysis

3.3.1 Quality Data Analysis
Examination of data was conducted using a triangulation process whereby the information gathered from in-depth interviews and group interviews was compared to determine in what ways opinions concurred or differed from one another after which a consensus of information was drawn for this study. (Supang Chantavanit, 2008) Researchers divided up data into categories of information sought for the study and used data from other literary studies to examine new information in order for the data analysis of this study to be better organized, structured and exhaustive. The objectives leading this research study were sought through analyzing data as following:

a) Data analysis
Data analysis using the method of analytic induction, that is, analysis and deduction of data using descriptive explanation extracted from in-depth interviews with a sampling of 22 persons, consisting of nine celebrities, nine personal managers of celebrities, three members of the media, three television drama producers, four academics specializing in the image of celebrities, and two group interviews with 10 interviewees in each group, as follows: one group of fan club members consisting of students, and one group of fan club members of working age.

b) Content analysis
Content analysis involved analyzing data accumulated from various documents and theses in order to identify the elements and factors that have an impact upon creating an image, specifically studying this literature for the purpose of ascertaining what are the elements and factors involved in creating an image for celebrities working in the entertainment industry of Thailand.

3.3.2 Analysis of survey/quantitative data
A ready-made social science program was used to analyze and evaluate data from survey questionnaires using descriptive statistics. Those statistics were quoted in percentage values.

4. Results
Results from in-depth interviews with 22 celebrities and persons related to celebrities, can be divided up into 11 topics which are:

a) Social activities
It was found that doing social activities helps build a positive image and sets a good example for youth, inspiring them to follow suit. The study of celebrity image building by social activities through in-depth interviews with celebrities, persons related to celebrities, and academics concluded that a major factor in positive image building comes from social activities which also serves as an inspiration and example for the youth to follow. Engaging in social activities provides good and sustainable image building for celebrities because other than the benefit of the activities themselves, such projects also showcase the celebrities’ capabilities. Famous people sacrificing personal time for social benefit sets a strong example for youth to follow. If such activities are regularly conducted, this leaves a memorable impression on people and encourages support. Creating image through public activities and social development builds a positive image. In addition to simply being famous, good celebrities should additionally help society through conducting public activities. Celebrities should be built up as positive icons to the youth. Many celebrities have proven that they could draw interest from the media and generate
their fame without leaning on gossipy scandalous news. Performers who do not need to lean on such sensational news strategies and instead replace that with good behavior will strengthen their profile in society. Creating a good example forms a more sustainable image in people’s minds because Thais admire good celebrities who are positive role models, and so do event organizers and many media organizations.

b) Compensation

It was found that compensation is an element that affects the image of celebrities’ image and is a benchmark of popularity in the eyes of the public. Compensation is a point of difference between more experienced celebrities and new actors/actresses. Compensation should be set according to the appropriateness, job specifications and the celebrity’s popularity. Some celebrities like to create trends to make themselves appear more interesting, to build popularity, and to increase their fame through creating a buzz surrounding themselves, but this can bring positive or negative results. Some celebrities are not mindful of building a good image but instead focus simply on building popularity in the interest of gaining high compensation.

c) Practice

In terms of the practice element of celebrity image building, celebrities should have a motivation in their work, and strive for high-quality achievements. A high standard in work and achievements generates popularity. Therefore, practice and continual self-improvement must be employed in order to maintain popularity and have sustainable celebrity status. Performers should enroll in additional acting courses, rehearse a variety of roles, be responsible in fulfilling assignments, and be punctual. This helps celebrities to maintain a good quality image.

d) Support Team

The element of the celebrities’ support team referred to in this study refers to people who work closely with the celebrity such as his/her personal manager or PR representative, along with supporters and whoever accompanies the celebrity. Regardless of the situation, whether social or other events, filming sets, PR presentations, charity drives, etc., the celebrities’ personal staff, fans and followers, associates and/or family members all have an impact on the celebrity’s image. In some way, these people are like a mirror of the celebrity’s image. For example his or her personal manager is incompetent or conducts himself/herself in an annoying manner, this hinders people from wanting to hire that celebrity. Fan club members also influence the celebrity’s image.

e) Personality

Mannerisms and appearance are important elements in celebrity image building. How the celebrity conducts himself/herself is established based upon what product or service the celebrity is endorsing. The appearance, personality, capability, experience, personal habits, actions, and behavior of celebrities all directly impact their image.

f) Marketing Communication

The marketing communication element in image building is essential to the celebrity image building because of the prominence of communication and marketing in society today. Celebrities should employ numerous appropriate communications channels. The most convenient and rapid communications channel in this day and age is social media through which people have access to news rapidly and through which information is spread widely and quickly. Key objectives for using marketing communication in building celebrity image are: 1) Inform, and 2) Correct false information.

g) Management Executives

Executives and personal managers can influence the image of celebrities and be a reliable source of information because they are close to the celebrities. Executives and personal managers are also important to celebrities through their support and finding opportunities for the celebrities.

h) Distribution channels

The factor of distribution channels in celebrity image building is important in the entertainment business, since good distribution management results in good image. All three groups queried through in-
depth interviews agreed that good communication is important in building a good image, whatever the type of media. If appropriately managed, this significantly impacts image-building. Good management of schedules and events, prompt arrival and punctuality, helps create good image from the standpoint of celebrities’ work habits. If schedule management is good, work and event cues will be handled appropriately and help towards the celebrities’ work efficiency.

   i) **Pricing**

Celebrities’ fee rates greatly affect celebrity image. Appropriate pricing influences the work and good income of celebrities. In general, remuneration rates for celebrities will be set by their promoter in accordance with their level of popularity. In addition, there are two more elements to celebrity image building that are workmanship and fan clubs.

   j) **Artistic work**

Good quality artistic work is an element that affects the good image of celebrities and directly impacts their popularity and ability to acquire support from fans.

   k) **Fan clubs**

An important factor that influences the work of celebrities is fan clubs. If celebrities can project a good image to their fan clubs, the fans will support their artistic work and generate more job opportunities for them.

Results from focus group interviews: A sampling of 20 persons was divided into two groups: One group of 10 fan club members consisting of students and another group of 10 members of fan clubs of working age. Results of these interviews indicated nine elements that contribute to celebrity image building as follows:

1) **Image building through activities for society**
Building image through conducting activities for society is good and influences the good image of celebrities working in entertainment. Therefore, such social activities should be conducted with ongoing consistency, not only for the purpose of publicity or public relations.

2) **Image building through compensation**
Compensation rates can influence the image of celebrities in the entertainment industry of Thailand as an indicator of popularity. When celebrities can draw high compensation rates, they will be perceived as having fame and popularity in the eyes of the general public.

3) **Image building through on practice**
Regular practice and self-improvement can influence good image. If celebrities exercise good management and are time-efficient as well as producing quality artistic work, this generates good image.

4) **Image building through support teams**
Focus groups were of the opinion that the support teams of celebrities do not play a part in influencing the image of the celebrities.

5) **Image building through character and personality**
The element of celebrities’ character and personality is important in good image building. They must have a good appearance, good personality, appropriate behavior, know how to adjust to situations, be responsible, display good human relations with everyone, and have a love for their work and career.

6) **Image building through marketing communication**
Marketing communication is essential to celebrities. Celebrities and the media are inseparable. Marketing through communication is a channel to enhance awareness of celebrities among people, and to expand their popularity. Achieving fame and popularity is getting halfway towards success in an entertainment career. Then the task is to maintain it.
7) Image building through management executives
Focus groups were of the opinion that the management executives behind celebrities do not play a significant part in influencing their image.

8) Image building through distribution channels
Distribution channels are an important element in the building image of celebrities working in the entertainment industry. Both groups interviewed were of the opinion that distribution channels are varied. Various forms of media provide different communication benefits. Celebrities should employ good planning and quality management in order to bring about efficiency that will lead to an increase in quality and help generate a good image for the celebrities.

9) Image building through pricing
The fee rates of celebrities impacts their work image. If they set the price too high, they may not get employed. Generally, the asking rates should be set by celebrities’ promoters according to their level of popularity.

Analysis of data gained from in-depth interview with celebrities and persons related to celebrities, as well as focus group interviews with celebrity fan clubs through triangulation data testing found that all groups concur that activities for society, artistic work, operations, personality, marketing communication, distribution channels, and pricing are the most important factors, followed by remuneration and support teams, as well as management executives. In addition, there are other elements that academics viewed as important factors in the image-building of celebrities which are artistic work and fan clubs. The important sequence of elements that influence the image building of celebrities from in-depth interviews and focus group interviews could be drawn in pyramid form as follows:

![Figure 2](image)

**Figure 2** The important sequence of elements that influence the image building of celebrities from in-depth interviews and focus group interviews

Survey research was conducted with 400 samples of population in Thailand to survey people all attitude in elements of image building of celebrity in Thai entertainment business that are; social activities, compensation, workmanship, practice, team, personality, marketing communication, fan club, executives, distributional channel, rates

The survey found that most of the population accepted that all 11 factors/elements in building image of celebrity in the entertainment business in Thailand. For social activities, 88% agreed, and 12% disagreed. For compensation, 89.0% agreed, and 11.0 disagreed. For workmanship, 85% agreed, and 15% disagreed. For process, 97.3 agreed, and 2.7% disagreed. For the team, 96.7% agreed, and 3.3% disagreed. For personality, 97% agreed, and 3% disagreed. For marketing communication, 97.5% agreed, and 2.5%
disagreed. For fan club, 89.3% agreed, and 10.7% disagreed. For executives, 96.5% agreed, and 3.5% disagreed. After specified the interval score of 10 level with 10 equals to highest agree and 1 equals to lowest agree, the distribution got the highest score, followed by marketing communication, process, personality, team, executive, fan club, compensation, rates, social activities, and workmanship, respectively. The pyramid figure was drawn to present the important sequence of element that effect to image building of celebrity from the attitude of population in Thailand as follows:

![Pyramid Figure](image)

**Figure 3** Order of significance of elements that influence image building of celebrity from the opinions of the sample of people in Thailand

The integrated analysis of in-depth interview score and focus group score from celebrity, related person to celebrity, technical specialist, fan club (student) and fan club (working age), and attitude score from survey by questionnaire from sample of population in Thailand found that distribution is the most important factor/element to celebrity image building, follows by marketing communication, process, personality, rates, social activities, executives, compensation, fan club, and workmanship, respectively. This could be summarized in pyramid figure presents important sequence of factors/elements that influence the celebrity image building as follow.
According to the elements that influence the image building of the celebrity obtained from in-depth interview, focus group interview, interview of the celebrity, and those concerned with the celebrity, and from the survey into the opinions of samples of population in Thailand from questionnaire, these elements can be used as ways for building image for the celebrity in entertainment sector of Thailand in order of significance as follows: the elements which are the way in building image of building image for the celebrity in entertainment sector of Thailand at most include distributional channel, marketing communication, practice and on personality; secondly, they include team, price, social activities and on executive. The elements that are way in building image of the celebrity at the lowest level include compensation, fan club, and workmanship. (As shown in Figure 5)
5. Discussion and Policy Recommendations

5.1 Discussion

The research studies about the concepts, the theories and the relevant researches of image creation. The results of the study found that there are many components about the creation of celebrity's image. For example social activities, compensation, practice, team, personality, marketing communication, executive, distribution, workmanship, fan club and rate.

Moreover, result from an in-depth interview with celebrity, related person to celebrity, and technical specialist shows that six (6) most influenced factors that effect to image building of celebrity in entertainment business in Thailand are; social activities, practice, personality, marketing communication, distributional channel, and price. Two secondary factors are rates and compensation. The least influenced factor is executives. In addition to several factors from literature review, there are other related factors to image building of celebrity that are workmanship and fan club. From focus group interview with the college student fan club and working age fan club, the result shows that seven (7) main elements for image building of celebrity in entertainment business in Thailand are; social activities, compensation, process, personality, marketing communication, distribution, and rates.

We also found that social activities could create a good image. The social activities should be conducted based on public benefit and be proceed continuously, regularly, and sincerely. It can create a good image in the long term.

The attitude survey of sample in population in Thailand found that more than 85% accepted that all 11 elements are important and could be applied as guideline in building image of celebrity.

The integrated analysis of in-depth interview score and focus group score from celebrity, related person to celebrity, technical specialist, fan club (student) and fan club (working age), and attitude score from survey by questionnaire from sample of population in Thailand found that distribution is the most important factor/element to celebrity image building, follows by marketing communication, process, personality, rates, social activities, executives, compensation, fan club, and workmanship, respectively. This could lead to the elements which are the way in building image of building image for the celebrity in entertainment sector of Thailand; it was found that the elements which are the way in building image of building image for the celebrity in entertainment sector of Thailand at most include distributional channel, marketing communication, practice and on personality; secondly, they include team, price, social activities and on executive. The elements that are way in building image of the celebrity at the lowest level include compensation, fan club, and workmanship.
5.2 Policy Recommendation for application

According to the study, it was found that elements which are the way in building image for the celebrity in entertainment sector of Thailand that the celebrity, those who are related to the celebrity, and the samples of population deem it significant include distributional channel, marketing communication, practice, personality, team, price, social activities, executives, compensation, fan club, and on workmanship. Therefore, it is necessary to promote the celebrity to build good image as follows:

a) The elements which are the way in building image for the celebrity in entertainment sector of Thailand at most include distributional channel, marketing communication, practice and on personality. So, the guideline is to build good personality, good plan of operation, and can perform work as planned, to find a variety of distributional channel, and to have good plan on marketing communication.

b) The elements which are the way in building image for the celebrity in entertainment sector of Thailand at secondary level include team, price, social activities, and executive. The guideline is that the executive or the personal manger should help promote image and good personality for the celebrity and team of the celebrity and should fix the rate appropriately for the celebrity and should encourage the celebrity to do social activities.

c) The elements which are the way in building image for the celebrity in entertainment sector of Thailand at lowest level include compensation, fan club, and workmanship. The guideline is that the celebrity should develop his/her performance to generate better quality of work, to create and expand fan club to support the celebrity, and not to focus too much on compensation, but should perform social work such as modeling show for charity.

6. Conclusion

The study, “Elements that Influence Celebrity Image Building in the Entertainment Sector of Thailand” seeks to identify the determining the factors involved in creating an image for celebrities working in the entertainment industry, and a process of implementation to create an image for celebrities working in the entertainment industry of Thailand. The study employs three research methods as follows: 1. In-depth interviews employing a data-collection system, in compliance with quality research standards, using open-ended questions with a sampling of 22 people consisting of celebrities, persons connected with celebrities, and academics, as follows: nine celebrities, nine persons related to celebrities including three personal managers, three members of the media and three television drama producers, and four academics specializing in the image of celebrities; 2. Focus group interviews employ a data-collection system, in compliance with quality research standards, with 20 members of fan club groups divided up as: one group of 10 fan club members who are students, and one group of 10 fan club members of working age; and 3. Survey research using questionnaires with 400 members of the general public of Thailand employing a data collection process in compliance with quantitative data research procedures. Results of the study indicate that celebrities and those connected with celebrities are of the opinion that there are six areas that make up the most significant elements of creating an image for celebrities in the entertainment industry of Thailand, including: conducting activities for society, operations, character and personality, marketing and communication, sales channels, and pricing. Secondary factors exist in two areas, including: fees and remuneration, and finally management executives. Additional contributing factors include: artistic work and fan clubs. Group interviews indicated seven factors that influence the image building of celebrities in the entertainment sector of Thailand, as follows: activities for society, remuneration, operations, character and personality, marketing and communication, sales channels, and pricing. Furthermore, opinion surveys of a sampling of the general public yielded a result of 85% of respondents agreeing that all of the 11 aforementioned factors are important and can be implemented as a process for creating a good image for celebrities working in the entertainment industry. As such, the results of this study can be employed in terms of practical implementation by celebrities in Thailand in the following ways: celebrities should develop their performance skills in order to create good quality artistic work, they should create and expand their fan base to support their artistic work, and they should avoid being overly income-oriented. They
should engage in activities that give back to society and develop good personal character, organize their work well and be able to enact their plans well, seek out diverse sales channels, and chart out a plan for good communications and marketing. As for executives or personal managers, they should assist in creating a good image and character for the celebrities and their assistance teams, and set artist fee pricing at appropriate levels, as well as encourage the celebrities to engage in activities for society. Further study in relation to this research should focus on creating an image for those related to celebrities as well, such as celebrities’ fan clubs, and celebrities’ personal managers, etc. due to the fact that the image of those related to celebrities also tends to have an impact upon the image of the celebrities themselves.

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A Study of Establishing Crime and Justice Museum
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Abstract
Approaches to developing the learning processes rely on developing the modern learning resources and preparing the knowledge enabling to transmit it with efficiencies. This includes the medium which the learners can extensively access knowledge. Such approaches will be the development of the intelligence infrastructure that reinforces the quality for the Thai people. A government prototype of significant knowledge focusing on the transmission of justice administration to public is the project of establishing Crime and Justice Museum aiming at collecting the knowledge of the justice administration. Proposals have been emphasized on roles of the Thai monarch institution since the past. This includes the rules of law which is the “sacred principle of laws” to be fairly applied in the justice administration. It also includes the history of the Thai and international criminal justice and the royal initiatives of Her Royal Highness Princess Bajrakitiyabha enabling to initiate the permanent exhibition learning model. All information are raised in focus groups and workshops in order to analyze and synthesize the outcomes of all the processes and to fully further plan the establishment of the Crime and Justice Museum. Findings show that the design of the knowledge presenting the history, the criminal justice administration and the principle of criminology should add the essence of the justice administration that will ease visitors clearly understand its practices, social norms, laws, the evolution of punishment, ethics of the justice personnel in the justice administration.

Keywords: knowledge, crime and justice museum, justice administration, principle of criminology

1. Rationale
The project of establishing the Crime and Justice Museum is one of the projects thrived by the Ministry of Justice under the royal initiative of Her Royal Highness Princess Bajrakitiyabha. It is majorly aimed to honor the works of the justice administration in Thailand with the system They are witnessed with the royal endeavors of Her Royal Highness Princess before the eyes of the world and UN. Her Royal Highness Princess has instituted spiritual supports the project of Enhancing Lives of Female Inmates (ELFI) and the Draft of the Bangkok Rules.

With the royal initiatives and thrives as above; the scopes have been expanded more to the foreign countries to be more accepted in the standards of treating female inmates at the international level and to promote Thailand to be the center of knowledge on justice administration at the regional level and the international level. The Permanent Secretary of Justice, the Department of Corrections and Thailand Institute of Justice (TIJ) collaborate to institute the Crime and Justice Museum in the location of Suan Rommanee Naj where it is the first prison of Thailand since the reign of His Majesty king Rama V. It will gain both identity and knowledge creation about the history of the Thai justice administration particularly the roles and the royal grace of the Thai Monarch Institute on the process of justice since the past unto present. The exhibition of the Crime and Justice Museum will present the knowledge essence of the Thai and international justice administration focusing on criminology and penalty since the past unto today and are referable while inducing the monarch words of Thailand, and the royal grace of each Thai king in each reign, particularly the present monarch and the royal activities of Her Royal Highness Princess Bajrakitiyabha in this Crime Justice Museum.

Therefore, it is so necessary to conduct researches and to collect the knowledge of the justice administration process related to the roles of the Thai monarchs who introduce the rule of laws which is the “sanctity of law” to be fairly applied in the justice administration in each reign. It is concentrated on approaches to “justifying the justice administration” in collaboration with exploring the history of the Thai criminal justice administration and the ideas of diversion and alternative to prosecution and punishment. This includes the knowledge related to pursuing the royal projects of Her Royal Highness Princess
Bajrakitiyabha, which are internationally accepted and honored. They promote the image to the Thai justice administration and Thailand in order to scope the precise and preferable content for presentation with proper model and appropriate introduction to the diverse groups of public and various targeted groups. It is expected that the Crime and Justice Museum would be the first modern museum in Asian to sustainably promoting the national and international knowledge.

2. **Research Objectives**

1. To study and collect the knowledge of justice administration in treating the offenders and punishment with following details:
   1.1. The roles of the Thai monarchy in each era of the justice administration,
   1.2. The historical background of the Thai criminal justice administration and punishments, penalty and treating the Thai offenders compared to the foreign countries since the past unto today,
   1.3. The Thai procedural prosecution and the evolution of the ideas and the transit of the policy on the Thai criminal justice administration, and
   1.4. The pursuit of the royal projects of Her Royal Highness Princess Bajrakitiyabha, which are accepted and honored at the international level and at the same time promoting the nation image.
2. To organize knowledge and the content creation on the exhibition of the justice administration in treating the offenders and the punishments in order to produce the exhibition contents for the proposal in instituting the Crime and Justice Museum.
3. To propose the ways to drive the Crime and Justice Museum to be the blueprint of the modern learning center on justice administration in Asian.

2.1 **Scopes of the Study**

The related literature reviews on this issue are:

1. The roles and the royal grace of the Thai monarch institute on justice administration since the past in each reign and the induction of each Majesty’s royal guidance especially His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej, the current monarch and the variety of the royal grace on the modern justice administration in consistent with the philosophy of “Justice”.
2. The historical background of the Thai justice administration in treating the offenders and penalty compared to foreign countries since the past, the life of the inmates, and the roots of crime based on criminology.
3. The Thai procedural prosecution beginning from crime committed until verdict, sentence, rehabilitation and the evolution of the ideas and the transit of the policy on the Thai criminal justice administration to meet each era such as rights of the inmates and defendants in criminal cases through applying diversion and alternative prosecution, and/or alternatives to replace imprisonment through strengthening communities and so on.
4. The pursuit of the royal projects of Her Royal Highness Princess Bajrakitiyabha, which are accepted and honored at the international level and at the same time become the contributions to promoting the nation image.
5. To recommend the ways to manage knowledge and to administrate other parts related to the scope of instituting the Crime and Justice Museum.

2.2 **Conceptual Framework for the Study**

This research employs the “System Approach Theory” as the scope of the study.

The system is the overall structure or a process that is regulated the relationship between elements joined in the program or the process. The system is a scientific process used in planning and operating to achieve the purpose set. The System Approach Theory contains four (4) elements, i.e.

1. Input
2. Process
3. Output
4. Feedback
The four elements will have a continuous relationship. The effective system has to allocate existing resources for economic uses and fit the environment and situation for effective works and achieve the set purpose. If any systems provide more quantitative and qualitative outputs than the inputs; they are qualified. On the contrary, if any systems provide poorer outputs than the inputs; they are counted poor quality.

The Feature of the Approach
1. A collaboration of the individual group related to the system
2. A solution with scientific approach
3. The appropriate use of the existing resources
4. A solution of the major problem dividing into sub-problems to facilitate solving problem resulted to solve successfully the major problem.
5. Focusing on materializing experiment
6. Prioritizing solvable problem and the emergent problem

Elements of the system regardless any systems, they contain three parts, i.e.

1) Input – it is referred to the necessary factors to be sued in the process or the programs such as learning system in the classrooms that might be teachers, students, curriculums, timetable, and methods of instruction and so on.
2) Process – it is referred to bringing the inputs to be organized for achieving the objectives such as teachings or activities assigned to students and so on.
3) Output – it is referred to results gained from the second step such as learning achievement of students or the student performance and so on.

The results gained from the second step are needed to undergo analysis or the system analysis is to be considered and improved for better efficiency, which is called feedback.

A Study of Establishing Crime and Justice Museum is to propose the knowledge of Crime and Justice museum. Working out with the above models for success in establishing the center of learning; they require clear objectives and clear targets that are presented as per 2.3 Conceptual Framework.

### 2.3 Conceptual Framework

<table>
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<th>Input</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Output</th>
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| - Exploring academic documents of laws, justice administration, criminology, sociology, history, museum management and learning sources from books, textbooks, annals, Old contemporary laws and current laws to review knowledge related to establishing Crime and Justice Museum | - In-depth interview to collect data in order to gain facts, duration, opinions related to the knowledge of criminology, punishment, and the right and credible justice administration  
- The first and the second educational excursions abroad  
- Conducting focus groups to present interesting model in establishing Crime and Justice Museum  
- Conducting workshops to present interesting contents, essence, valid data in establishing Crime and Justice Museum  
- Conducting seminars for exchanges of learning in order to prepare manuals of managing knowledge for the useful application of persistent developing and improving Crime and Justice Museum | - Managing the registration area, the second floor for presentation and introducing the overview of the learning center with the exhibition as the Hall of Fame on the monarchs and the justice administration including the world philosophers, and the sector of the world and the Thai criminological history.  
- Managing the presentation of the timeline on punishment history, exhibition of objects related to punishments.  
- Interactive matters and the last room is the presentation of the origin of simulation on all justice administration through the pursuit of interested cases in investigation, interrogation, checking crime scenes, a collection of evidence in the crime scenes that will later appear in the files of the trial.  
- Managing the presentation of justice administration, i.e. police protocols, evidence identification of the case, DNA... |
### 2.4 Methodology

1. This was a qualitative research exploring Thai and foreign documents in areas of law provisions, law texts, books, journals, articles and other documents including information technology on justice administration, criminology, social sciences, history, organization of museum and learning center from textbooks, archives old and contemporary code of laws under the scope of the study.

2. Gain the fact on periods of time, opinions, cultural values of law or both formal and informal social control related to criminology, punishment, and the credible justice administration in managing the knowledge of instituting the Crime and Justice Museum where the researcher has to conduct the in-depth interview from the persons involved. They are:
   2.1. Experts of law, criminal justice administration, Criminology and history;
   2.2. Delegates from museum and learning center originations, students and IT experts,
   2.3. Representatives of Ministry of Justice, Bureau of the Royal Household, public and private agencies and educational institutions.

3. To modernize designs of the proposal and the management in the era of IT and to ease understanding while being fit to the targeted groups who will visit and study in the Crime and Justice Museum in collaboration with recommending approaches to drive its fame and acceptance as the authentic learning center within Asian and in the globe; it is necessary to organize foreign excursion, i.e.
   3.1. Either the American countries or the EU which are the origins and the prototype of the criminology, punishment and international justice administration.
   3.2. The Asian countries that are the origins and the prototype of the criminology, punishment, and international justice administration but with different issues and details of the oriental contexts and relative to Thailand.

4. Conduct two focus groups to brainstorm the targeted groups who will use the service of the Crime and Justice Museum, i.e.
   Group 1: General group of interested such as people, scholars and representatives from the sectors involved and students; and
   Group 2: The personnel and the scholars of the justice administration and involved persons such as personnel from academic units in various disciplines, representatives of network institutions for major cooperation to gain opinion, interest and appropriateness in designing the proposal and the modern managerial approaches to meet the IT development era while easing understanding and meeting the targeted groups who will visit to learn.

5. Organize workshops to present the results of 1-4 and brainstorm among the persons involved in justice administration while designing the proposal model and the knowledge management model under the scope instituting the Crime and Justice Museum.

6. Organize seminars for knowledge exchanges on knowledge management among the criminologists, penologists, lawyers, social scientist, historians and scholars of disciplines involved to prepare a manual of knowledge management to be as a way to develop proposals of interested issues in criminology, justice Administration and punishment.

7. Analyze and synthesize the results from 1-6 and prepare the complete report.
3. Results

1. The justice administration on treating the offenders and punishment, the process of justice administration on preventive measures and handling crimes, securing life and property, protecting right and liberty of people, law enforcement and facilitating people are founded on two modified theories, i.e. The Crime Control Model and The Due Process Model (Assawin Wattanawibul et al., 2009). The principles and theories on law enforcement imposed by police, public prosecutors, court, department of corrections and the ministry of justice are founded on the six (6) basic human rights, i.e.: 1) all own human dignity - the natural rights. 2) All own equality and treasure non-discrimination. 3) Human rights are for all regardless races, religions, genders, ages, careers, economic or social statuses. Health and opinions - Universality. 4) Human rights are indivisibility and interdependency. 5) Human rights demand participation and inclusion, and 6) Human rights are accountability and enforce the rule of law.

2. Establishing the Crime and Justice Museum involves as below.

2.1. The roles of Their Majesties King of Thailand who adopt the rule of laws to be enforced in justice administration in each reign.

2.1.1. The Sukhothai Era: there was a variety of epigraphic laws, for example, the robber law in the 38th stone inscription describes abduction/ the punishment for the offenders in stealing or stealers. During His Majesty Ramkhamhaeng’s reign, there were formal social controls coded in laws.

2.1.2. The Ayudhya Era: The "Tra Sam Duang Law" (The First Thai Enacted Law) has been systematically enforced during the Ayudhya era. They were clearer than the Sukhothai era. There were both substantive laws and procedural Law through adopting the Moral Scriptures as the foundation in enacting laws. The plaintiff can prosecute the criminal case by himself or herself, and the sovereignty of verdict was under the king. “Retribution” during the Ayudhya era, was accepted in the matter of self-protection.

2.1.3. The Thonburi Era: His Majesty King Taksin Maharath was preoccupied with reuniting and stabilizing the country, and His Majesty might have enforced justice administration adopted from the Ayudhya era.

2.1.4. The Early Rattanakosin Era: Due to Thai laws have been mostly lost and destroyed during the fall of Ayudhya to the Burmese in 1767. Moreover 37 years later His Majesty King Phra Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke, or Rama I the Great ordered laws to be revised and amended into three (3) sets seal with the Phra Raj Sri Seal, the Phra Kodchasri Seal, and the Buakaew Seal. His Majesty has appointed the authority of justice and adjudicated the " Tra Sam Duang Law" (The First Thai Enacted Laws) by His Majesty himself. His Majesty King Phutthaloetla Naphalai or Rama II improved and enacted various laws, i.e. prohibition to sell opium, land purchase agreement, wills and other criminal laws. His Majesty King Nangklao, or Rama III follows the course of His Majesty King Phra Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke, or Rama I given centralization and regionalization. His Majesty also ordered to erect the Khlong Vinijchai Bheri (Drum of Adjudication) in the palace. Criminals could be arrested without punishment with tortures but disclosed morality on sins, virtues, benefits, and punishments. His Majesty King Phutthaloetla Naphalai or Rama II has also compiled writings for the modern criminologists to read and have to raise their hands over their heads to deeply pay homage to His Majesty. His Majesty King Monkut, or Rama IV enacted the trial called the Ordeal – a trial when an accused must seek evidence to prove innocent and there were tortures to admit guilty. Thailand had to allow foreign countries establish their consulates to try their own citizens or subordinates by their own law. It means that the country has lost its court Independence. During the time of “Justice Administration Reforms”, His Majesty King Chulalongkorn, or Rama V, has ordered the establishment of the Ministry of Justice in 1891. Later His Majesty ordered the law reforms by hiring lawyers from Europe and Japan to combine the Appeal Court and the Civil Litigation, to establish Corrections Court then combining it with the Criminal Court, and combine the Kasem Civil Court with the Krairsri civil Court into the Civil Court in 1898. The court was divided into three (3) divisions, i.e. the Supreme court, the Bangkok Court and the Provincial Court given HRH Kromluang Rajburii Direkrit as the Chief and His Royal Highness is called “The Father of the Thai Laws and Thai Courts”. His Majesty King Vajiravudh, or Rama VI has ordered to complete the draft the Civil and Commerce Code since incomplete during the reign of His Majesty King Chulalongkorn, or Rama V. His Majesty also established a department to draft a law of court reforms, to repeal gambling houses and AB Lottery which were vices and misled public though they were the important source of revenue for the government. Facts in the reign of His...
Majesty King Prajadhipok, or Rama VII who said, “Having opinions from royalties and chief officials of both sides; I think we can win but the bloodsheds are from the Thais”. In the end, His Majesty decided to be in the throne and become the King under the Constitution. His Majesty says, “I am willing to surrender the powers I formerly exercised to the people as a whole, but I am not willing to turn them over to any individuals or any groups to exercise them in an autocratic manner without heeding the real voice of the people.” during His Majesty King Ananda Mahidol, or Rama VIII, the epic revealed that His Majesty presided over the conferral of the New Constitution in May 9, 1946, the inauguration ceremony of convening the parliament in June 1, 1946 and by the assassination of His Majesty, it led to the development of the Thai forensic.

2.1.5. His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej, the current era

First, His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej (Rama IX) has been crowned to be the monarch of the country given above the politics and noninvolvement in politics but still His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej is worshiped and dependency to the people. His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej is the milestone of the country and secures the national interests at large. Therefore, there must be other institutes to be responsible. The chief or the representatives of the institutes have to countersign the Royal Command which witnesses to act responsibly for His Majesty. His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej has pledged in the coronation ceremony, “I shall reign with righteousness for the benefit and happiness of the Siamese people.” Second, the royal affairs on adjudication of the royal pardon as the monarch of a state who exercise laws by His Majesty himself; and third, His Majesty’s royal instructions and the royal words for law professionals under the system of justice administration during different occasions as a monarch of a state, provide comments and concerns on law enforcement in trials as well as the ideology and ethics which lawyers must adhere and follow. One of His Majesty’s Ten Royal Governance is “Avirodhana” – non-deviation from righteousness or conformity to the law. It was conferred to be as guide for the justice personnel in order to create fairness to people. His Majesty has foreseen justice for people would truly rise if only the personnel involved who play key roles accurately and properly exercise their authority by law to meet the real situation of people because the law is just a tool to secure justice. Enforcing law must be founded on “non-tyranny” to people in associating with development. His Majesty so much prioritizes the “law enforcer”.

2.2. The historical background of the Thai criminal justice administration, penalty, treating the offenders compared with the foreign countries since the past, living conditions of the inmates, causes of crimes based on criminology will be summarized in to the major agencies of the justice administration – police, public prosecutors, court, corrections and the Ministry of Justice as being documented in the historical documents on the background of the Thai criminal justice administration and penalty, treating the Thai offenders since the past, living conditions of the inmates, causes of crimes based on criminology.

2.3. The Thai prosecution under the Criminal Procedure Code of Thailand BE 2547 (2004) enacts that lawsuit against the offenders beginning from complaint and accusation, arrestment, interrogation and prosecution including bails of the accused in criminal cases especially the individual rights warranty endorsed by every Constitution. The entry of justice administration requires complainant or accusing the accused enacted in the Criminal Procedure Code of Thailand BE 2547 (2004) Article 2 (2). The arrestment must be subject to the Criminal Procedure Code of Thailand BE 2547 (2004) Article 77-84 and 78 (4) has been enacted, “If the victim has complained and pleaded any arrestment of any individuals; the administrative authority or police are authorized to arrest the mentioned person without any arrest warrant”. The Constitution of the kingdom of Thailand, B.E. 2540 (1997) Article 37 set a new principle that any arrestments and any detentions; it is necessarily pleading afore court warrant. On the other hand, detention is enacted in the Criminal Procedure Code of Thailand BE 2547 (2004) Article 87. Search is enacted in the Criminal Procedure Code of Thailand BE 2547 (2004) Article 132 (2) and Article 85. In addition, search and confiscation must abide by the Criminal Procedure Code of Thailand BE 2547 (2004) Article 91-105. Detention and searches in a private place to find the person or objects must have the court

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2.4. Resuming the royal projects of HRH Princess Bajrakitiyabha, which are recognized and renowned at international level and bring the royal grace to the Thai justice administration and promoting the national image, i.e.

**Project 1: Spiritual Supports**

HRH Princess Bajrakitiyabha intends to establish a program to contribute spiritual supports to help those needing opportunity in the Thai societies. HRH the Princess expects that all in societies could happily coexist when they recognized their own rights without troubling others. The justice administration is a part in help everyone respects the rights of others. When the justice administration finalizes; all who are affected in societies should have the opportunity to coexist happily again.

**Project 2: ELFI (Enhancing Lives of Female Inmates)**

The physical differences between the female and the male are countless under the custom Frames, and social expectations that women have been designed to fulfill many duties with diverse roles but some think they are the exhausted burdens. However, the miseries of many women think they are encountering are incomparable with the miseries the female inmates are facing especially the pregnant inmates and inmates who raise their children in prisons. Certainly, they are guilty and deserve punishment with imprisonment; they meet limitations of conveniences. However, female inmates who misstep should have the opportunity from societies to rise once again and deserve proper treatments under the principle of human rights.

**Project 3: Bangkok Rules**

These rules hold objectives to be the international standards to treat the female inmates for specific prison such as health and hygiene, vulnerability of the female inmates, nurturing children attached to the female inmates and so on. The project has been divided into four parts, i.e. Part I: Rules of General Application, Part II: Rules Applicable to special Categories; Part III: Non-custodial Measures; and Part IV: Research Planning, Evaluation, and Public Awareness Raising.

3. Results of various issues from the Focus Group to brainstorm opinions of participants involved who are law experts of criminal justice administration, social sciences, history, and museum organization as learning center for students, IT, representatives from the Ministry of Justice, public and private sectors and educational institutions; their opinions are:

3.1. Organizing sets of knowledge in the permanent exhibition to present history, justice administration and criminology should add contents and the importance of justice administration that visitors clearly understand the practices of justice administration, social norms and laws, evolution of punishment, roles of witness and community justice, the organization of exhibition on roles, public prosecutors or courts to exhibiting the ethical contents of the justice officers including modeling the interesting prosecution in the justice administration.

3.2. Specify the content structure and the exhibition themes on the Crime and Justice Museum allowing presenting the knowledge of justice administration using innovation and modern learning media and equipment to build interactions with the audience through modern technology such as Hologram/3D and so on to enable response with the audience.

3.3. Rotating exhibitions should have clear segmentation and rotated movie halls focusing on world trend or exhibitions contributed from foreign museums in order to attract visitors to involve in the exhibition for expressing their attitudes on justice administration in the in-house area and to add areas to organize students’ activities such as organizing group discussions.

3.4. In the issues of the monarch roles of Thailand who adopted rule of law to be enforced in the justice administration in each era, it should add the content of “The Royal Pardon”.

3.5. The physical development and facilitation should be concerned on routes of transportation for the disables. Interpreters of foreign languages should be provided such as English and languages in the Asian groups. Spaces for bicycle parking, photo-taking, landmarks, coffee shop, Museum shops and gift
shops should be provided with quality. Such operations should be well supported by the Crime and Justice Museum.

4. Conclusion

1. Establishing the Crime and Justice Museum is the studies and collections of knowledge on justice administration to present the roles of the Thai monarchs who adopt rule of law to be imposed in justice administration in each reign; the importance given to the issue of “justice” incorporated with exploring the histories and the backgrounds of the Thai criminal justice administration and punishment compared with foreign countries. This includes the current knowledge related to the Thai criminal justice administration and the concept in adopting other measures to replace prosecutions and punishment as well as the knowledge related to the pursuance of the royal initiatives of HRH Princess Bajrakitiyabha in various projects which are recognized and renowned at international level and bring the royal grace to the justice administration and promoting the national image. The project implementations of the Crime and Justice Museum would be the collections of the knowledge on justice administration in treating the offenders and their punishments.

2. The researcher has planned the content and the exhibition themes for the Crime and Justice museum as follows:

2.1. Roles and the royal grace of the Thai monarch institution contributed to the justice administration since the past have been adopting rule of law to be the “sanctity of the law” to be fairly imposed in justice administration in each era. Adopting each Majesty’s instructions especially His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej the current king and the royal grace of the Thai monarch institution contributed to various areas related to the Thai justice administration which has been modernized in order to meet the philosophy of “justice”.

2.2. The historical background of the Thai justice administration and punishment, penalty, treating the offenders will be compared with foreign countries since the past including the living conditions of the inmates, the causes of crimes based on criminology.

2.3. The procedures of the Thai prosecution will begin from causes of crime unto verdict, sentence, rehabilitation and the evolution of the concept in the policy shift in the Thai criminal justice administration to the modern world such as the rights and liberty of the accused and defendants in the criminal case. This include optimizing alternative to replace prosecution, imprisonment which strengthening the community and so on.

2.4. The pursuance of the royal initiatives of HRH Princess Bajrakitiyabha in various projects that are recognized and renowned at international level and bring the royal grace to the Thai justice administration and promoting the national image.

3. The targeted groups who will gain benefits from establishing the Crime and Justice Museum are divided into major groups. The major one is the student groups of Law Schools aged more than 18 years who are studying in the freshmen year. The second groups is students from public institutions and private institutions at all levels, justice personnel, and officials who are training at various levels in the Ministry of Justice, justice scholars in the country and from abroad, people in general, and foreign tourists from Asia and around the globe.

4. Establishing the Crime and Justice Museum is to collect the knowledge gained from valid and accountable criminologist academic facts, punishment, justice administration, law and the knowledge related to establish the Crime and Justice Museum while recommending the designs of contents to propose modern models and managerial approaches to link with IT in order to ease understanding and appropriate to the targeted groups who will visit and study within the Crime and Justice Museum through applying the set of knowledge or the manual of organizing the knowledge on justice administration gained from its establishment.

4.1. Support and promote youth, students and people to find the significance of the Rule of Law which prioritize virtues, courses of law and democracy which protect the basic rights of people on politics, social and economy which focusing on the rise of justice and the Thai justice administration.
4.2. Crime and Justice Museum is the first modern center of learning in the Asian region that promote the national image and to further be the prototype of the sustainable learning center for justice administration in the region and in the world.

5. Recommendations from the Study

1. The course of designing the Crime and Justice Museum is to turn all parts of the Suan Rommanee Naj to be the learning center of justice administration regardless within the exhibition buildings and their outdoors and other areas. Every area within the Crime and Justice Museum will be designed with the same concept of “Justice Station” given the chrome climates and mystique and exciting stories that attract for exploration and challenge visitors to be one of the created narrations within the Crime and Justice Museum. This is through explorations where visitors will interact with the exhibition sets to find the justified fact and morality. This is to prove the right and wrong of the process found in societies and to search for the ways to improve the justice administration. However, the design of the knowledge presenting the history, the criminal justice administration and the principle of criminology should add the essence of the justice administration which will ease visitors clearly understand its practices, social norms, laws, evolution of punishment, the essence and roles of witnesses and community justice, role exhibitions, public prosecutors/courts, ethics of the justice personnel in the justice administration and modeling the interested prosecution.

2. Divisions in the Crime and Justice Museum will be:
   2.1. Generality introduction of the Crime and Justice Museum, timeline, histories of the world and of Thailand exhibited on the essence of the justice administration, laws, criminology, and punishment.
   2.2. The Hall of Fame exhibits the monarch institution and the Thai justice administration, royal words, royal instructions, royal pardon and the presentation of the world philosophers such as Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and Theodore Roosevelt and so on.
   2.3. Divisions for photo-taking in 3D or censor screen will lead to the world of justice administration with walkways where visitors can touch and sense the atmosphere of virtual imprisonment directed to the aging prisons.
   2.4. Exploiting the old prison in the Suan Rommanee Naj accommodating 70 cells is to exhibit the histories of punishment since Sukhothai to present and the international punishments at different levels, histories of social in the past in the context of criminology such as the past social conditions, anecdote/history of prisons since the first establishment and exhibitions using virtual techniques which reflects the horrors of punishment, the history of punishment such as the disclosed secret from the gallows, electric-chair execution with the example of the case studies of the serial murderers.
   2.5. Areas should be prepared to cushion rotated exhibitions where there are clear divisions with rotated theatres focusing on world trends or the exhibitions from foreign countries in order to attract visitors to participate in expressing attitudes on justice administration within the museum and adding areas for learning activities such as group discussions.

3. Presenting procedures in justice administration through virtual games should be through technology and interactive devices at international levels and uses of computers and computerized program, modern techno-devices such as hologram/3D where visitors can interact with.

4. This is to present the international principles on human rights, roles of international organization on the world stage which affect Thailand such as UN, UN Fund for woman Development Project, the royal affairs of HRH Princess Bajrakitiyabha witnessed by the Thais, the world civil and UN. HRH Princess Bajrakitiyabha has instituted the project of spiritual supports and enhancing lives for female inmates (ELFI) and Bangkok Rules and other related projects of HRH Royal initiatives that are recognized at international levels that fulfill the Bangkok rules. The themes allow the UN to review the standards for the handling of offenders or inmates, human rights/ international convention such as abducted murder and tortures and so on.

5. In the physical development and facilitation, they should emphasize and concern on routes for transportation of the disable, interpreters such as English and languages in the Asian groups, enlarge the space for parking bicycles, areas of photo-taking, or landmarks, coffee shop, Museum shops and gift shops.
should be provided with quality. Such operations should be well supported by the Crime and Justice Museum.

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The Status of Women Militants Working in Ground Combat in the United States Armed Forces

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Abstract
Achieving gender equality in the workplace is one of the key issues in Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Both men and women then should have equal opportunity in their workplace. Soldier has been seen as a man’s job. The right to fight and lead wars then always belongs to men. This article aims to describe recent changes in women’s role performing ground combat in the United States Armed Forces and to discuss whether these changes reduce gender discrimination in the workplace. To answer this question, documentary research method has been used in this paper. This research found that woman militants are not allowed to work in ground combat before Iraq and Afghanistan wars while some countries allow women working in ground combat. Women who served the military then faced gender discrimination at this time. However, after these two wars, the US Armed Forces allow women to work in ground combat because both men and women must be combat-ready for all times as there was the absence of a clear line between enemy and friendly territory in these two wars. Both men and women then have equal opportunity to work in all units. Nevertheless, the role of women working in ground combat would be different from now if the US Armed Forces do not have the war with Iraq and Afghanistan. The armed forces should not allow women working in combat as there is a strong belief in the military that women are not suited to work in combat and this idea is hard to change.

Keywords: women militants, ground combat, gender discrimination in the workplace, equal opportunity in the military

1. Introduction

In 2000, the United Nations (UN) announced its Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which consisted of eight (8) goals to be completed by 2015. Gender issues form the basis of several of these goals, and are explicitly addressed in the third goal which states that countries should promote gender equality and empower women (United Nations, 2015a). In July 2015, the United Nations reported that member countries has achieved progress towards gender equity. For example, the number of women who have entered the workforce gradually increased to 41 percent from 35 percent in 1990 (United Nations, 2015b, p. 5). However, women still face discrimination in several areas such as education, economic assets and employment (United Nations, 2015b). As the MDGs was ended in September 2015, a new development agenda is needed beyond 2015. On September 25th, 2015, 193 members of the UN commit to 17 goals to achieve in the next 15 years (United Nations, 2015d). These 17 goals are called as Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Gender equality is still one of these 17 goals to be achieved (United Nations, 2015d). The fifth goal states that country members should achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls. This means that the UN sees gender equity as an important issue to end poverty, fight inequality and injustice, and tackle climate change by 2030 (2015b). The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) (United Nations Population Fund, 2015) also argues that achieving gender equality is required for reducing poverty and advancing development. The UNFPA (2015) further explained this point that "gender equality demands the empowerment of women, with a focus on identifying and redressing power imbalances and giving women more autonomy to manage their own lives. When women are empowered, whole families benefit, and these benefits often have a ripple effect on future generations". The United Nations Development Programme (2015a) also support this point by explaining that ending all forms of discriminations against women and girls leads to the development in other areas. Therefore, achieving gender equality should end poverty.

In order to achieve gender equality by 2030, the UN aims to end all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere. This means that discrimination against women in the workplace, especially in the male-dominated occupations, such as policing and the armed forces, should be ended
In society, the right to fight and lead wars always belongs to men. Soldier then has been seen as a man’s job. In the past, women were only allowed to participate in the military only in some circumstances during wartime because “war has usually been defined as a male activity and highly valued masculine characteristics are often associated with it, the image of women warriors has been seen as inherently unsettling” (Carreiras, 2006, p. 5). When the war ended, women then left the military and went back to their home to look after family (Carreiras, 2006). This means that women faced gender discrimination in the armed forces as they were not allow to work in the armed forces same as men. However, this idea was changed in 1970s when most Western countries started to recruit some women to work in the armed forces because of pressures from global trends on gender equity and changing in the military toward force reduction and professionalization (Carreiras, 2006, p. 3). Women started to gain military status and have been trained same as men. At the same time, all country members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) admitted to increase the number of women in the armed forces and allowed women to enter military academies since 2001 (Carreiras, 2006, p. 3).

Feminist activists have played an important role in focusing on the issue of the number and status of women in the military by engaging with the government from both inside and outside. The number of women in the military is gradually increasing (Enloe, 2000). For example, in the United States (US) military in 1975, the number of women uniformed personnel was only two percent (Enloe, 2000, p. 280) and was increased to 14 percent in 2011 (Patten & Parker, 2011). Most women serve in the Air Force – approximately 31 percent of military women are in the Air Force while only 22 percent of men do (Patten & Parker, 2011). In contrast, the number of women is less than men in the Navy – about seven (7) percent of military women are in the Navy compared to 16 percent of men (Patten & Parker, 2011). The growing number of women and these changing roles of women in the military are strong consequences to achieve gender equity.

However, female militants still face discrimination in the workplace, even though the number of women who have been recruited in the armed forces is slightly increasing. Women who work in a masculinize organization are pushed to the margins. For instance, women soldiers are less likely to be promoted or awarded a pension and have experienced sexual harassment that they have little chance to speak out about (Enloe, 2000). In the US Armed Forces, men and women soldiers have been trained similarly, but women are not allowed to work in ground combat same as men.

This article therefore aims to discuss more gender equalities in the military workplace. This paper will be divided into four parts. The first part explains documentary research method that has been used in this article. The second and third parts describe the role of women in ground combat in the US Armed Forces before and after Iraq and Afghanistan wars. These two sections explain how the US Armed Forces defines the term combat that may prevent women to work in ground combat. The last part discuss whether the changing role of women in ground combat before and after Iraq and Afghanistan wars reduce gender discrimination in the workplace.

2. Methodology

This paper uses documentary research method. Both printed and electronic material were used to gather information on the changing role of women working in ground combat in the US Armed Forces before and after Iraq and Afghanistan wars. Document analysis is one research method in qualitative research that has been used in social research which aims to find an explanation for or to understand patterns in social phenomenon (Mogalakwe, 2006). The documentary research method is the analysis of documents that contain information about social phenomenon that researcher would like to study (Mogalakwe, 2006). Payne and Payne (2004) also describe the documentary research method as the technique used to categorize, investigate, interpret and identify the limitations of physical sources. The documentary research method often uses written documents such as books and brochures, journal articles, press releases, newspapers and organizational or institutional reports in both private and public domain. Therefore, documentary research method is used like other analytical methods in reports and journal articles in order to explain social phenomenon.
3. **Women in combat**

3.1 **Women in combat before Iraq and Afghanistan wars**

The military, in particular, is traditionally a highly patriarchal institution where there is a strong notion of ‘combat’ that relies on central concepts of ‘manhood’ and justifications of the superiority of maleness in the social order (Enloe, 1988). In other words, to be a soldier means to have the experience of combat, and combat aims to test a man’s masculinity. Therefore, this notion presents stumbling blocks for women to becoming soldiers because “women must be denied access to ‘the front’, to ‘combat’ so that men can claim a uniqueness and superiority that will justify their dominant position in the social order” (Enloe, 1988, p. 15). Enloe (1988, p. 15) further stated that “to allow the entrance of women into the essential core of the military would throw into confusion of all men’s certainty about their male identity and thus about their claim to privilege in the social order”. This means that although women are allowed to work in the military, Enloe was uncertain that they would be fully admitted as soldiers in combat.

And indeed although women have been recruited into the armed forces, many militaries still believe that they have to recruit and deploy women in limited numbers and roles in order to protect the fundamentally masculinized culture of the military. Enloe (2000) suggests that militaries intend to recruit women to no more than a third of the military’s manpower. She claims that “principally, militarizes seem to believe that if women cannot be controlled effectively, men’s participations in the militarizing enterprise cannot be guaranteed” (Enloe, 2000, p. 294). Both Brian Mitchell (1988) and Martin van Creveld (2001) attempt to prove that there is a lower number of women in the military service in general and in combat because the military leaders believe that women cannot fight wars. Feinman (2000) further explained that there are two reasons why the armed forces believe that women cannot fight wars. The first reason is that women are so much physically weaker and it does not seem appropriate for women to fight wars. The second reason is that the culture of the military forces that has never allowed females to fight wars.

Moreover, the military makes an effort to recruit women without losing the support from the public who hold restricted notions of proper masculinity or proper femininity and without endangering the military’s reputation where men can prove their masculinity. The dominant strategy that has been used to work around these phenomena is that militaries have often recruited women to perform in non-combat duties such as serving in the medical corps, serving in the military police, the military guard units or the military intelligence units in order to preserve the presumably manly aspects of military occupations for men (Enloe, 2007).

The definition of ‘combat’ then is very important. For instance, the NATO, which is an intergovernmental military alliance, has defined what constitutes combat and clearly defines where women can or cannot serve alongside men (Enloe, 2007). The US also has a similar understanding of the role of women as NATO. In the 1980s, the US army redefined the term ‘combat’ to include electricians and carpenters because sometimes electricians and carpenters were called to perform their work at the front. Therefore, women at that time were not allowed to be electricians and carpenters in order to protect them from the dangers of combat (Enloe, 2007, p. 84). In 1994, the Department of Defense (DoD) in the US passed the DoD assignment policy that prohibits:

> ‘the assignment of women to any unit below brigade level whose primary mission is to engage in direct ground combat. Direct ground combat is engaging an enemy on the ground with individual or crew served weapons, while being exposed to hostile fire and to a high probability of direct physical contact with the hostile force’s personnel.’

(DoD, 2009)

The 1994 Combat Exclusion policy blocked women from serving in infantry, artillery, armor, combat engineers and special operations units of battalion size or smaller. In the case that female members of the armed forces may still find themselves in situations that may require combat action, such as defending themselves or their units if they come under attack, women are allowed to fight (Department of Defense, 2009).

The reason that the DoD does not allow women to be assigned in the ground combat is because of combat effectiveness. Combat or operational effectiveness is the key factor to consider on assigning
personnel. The study of the Combat Effectiveness and Gender commented that female soldiers should be excluded from ground combat because their presence should increase the risk for combat unit (Woodward & Winter, 2004). This study explained this point that:

‘under the conditions of high intensity, close-quarter battle, group cohesion becomes of much greater significance to team performance and, in such an environment, failure can have far-reaching and grave consequences. To admit women therefore, would involve a risk without any offsetting gains in terms of combat effectiveness.’


Furthermore, the British Ministry of Defence (MoD) explained why they believed that women would reduce combat effectiveness. The British MoD stated that:

‘in battle, each individual in a team, while under extreme pressure including pervasive uncertainty and imminent fear of death, must summon up the continuing determination to go forward with an absolute focus and impose their will on the enemy. They must then go on to do so again and again over a period of days or even weeks. Even the smallest failure at this level can affect adjoining teams and thus spread to threaten the objectives of the larger unit. We have no way of knowing whether mixed gender teams can develop the bonds of unconditional trust, loyalty and mutual support that must be strong enough to survive the test of closed combat. Nor can we tell what will be the impact on the other members of a team if a member of the opposite sex is killed or maimed. Moreover, there is no way of testing to find out, since no conceivable trial could simulate the full effects of close combat.’

(Woodward & Winter, 2004, p. 291)

This means that the British MoD believed that women are emotional and may not suit to work in emotional work (trust, loyalty and support) in order to secure combat effectiveness. They also believed that women presence in the ground combat has influence on teamwork to fighting units in achieving objectives. This idea may be not fair for women because this explanation to exclude women based on emotion, not physical differences in strength and stamina. Some women may pass the selection test required for ground combat such as infantry training and if they pass it, they inform us that they have the same ability to work in ground combat same as men. Women militants who can pass the selection test, should not be excluded to work in ground combat. However, Woodward and Winter (2004) reviewed literatures about the UK Armed Forces and found that physical strength is important for ground combat, but loyalty and strong support between team member are more important. The objectives for ground combat may fail if there are some women presenting the fighting units. They further explained this point that military is highly masculinity and militants have seen themselves as the “band of brother where trust, loyalty and mutual support ensure that no man is left behind” (Woodward & Winter, 2004, p. 292). Male militants then see women as ‘other’ and not belong to them. Therefore, male militants could not gain trust and loyalty from women militants. In addition, the 1998 Strategic Defense Review (cited in Woodward & Winter, 2004, p. 290) also indicated that “the three Services are wholly committed to maximizing opportunity for women in the Armed Forces, except where this would damage combat effectiveness” in the United Kingdom. In other words, the armed forces in Western countries give similarly opportunities to women and men to enter and to work in any unit, except combat unit.

Not only combat effectiveness, some scholars also believe that women should be protected from harm and should not be killed (Putko, 2008). Skaine (2011) also interviewed Dr. Peter Lillback who is the President of the Westminster Theological Seminary, about universal morals around women in ground combat. Lillback argued that:

‘the duty to protect someone who is more vulnerable to harm and hurt by those who are stronger. Generally speaking, in a just war, you do not put your most vulnerable, most unskilled, those most at risk of harm in the place of danger. You put your most well-prepared, strongest and wisest and developed defenders in the place of battle.…’

(Skaine, 2011, p. 71)
In other words, it is not appropriate to allow women to work in ground combat because women are vulnerable to enemy abuse and atrocity. However, Lillicott supports women working in ground combat if there is a shortage of men in ground combat. In addition, most countries only allow women soldiers to work in ground combat when their countries are in a state of emergency and there is a shortage of men soldiers (Segal, 1995). Table 1 shows the lists of countries that allow women soldiers to work in one or more of the four types of combat (military aircraft, combat ships, ground combat and submarines).

Table 1  Military occupations in which women in other countries serve

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Military aircraft</td>
<td>Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Israel, India, Japan, Morocco, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Pakistan, Portugal, Russia, Singapore, South Africa, South Korea, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Taiwan, Turkey, United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combat ships</td>
<td>Australia, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Denmark, France, Germany, Israel, Italy, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Singapore, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Tunisia, Turkey, United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground combat</td>
<td>Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Israel (some), the Netherlands (except the marines), New Zealand, Norway, Portugal (except marines and combat divers), Spain, South Africa, South Korea, and Sweden. Other nations allow female soldiers to serve in certain Combat Arms positions such as the United Kingdom which allow women to serve in Artillery roles while still excluding them from units with a dedicated Infantry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submarines</td>
<td>Australia, Canada, Spain, Sweden</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Skaine, Women in combat: A reference handbook, Santa Barbara, USA (2001)

Although women militants in some countries allowed to work in the ground combat, women soldiers in the US Armed Forces were still not allowed working in the ground combat at this time even though there were many studies which confirmed that if women soldiers pass the required standard of fitness and endurance in their chosen specialisation, they are able to perform equal or better than male soldiers. The next section will describe the role of women working in combat since 2000s.

3.2 Women in combat during Iraq and Afghanistan wars

The definition of combat have changed since 2001 because the US had to send troops to Iraq and Afghanistan. In the beginning of the 21st century, Operation Enduring Freedom (OEF) in 2001 and Operation Iraqi Freedom (OIF) in 2003 required more soldiers to serve the armed forces. The number of soldiers for crucial jobs, such as bomb disposal and intelligence, were not enough, so, army commanders then had to request more soldiers to work in these areas (Alvarez, 2009). At the same time, the 1994 Combat Exclusion policy was also obsoleted when there was the absence of a clear line between enemy and friendly territory in both Iraq and Afghanistan wars (Service Women's Action Network, 2015). This means that both men and women must be combat-ready for all times. Although the US military forces still forbids women to work in ground combat, the Army commander then explained this by saying that “women have been ‘attached’ to a combat unit rather than ‘assigned’” (Alvarez, 2009). In fact, women militants were assigned to ground combat as members of Forward Support Companies (FSCs), Lioness Teams, Cultural Support Teams (CSTs) and Female Engagement Teams (FETs) in Iraq and Afghanistan wars (Service Women's Action Network, 2015). These women soldiers were trained to search women at checkpoints in these wars because of local cultural sensitivities. This assignment is considered to put female soldiers at risk in the same way it does male soldiers (Myers, 2009). Therefore, the joining of women in ground
combat then made the 1994 policy meaningless and women soldiers also had a chance to prove that they had the same ability as men to work in ground combat.

After these wars, the US army changed the definition of ‘combat’ to be more specific to give women more chances to work in the military and the impact of this is that the submarine corps, armored divisions, fighter plane squadrons, paratroops, infantry regiments and the US Army’s Special Forces are the only areas where women are not allowed to work (Enloe, 2007). In 2009, more than 92 percent of specialist positions were open to women in the military forces (Department of Defense, 2009). Interestingly, Judith Stiehm (2012) who is on a Harvard University panel mentioned that as women are not allowed to be assigned to combat arms, this may be one reason why the number of women in the military is low; certain positions in the armed forces require the experience of combat arms.

In 2005, CNN, USA Today and Gallup conducted surveys about whether women should serve in ground combat. They found that approximately 44 percent agreed that women should be assigned to ground combat (Putko, 2008, p. 28). Moreover, in 2009, Captain Ervin R. Stone prepared a report on Women in Combat: Standardize the Physical Fitness Test. In this report, he proposed that “allowing women who meet the mental and physical combat requirements of the Marine Corps to serve in any military occupational specialty will ensure the military of the future fulfills the expectations of our nation” (Stone, 2009, p. 1). This means any female who perform equal to or better than male soldiers in mental and physical combat are able to work in ground combat with a unified combat standard and proper training. Stone (2009) believes that the Marine Corps should establish the requirement of physical standards for men and women and anyone who passes this requirement should be allowed to work in all fields.

On January 24, 2013, Secretary of Defense Leon Panetta announced that both men and women are eligible to be assigned in ground combat. The DoD ordered all branches of the military to fully integrate women into every job field or request an exception to policy by January 1, 2016 (Kamarck, 2015). After announcing this new policy, there were 14,325 positions that were opened for women in that year (Kamarck, 2015). Panetta further stated that if members of our military can meet the qualifications for a job, then they should have the right to serve, regardless of creed, colour, gender or sexual orientation.

Furthermore, Brownson (2014) conducted research about the equivalency of females in the US Marines Corps, which is one of the toughest and most masculine of all military organizations. Brownson (2014) explained that the term ‘equivalent’ is opposed to the term ‘equal’ to understand “the distinction between the physicality, skills and behaviors both males and females bring to their Marine Corps experience. In other words, even though female marines may not have ‘equal’ strength and endurance to male marines, females can be accepted as ‘equivalent’ when they prove to male peers that they perform competently and professionally in their chosen specialism. In the Marine Corps, both females and males have to pass the required standard of fitness and endurance in their chosen specialism. Normally, most female marines cannot pass tests or perform the physical standards of marine infantry, which is the hardest combat role. Female marines who want to work in the combat arms, like marine infantry, cannot simply be equivalent to male marines, but they must be the physical equals to their male peers. Therefore, at present only a few women are qualified to work in combat arms (Brownson, 2014). The accession of women in the combat arms in the US military forces is approximately one percent or less (A.C. King, 2014, p. 385).

However, most female marines pass the lower standard of fitness and endurance to work in noncombat specialisms (Brownson, 2014). Brownson’s (2014) research further confirmed that female marines who are able to demonstrate their ability to meet the physical standards and their professional competence have been accepted as equivalent to male marines. In addition, King (2014) indicated that women soldiers should be allowed to work in ground combat in 2016 in the US and some of the combat troops will be all female.

Interestingly, the military services should further be improved if the armed forces allows women to work with men in the ground combat. King (2013) argues that the armed forces at present rely on the combat performance which are training and professional competence. This means that individuals are judged on their professional ability, not on their gender. He further explained that if the infantry judges female militants from their ability, not their gender when they allow female militants to work in the ground combat in 2016, female militants who have professional ability should be integrated into the infantry and work as strong militants for country. A good example which clearly shows that female militants have the same ability as male militants to work in ground combat, is that there were two female militants who have
been recognized as heroism in the Iraq and Afghanistan wars and they earned Silver Star medals which are the nation’s third-highest medal (Burrelli, 2013). Both these two female militants worked in the ground combat and have fought alongside men in these two wars. The next section will discuss whether these changes reduce gender discrimination in the workplace.

4. Discussion

In workplace context, ‘discrimination’ refers to employers who treat male and female employees differently (Crosby & Stockdale, 2007; Giele & Stebbins, 2003). The term ‘gender discrimination’ refers to practices whereby employers refuse to hire and promote any person or who treat any person differentially because of their gender (Gregory, 2003). In the US, the term sex discrimination has been used instead of gender discrimination. According to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, sex discrimination refers to “an unlawful employment practice for an employer to … fail or refuse to hire or discharge any individual or otherwise to discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions or privileges of employment because of such individual’s … sex” (“Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964,” 1964). To achieve gender equality in the workplace, the Armed Forces Overarching Personnel Strategy also stated that:

‘to achieve universal acceptance and application of a working environment free from harassment, intimidation and unlawful discrimination, in which all have equal opportunity, consistent with our legal obligations, to realize their full potential in contributing to the maintenance and enhancement of operational effectiveness.’

(Ministry of Defence, 2000)

This means that to have gender equality in the workplace, men and women who work in the armed forces should have the same opportunities to work in ground combat.

In this case, it shows clearly that there is the changing role of women in ground combat before and after the Iraq and Afghanistan wars. Before the Iraq and Afghanistan wars, female militants faced gender discrimination in the US Armed Forces. Female militants did not have the same chances as men to work in ground combat because the DoD passed the 1994 Combat Exclusion Policy to exclude women from being assigned to ground combat. This policy is used as a good excuse to exclude women from ground combat and this is called gender discrimination in the workplace. However, in 2001, the definition of combat was changed. Women are allowed to work in many positions that have not been seen as feminine work, but still not allow to be assigned in ground combat. Later, the DoD announced that both men and women are eligible to be assigned in ground combat in January 2013. This means that men and women have the same chances to work in all unit. This means that female militants face less gender discrimination in the armed forces as the DoD still allows fighting units to submit their proposal to exclude women by January 2016. The changing roles of women militants in ground combat clearly show that there is an improvement to achieve gender equality in the US Armed Forces.¹

A good example to inform that there is less gender discrimination in the armed forces is that women are allowed to be assigned to the Marine Corp. After Secretary of Defense Leon Panetta announced that women are eligible to be assigned in all units in 2013, the Marines Corp which is a unit in ground combat which is one of the last all-male bastions in the military starts to look for women to serve in this unit. Twenty-six women have attempted to the three-month infantry officer course (CBS News, 2015). However, all of them have to drop out from this course on the first day because of the brutal training that women are not able to pass it. Brigadier General George Smith who is the officer in charge of the Marine Infantry Officer Course explained about this point that the course “is designed just right and there are no plans to change it” because “the realities of combat are not going to change based on gender as the enemy does not care whether you are a male or female” (CBS News, 2015). The reason that women do not pass the course training is that the body structure of woman is different from man. Women’s hips do not design to carry the heavy loads that are required for combat. In this test, both men and women are required to carry

¹ There are several types of gender discrimination in the workplace, such as the gender pay gap, welfare and promotion. However, this article is only interested in gender discrimination in the workplace, that is, when women and are treated differently in the workplace because of their gender. For instance, men and women do not have the same chance to do the same work.
a 14 kilogram of pack and rifle and they do not know that how long they have to carry it. Men militants can carry it at least for 14 hours while women cannot do it (CBS News, 2015). Therefore, there are no women who has passed this course in the past two years. The Marine Corp is still all male militants even though women are eligible to be assigned. This is a good example to show that both men and women have the same chance in the armed forces to work in all units even though no women do pass those required course training.

However, there is a question that need to be asked here if the US Armed Forces did not have to send troops to Iraq and Afghanistan wars; there are enough soldiers to serve the military, will the armed forces allow women to work in all units same as nowadays? The answer of this question should be ‘no’ even though the armed forces show that they are strongly supporting equal opportunity in the workplace. A good example to support this case is the British Armed Forces which is a member of NATO and send troops to Iraq and Afghanistan wars same as the US Armed Forces. The British Armed Forces also shows high positive and enthusiastic to provide equal opportunity in the armed forces. In March 1999, the British Armed Forces Minister announced that “Every day is International Women’s Day in the modern Armed Forces” when the armed forces allow women to be assigned to some specialist positions, exclude ground combat (Woodward & Winter, 2004). Woodward and Winter (2004) further stated that in the military, there is a highly masculine culture that male are different from women and the latter are not suitable to work in ground combat. This idea is very hard to be changed. Furthermore, Christine Cnossen (cited in Woodward & Winter, 2004, p. 296) argued that “even when faced with personnel shortages, the military desperately attempts to exclude women from ground combat positions and constantly revises based on studied and unstudied areas in order to justify its exclusionary policies”. This means that the major reason that the armed forces exclude women from ground combat is a culturally based reason rather than biological. As mentioned earlier that working as a team in ground combat requires a strong loyalty and support in achieving objectives. It is then impossible for a highly masculine organization like the military that men and women gain trust and loyalty from each other. Therefore, it is quite hard to believe that the US Armed Forces will allow women working in ground combat as like what happened today.

In conclusion, there is a changing policy in the US Armed Forces after Iraq and Afghanistan wars to allow women to work in ground combat. This creates equal opportunity between men and women in the military. Women militants then face less gender discrimination in the armed forces. However, this situation should be changed. Women militants still face gender discrimination if the US Armed Forces do not have to send troops to Iraq and Afghanistan wars because the US Armed Forces may not allow women to work in all units as there is the culture of the military that has never allowed females to fight wars.

5. References


RANGSIT JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES (RJSH)

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The editorial staff are indebted for their kindness and commitment to the Journal and the academic profession. We gratefully appreciated their contributions.

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APPENDIX B

RANGSIT JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES (RJSH)

NOTE FOR AUTHORS

1. Aims and Scope
Rangsit Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (RJSH) is an international scholarly journal officially published biannually, in print and on-line. The months of publication are January and July. It is a multidisciplinary journal that aims to provide a high profile vehicle for publication of various new issues in different academic areas. The scope of the Journal encompasses, but is not limited to, social sciences, and humanities.

2. Submission Deadline
Submissions are to be permanently open. A manuscript submitted between July 1st and December 31st will be considered for publication in the January-June Issue of the subsequent year whereas a manuscript submitted between January 1st and June 30th will be considered for publication in the July-December Issue.

3. Categories of Articles
The Journal accepts the following types of articles:

1. Research Articles: A research article is a regular quantitative or qualitative article which aims to present new findings or interpretations.
2. Notes or Address: A brief record of something or speech written down that presents important issues.
3. Review Articles: There are two types of review articles: non-systematic (or journalistic) reviews and systematic reviews. Non-systematic or journalistic reviews provide a summary of evidence derived from primary studies that have been selected and synthesized according to the author's personal and professional perspective. Non-systematic reviews can cover a wide range of subject matter at various levels of totality and comprehensiveness. Systematic reviews, on the other hand, provide summaries of related primary studies that have been searched for, evaluated, and selected and reported according to a rigorous methodology.
4. Innovations: An innovation is an article which aims to present creative arts and designs, procedures or devices.
5. Comments or Critiques: A comment or critique is a short article that makes comments or replies to a comment on another article already published by this Journal.
6. Book Reviews: A book review is a short article that is written by a specialist and read by the general community. The aim of a book review is to give a brief summary of the book's strengths and weaknesses and to evaluate the book's overall usefulness to the audience it is intended for.

Research articles, review articles, and innovations should not exceed 15 pages of standard A4 paper using RJSH format. Notes, comments or critiques, and book review should not exceed 5 pages. Template for research articles is available at www.rsu.ac.th/rjsh. All categories of articles must coincide with manuscript preparation instruction (see Manuscript Preparation Section).

4. Editorial Policies
RJSH accepts only the work that has not been published; that is not under consideration for publication, elsewhere; and that its publication has been approved by all co-authors and the relevant authorities responsible at the institute where the work was conducted. Submission also implies that the authors have already obtained all necessary permissions for the inclusion of copyrighted materials, such as figures and tables from other publications. Previously published work will not be considered for publication. Submitting a copied piece of writing as one’s own original work is considered plagiarism. The Journal is published by Rangsit University Press, Thailand. Contributions are in English. Copyright is by the publisher and the authors.
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Review Process: RJSH assumes responsibility for insuring that submitted manuscripts receive expert and unbiased reviews. RJSH strives to complete a peer review of all submitted papers and the publication of accepted manuscripts in a timely manner and to keep the authors informed of any problems with their manuscript. All submitted manuscripts are initially evaluated by the Editor-in-Chief in consultation with members of the Editorial Board before being sent for double-blind review. RJSH is under no obligation to submit every manuscript to formal peer review. Manuscripts that are judged by the editors to be inferior or inappropriate for publication in the Journal may, at the discretion of the Editor-in-Chief, be rejected without formal written reviews by referees. RJSH attempts to obtain at least two written reviews for each manuscript that is entered into the peer review process, although the Editor-in-Chief has the discretion to make final decisions about the disposition of a manuscript with fewer than two reviews. The reviewers’ evaluations will be used by the editors to decide whether the paper should be accepted, revised or rejected. A copy of the referees’ comments will be sent to the corresponding authors whose paper needs revision. All reviewers serve anonymously and their identities are protected by the confidentiality policy of RJSH.

Confidentiality: As is customary for the peer review process, RJSH holds the identity of authors and the contents of all submitted manuscripts in confidence until such time as the papers are published. This confidentiality extends to the comments of editors and reviewers that have evaluated the paper; these comments and reviews are released only to the corresponding author. Co-authors may have access to these documents either by obtaining them directly from the corresponding author or by submitting to RJSH a letter of request that has been signed by the corresponding author. Similarly, RJSH expects that editors and reviewers will maintain strict confidentiality of the authors’ identities and the contents of manuscripts that they examine during the review process, and furthermore, will never disclose the contents (either orally or in writing) of documents related to the peer review of a manuscript. A violation of this policy is considered a serious breach of trust.

Research Involving Animals or Humans: Authors must state in the manuscript that the work was approved by, at least, their institutional ethical review board for any research involving human and animal subjects. These approvals are required for publication in RJSH.

5. Manuscript Preparation

General Instruction: Submit your manuscript in both PDF and MS word formats. Manuscripts are acceptable in both US and UK English, but the use of either must be consistent throughout the manuscript. Please note that the editors reserve the right to adjust style to certain standards of uniformity.

Format: Unless specified, type text with 10-point Times New Roman font on 12-point line spacing, with a 1.25 inch left margin, 1 inch bottom and right margin, 2 inch top margin, 1.2 inch header, and 0.6 inch footer. Main text is set in single column. First lines of paragraphs are indented 0.5 inch. For hard copy, use standard A4 paper, one side only. Use ordinary upper- and lower-case letters throughout, except where italics are required. For titles, section headings and subheadings, tables, figure captions, and authors’ names in the text and reference list: use ordinary upper- and lower-case letters throughout. Start headings at the left margin. If you wish, you may indicate ranking of complicated section headings and subheadings with numerals (1, 1.1, 1.1.1). Try not to exceed three ranks. All pages must be numbered in the top right-hand corner.

Title: Use 11-point bold font on 12-point line spacing. The length of the title of the article must not exceed 2 lines. A title should be concise and informative. The alignment of the title is centered.

Author Names: Use 10-point font on 11-point line spacing. Centered alignment and leave one line space below the title of the article. Begin with the first name of the author followed by the last name. For more
than one author, separate each name by a comma (,), and identify each author’s affiliation by superscript numbers at the end of the author’s last name.

Author Affiliations: Use 9-point font on 10-point line spacing. Centered alignment and leave one line space below the author names. Include institutional and e-mail addresses for all authors. Place superscript numbers at the beginning of each affiliation accordingly.

Abstract: Use 10-point font on 11-point line spacing for heading and 9-point font on 11-point line spacing for abstract content. An abstract of up to 250 words must be included as and when appropriate. For research papers; the purpose and setting of the research, the principal findings and major conclusions, and the paper's contribution to knowledge should be briefly stated. For empirical papers the locations of the study should be clearly stated, as should the methods and nature of the sample, and a summary of the findings and conclusion. Please note that excessive statistical details should be avoided, abbreviations/acronyms used only if essential or firmly established.

Keywords: List up to 6 keywords and separate each keyword by a comma (,). The keywords should accurately reflect the content of the article. The keywords will be used for indexing purposes.

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Author.(Year of publication)./Title of Abstract (abstract)./Journal Title./Volume(Issue)./Page number.
Example:

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Author.(Year of publication)./Book Title./Edition (if any)./Place of publication./Publisher.
Example:

Book Articles
Author.(Year of publication)./Article Title./Book Title (Page Numbers)./Edition (if any)./Place of publication./Publisher.
Example:

**Conference and Seminar Proceedings**
To cite proceedings that are published regularly, use the same format as for a journal article. To cite proceedings that are published in book form, use the same format as for an article in a book.

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Author./(Year of publication)./Title of dissertation or thesis./Type of Thesis./Awarding Institution.
Example:

**Editorials**
Author./(Year of publication)./Title of Editorial (editorial)./Journal Title./Volume(Issue),/Page numbers.
Example:

**Journal Articles**
Author./(Year of publication)./Article Title./Journal Title./Volume(Issue)/Page numbers.
Example:


**Letters**
Author./(Year of publication)./Title of Letter./Journal Title./Volume(Issue)/Page number.
Example:

**Notes**
Author./(Year of publication)./Title of Note./Journal Title./Volume(Issue)/Page number.
Example:

**Unpublished/In Press Articles**
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Example:

**Illustrations and Figures:** All illustrations should be provided in a file format and resolution suitable for reproduction, e.g., EPS, JPEG or TIFF formats, without retouching. Photographs, charts and diagrams should be referred to as "Figure(s)" and should be numbered consecutively in the order to which they are referred. In addition to placing figures with figure captions into the main text, **submit each figure individually as a separate file.**

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6. **Manuscript Submission**
Manuscripts should be submitted electronically to the Editor-in-Chief as an attachment to an e-mail (RJSH@rsu.ac.th), in word processing format. The *RJSH* submission form must be completed. Included in the submission form are: (a) the title and authors, (b) complete contact information for the corresponding author (mailing address, e-mail address, and telephone and fax numbers), (c) confirmation of the originality of the reported work, (d) approval of the submitted version of the manuscript by all authors, and (e) the authors’ consent for publication in *RJSH*, if accepted. The submission form is available at http://www.rsu.ac.th/RJSH/.

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There are four editorial decisions: Accept, Accept with Minor Revision, Resubmit with Major Revision, and Reject. A Reject decision is definitive and authors may not submit a new version of the manuscript to the *RJSH*. A Resubmit with Major Revision requires a major re-write of the manuscript and/or inclusion of significant new data, and thus the creation of a new manuscript, which will thus be assigned a new submission date. An Accept with Minor Revision decision implies that the paper can, in principle, attain the required standard of the *Journal* without major change. Editors may or may not have a revised manuscript reviewed (generally, by the original reviewers), in order to ascertain whether changes to the original manuscript adequately responded to the criticisms. If changes made do not result in a paper of the required standard, the revised manuscript will be definitively rejected. If a revised manuscript of “Accept with Minor Revision” is accepted, the original submission date will be retained.

8. **Copyright Agreement**
Once a manuscript is accepted for publication, authors will be required to sign a Copyright Transfer Agreement form (CTA). CTA is available at http://www.rsu.ac.th/RJSH/CTA/. Signature of the CTA is a condition of publication and papers will not be passed for production unless a signed form has been received. Please note that signature of the Copyright Transfer Agreement does not affect ownership of copyright in the material. Please submit the completed form with the final version of the manuscript back to the Editor-in-Chief.

9. **Further Reading**
The following resources will provide valuable guidelines for the preparation of manuscripts.
APPENDIX C

RANGSIT JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES (RJSH)

Please note that the paper size is standard A4 size (approx 8.27 x 11.69 in)

Type your title here using 11-point Times New Roman bold font on 12-point line spacing.
The length of the title of the article must not exceed 2 lines.

Author Names (Use 10-point Times New Roman font on 11-point line spacing.
Begin with the first name of the author followed by the last name. For more than one author, type ‘and’ before the last author’s name. For more than two authors, also separate each name by a comma (,). Identify each author’s affiliation by superscript numbers at the end of the author’s last name.)

Author Affiliations (Use 9-point Times New Roman font on 10-point line spacing.
Include institutional and e-mail addresses for all authors. Place superscript number in front of author’s affiliation corresponding to author’s name.)

Submitted date month, year; accepted in final form date month, year (To be completed by RJSH)

Abstract (10-point bold font on 11-point line spacing)
For abstract content, use 9-point Times New Roman font on 11-point line spacing. First line is indented 0.5 inch. An abstract of up to 250 words must be included. Include your major findings in a useful and concise manner. Include a problem statement, objectives, brief methods, results, and the significance of your findings.

Keywords: List up to 6 keywords and separate each keyword by a comma (,). The keywords should accurately reflect the content of the article. The keywords will be used for indexing purposes.

1. Introduction
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The introduction should put the focus of the manuscript into a broader context. As you compose the introduction, think of readers who are not experts in this field. Include a brief review of the key literature. If there are relevant controversies or disagreements in the field, they should be mentioned so that a non-expert reader can find out about these issues further. The introduction should conclude with a brief statement of the overall aim of the experiments.

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Figure 1 Figure caption
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The discussion should spell out the major conclusions of the work along with some explanation or speculation on the significance of these conclusions. How do the conclusions affect the existing assumptions and models in the field? How can future research build on these observations? What are the key experiments that must be done? The discussion should be concise and tightly argued. Conclusions firmly established by the presented data, hypotheses supported by the presented data, and speculations suggested by the presented data should be clearly identified as such. The results and discussion may be combined into one section, if desired.

6. Conclusion
The Conclusion section restates the major findings and suggests further research.

7. Acknowledgements
People who contributed to the work but do not fit criteria for authorship should be listed in the Acknowledgements, along with their contributions. It is the authors’ responsibility to ensure that anyone named in the acknowledgments agrees to being so named. The funding sources that have supported the work should be included in the acknowledgments.
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