Journal of Shinawatra University
วารสารมหาวิทยาลัยชินวัตร

Aims and Scope

The Journal of Shinawatra University's main objective is to publish high quality, peer-reviewed previously unpublished papers on topics related to the fields of Liberal Arts, Business and Management, Information Technology, Management Technology, Public Administration, Health Science and Nursing, Mass Communications and Education.

Editor's Introduction

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On behalf of all members of Shinawatra University, I am delighted to welcome readers to the first issue of the Journal of Shinawatra University. This journal is intended to publish high quality academic papers in a range of disciplines with which the university is associated. Papers are double-blind peer reviewed.

At a time of political and social discord, when the beliefs of so many people are informed primarily if not exclusively by gossip and unsupported allegations, there is a greater than ever need for academic journals to help people focus on what is the nature of knowledge, what evidence for different positions exists and what is the meaning of truth and reality. This should be approached not just as an experiment in epistemology in its own right but as a way for people in society to try to achieve reconciliation through following what is really known and what is not known. When we can no longer talk to each other because our opinions have hardened into what we think are 'facts,' then divisiveness becomes systemic and is almost impossible to heal. It is impractical for a single academic journal to hope to resolve these larger societal problems but it is possible to provide another example of good practice to set alongside those of our colleagues here in Thailand and elsewhere.

In this journal, we hope to employ an inclusive approach to academic studies and particularly value papers which are interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary or trans-disciplinary in nature. We also welcome papers that challenge the many unexamined assumptions of contemporary life and which aim to advance knowledge for the benefit of society. To encourage inclusiveness further, we are happy to accept papers written in English or Thai.

We would like to take this opportunity to thank Robert Kirkpatrick, the founding editor of this journal.

John Walsh

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Book Reviews

State Administration and Promoting Good Governance

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Abstract

After a state is first established, its purposes and how it seeks to achieve successful administration change over time. The first part of this paper reviews the aforementioned developments and comes up with the notion of governance as a means to achieve the happiness, rights and liberty of its citizens. The second part characterizes various dimensions of governance and formulates the hypothetical statements of factors influencing good governance. The third part illustrates the governance positions of Thailand, 9 other ASEAN countries and some 17 selected countries drawing from the World Bank survey of 212 countries from 1996-2009. The last part offers a number of ways to promote good governance based on the experiences of Thailand and the United Nations.

Keywords: governance, public-private partnerships, Thailand,

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1. Introduction

After a state is first established, its purposes and how it seeks to achieve successful administration change over time. At the time of Socrates (469-399 BCE), many states were ruled by the absolute power of the elite and for the happiness of those in power not for the well-being of the citizens as a whole. It was Socrates who proposed the famous philosophical dictum that "knowledge is virtue"- the best state must promote education and produce as many as possible of the most knowledgeable citizens since only educated people should be eligible to rule. An educated ruler is expected to rule by virtue to promote the justice and happiness of the citizens. Plato (427-347 BCE) argued that the state social structure should be designed to produce the so-called philosopher king - the noblest ruler who will rule for the public interest and on behalf of the quality of life of the citizens. Aristotle (384-322 BCE) indicated the non-existence of a perfect ruler and suggested the establishment of the rule of law as the state's basic principle so as to guarantee the rights of citizens, as well as their liberty and equality. The state should also functions to promote education, develop infrastructure and prevent war in order to maintain peace and build state prosperity. Polybius (204-122 BCE) added a system of checks and balances as a major mechanism for the successful enforcement of the rule of law. Cicero (106–43 BCE) confirmed the principle of giving equal protection to all citizens.

Seneca (3 BCE–65 CE), an advisor to Emperor Nero, acknowledged that the effectiveness of a state depends upon its ability successfully to enforce the law and to maintain peace and order.

In the twelfth century, John of Salisbury (1120-1180 CE) applied the Divine Right theory to the administration of the state. A ruler, as the representative of God, must be obeyed unconditionally by the citizens. Thomas Aquinas (1227-1274 CE) countered by suggesting that there is a need to establish legal means to expel a tyrant and that just keeping the peace in a country may not be adequate; in addition, state welfare should be provided to upgrade the level of citizens' qualities of life and to promote economic and social equality. The role of the state is, therefore, a positive one that aims directly to satisfy the needs of its citizens.

For Niccolò Machiavelli (1469-1527 CE), in contrast to Aquinas, the aim of the state is to maintain national unity and to preserve state power. In so doing, as a ruler, the end may justify the means. Jean Bodin (1530-1596 CE) argued that the state's principal purpose is not to ensure the stability of the ruler but to enhance the happiness of its citizens in terms of both mind and body. The basic principle of the state is, therefore, to develop the family institution for the reason that families are the centre of socializing their members with all desirable virtues: honesty, conscience, morality, tolerance, unselfishness, loyalty, responsibility, respect for rights, etc.-to the benefit of society as a whole.

Another different view of how to administer the state comes from Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679 CE). In Leviathan, Hobbes proposed the theory of the social contract. A state is established to protect its citizens and to function as a centre to promote all the interests of the citizens. Citizens, in return, have to surrender some rights to the state so as to receive state protection in turn. If a state fails to guarantee the safety of the citizens, then it may lose its legitimacy as a state.

John Locke (1632-1704 CE)'s Two Treaties of Civil Government, published in 1689, explained his own approach to the social contract theory, which is that a state exists because citizens sacrificed their own rights for the establishment of the political entity. The state's principal function is to guarantee well-being and individual happiness as well as the liberty of citizens. In addition, to guarantee citizens' liberty and property rights, power should be separated between the administrative and legislative branches. When either the administrative or legislative branches is unable to protect the life, liberty and rights of all citizens or when it acts against the public interest, then citizens are entitled to withdraw their support and cease the social contract, restoring it again when those who would wield it demonstrate their worth. The citizens of the state are, therefore, the real sovereigns, not the administrative or the legislative branches. They

contract with the state and assign functional responsibility to its agencies but never agree to make a contract that places them under the power of the ruler without rights.

Almost half a century later, Charles Montesquieu (1689-1755 CE) contributed significantly to the theory of power separation. His work -The Spirit of Laws (1748) – postulated that the administration of a state may be doomed to fail and the political systems, in particular, may no longer be able to survive if the three branches of power - executive, legislative, and judicial - are to be controlled by a single ruler or the same group of persons. Civil liberties would not be preserved and justice in the state would be eventually destroyed unless there is a clear separation of those powers and the organized systems of checks and balances. Montesquieu's work greatly influenced the design of the constitution of the United States and made concrete the many mechanisms of checks and balances among the executive, legislative and judicial branches of the USA and many other countries.

Approaching the last quarter of the eighteenth century, it was Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778 CE) who advocated the elimination of human disparity as the ultimate end of state administration. It is the duty and responsibility of a state to help its citizens free from various life and generation confinements, such as the vicious circle of under-education, poverty and illness. Apart from being a pioneer of so-called "proto-socialism," Rousseau also introduced a new concept of the social contract that differed from those proposed by Hobbes and Locke. Rousseau's social contract is one made between all citizens and the Government. Sovereign power belongs to the citizens. The obligation of the government is to put the general will or the desires and interests of the people as a whole into action. If the government deviates or performs against this general will and governs instead according to its own will or self-interest, it is the legitimate power of all citizens to take part in the political system freely and bring the sovereign power back from the government.

Overall, Rousseau's contribution has greatly influenced and inspired intellectuals and it led to a great, widespread and comprehensive change in politics and the administration of many countries around the world. In the French Revolution of 1789, Rousseau's social contract was cited by middle-class intellectuals as a manual for retrieving their rights to participate in the administration of the state from the royal household, the bourgeoisie and the political elites. These kinds of uprisings still occur in the twenty-first century and have spread around the globe to Africa, South America and Asia. What most of those people are fighting for are common goals. They are fighting for their rights, liberty, happiness and better lives and the means to achieve those goals. In short, what they have fought and are to fight and search for can be characterized as the notion of good governance - the means, that is, to achieve

the happiness, rights and liberty of the citizens.

2. Governance: Views, Dimensions and Indicators

According to Kaufman, Kraay & Mastruzzi (2009:5), "*Governance consists of the tradition and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised. This includes the process by which governments are selected, monitored and replaced; the capacity of the government to effectively formulate and implement sound policies and the respect of citizens and the state for the institutions that govern economic and social interactions among them.*"

The World Bank (1994) sees different levels of governance in different states that vary because of types of political systems, processes of exercising state power in managing and developing social and economic resources and governmental capability in formulating policies and putting policies into place.

The United Nations defined governance as "*… the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs*" (Cheemea & Rondinelli, 2007:6). It offered good governance that consists of the major principles of how to govern, citizen participation, the rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus-orientation, equity, coverage, non-discrimination and accountability. Governance is thus perceived by the UNDP as "*… the processes through which government, civil society organizations and the private sector interact with each other in shaping public affairs and through which citizens articulate their interests, mediate their differences, and exercise their political, economic, and social rights*"(*ibid.*:6).

The International Monetary Fund (1997) suggested the need to promote the rule of law, increases in government efficiency and accountability as well as the fight to eliminate corruption as among the best means to achieve good governance.

The Organization for Economic Cooperation Development argued that good governance is based on the degree of democratization, accountability of politicians and civil servants, mass media freedom, transparency and mechanisms to check government power, civil rights and the rule of law and government policies and implementation effectiveness (The World Bank, 1994).

These different views and dimensions of governance share a common underlying political philosophy. Governance concerns means and ends. It invites all parties concerned – the public sector, the private sector and civil society- to participate and find ways to achieve the desired ultimate outcomes. Further, the outcomes of governance possess hierarchical values ranking from the safety of the citizens, peace and prosperity, to the efficiency and effectiveness of public service, satisfaction, fairness, equity, equality and harmony, institutionalization,

sustainable development and the highest value of the rights, liberty and happiness of the citizens. Governance is defined here as a means to achieve citizens' happiness, to protect individuals' basic rights and liberty, as well as to come up with those desired ultimate outcomes.

Concerning how to achieve the ultimate goals of governance, the World Bank provided six dimensions of governance and a number of indicators. Those dimensions are (1) voice and accountability; (2) political stability and absence of violence; (3) government effectiveness; (4) regulatory quality; (5) rule of law and (6) control of corruption (Kaufmann, Kraay & Mastruzzi, 2009).

Voice and Accountability: This indicator of governance concerns the extent to which citizens of a particular country are able to participate in selecting their government, as well as freedom of expression, freedom of association and a free media. Voice and accountability enhances the chance of successful governance.

Political Stability and Absence of Violence: This indicator refers to the likelihood that the government will be destabilized or overthrown by unconstitutional or violent means, including politically-motivated violence and terrorism. It is hypothesized that the more political instability there is, the lower the level of governance performance and, similarly, the higher the frequency of violent incidents, the higher the level of governance failure.

Government Effectiveness: This indicator reflects the quality of public services, the quality of the civil service and the degree of its independence from political pressures, the quality of policy formulation and implementation and the credibility of the government's commitment to such policies. The level of governance success depends in part upon government effectiveness.

Regulatory Quality: This indicator focuses on the ability of the government to formulate and implement sound policies and regulations that permit and promote private sector development. If the regulatory quality hinders the development of the private sector, the level of governance performance will be lower.

Rule of Law: The indicator captures perceptions of the extent to which all concerned parties have confidence in and abide by the rules of society. Compliance in contract enforcement and property rights are among the major concerns. The behaviour of the police and the performance of the courts, as well as the likelihood of crime and violence, will also be measured. The more that agencies have confidence in and abide by the rule of law, the higher the level of good governance.

Control of Corruption: This indicator measures the extent to which public power is exercised for private gain. Petty and grand forms of corruption, as well

as "capture" of the state by elites and private interests, are included in the evaluation. It is hypothesized that the ability to control corruption would significantly determine the level of good governance.

These six broad categories of governance have been utilized by the World Bank as indicators to survey the governance positions of more than two hundred countries since 1996. The researchers assembled many individual sources of data on governance perceptions and established an unobserved components model as a statistical methodology to construct aggregate indicators from those individual measures. According to the researchers, these aggregate indicators were weighted averages of the basic data, with weights reflecting the accuracy of the individual data sources. Margins of error were also established for the estimates of governance for each country and were taken into consideration when the researchers were to make comparisons of governance across countries and over time (Kaufman, Kraay & Mastruzzi, 2009:6).

3. Governance Positions of Thailand, ASEAN and 17 Other Selected Countries

This part of the paper illustrates the governance positions of Thailand and the nine other ASEAN countries and some 17 selected countries using data drawn from the World Bank survey of 212 countries from 1996-2009 (Kaufman, Kraay & Mastruzzi, 2010). In addition to Thailand, the ASEAN countries are Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore and Vietnam. The other 17 countries, which have been carefully selected, are Bhutan, China, India, Iran, Japan, South Korea and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) from Asia; Australia and New Zealand from Oceania; Germany and Sweden from Europe; Canada and the U.S.A. from North America; Bolivia and Chile from South America and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DR Congo) and Morocco from Africa. The reason for this selection is to mix countries from the same continent which have performed well with others which have performed badly. In addition, some countries like China have been chosen because of their size, population and economic power. Bhutan is intentionally selected because it is the first country in the world aiming for gross national happiness.

Where Thailand and other countries stand according to each indicator will be shown in percentile rankings. The highest ranking country is given the 99th percentile (99) and the worst would have the lowest score (1). The years of 1996, 2005, 2006, and 2009 are selected to compare the performance of each country and to observe trends. The year 1996 is the first year of the World Bank survey and 2009 is the most recent survey available. The year 2006 marks the year the Thai democratic government was overthrown by the military junta and the author intends to indicate the comparative change in governance

performance with the year 2005.

3.1. Voice and Accountability

The survey results are as follows:

Countries	1996	2005	2006	2009
1. Sweden	96	96	97	99
2.New Zealand	99	98	97	96
3. Canada	97	95	96	96
4. Australia	92	96	95	95
5. Germany	90	95	96	94
6. U.S.A.	91	90	87	87
7. Japan	74	80	77	81
8. Chile	70	90	78	75
9. South Korea	63	71	69	69
10. India	62	62	60	60
11. Indonesia	15	44	43	49
12. Bolivia	54	41	50	48
13. Philippines	53	51	47	46
14. Thailand	59	50	30	34
15. Singapore	42	51	36	33
16. Malaysia	39	45	30	31
17. Morocco	39	27	28	28
18. U.A.E.	37	26	20	28
19. Bhutan	10 (*1998*)	19	25	23
20. Brunei	15	20	18	28
21. Cambodia	20	19	25	23
22. DR Congo	4	6	10	10
23. Iran	20	13	9	8
24. Vietnam	10	9	8	8
25. Laos	18	5	7	6
26. China	7	7	6	6
27. Myanmar	1	1	1	1

Table 1: *Voice and Accountability Indicators;* **source:** *Adapted by the Author from The World Bank (various years).*

The top three rated countries for this indicator are Sweden, New Zealand and Canada, which represent different continents. Japan comes first in Asia while Indonesia emerges first among the ASEAN countries. The percentile ranks of all top ten countries in the years 1996, 2005, 2006, and 2009 are in stable positions. Some countries like DR Congo and Brunei are slightly trending upwards, while Iran and Laos are seen to be trending downwards. Myanmar remains lowest-ranked in all the surveys, reflecting the severe problems of governance in

this dimension. Thailand slips from the first to the third place in the ASEAN countries due to the coup d'état. The 50th percentile rank in 2005 dropped sharply to the 30th percentile rank in 2006. However, Thailand recovered slightly to the 34th percentile rank in 2009 after returning to partial democracy a few years later.

3.2. Political Stability and Absence of Violence

The survey results are as follows:

Countries	1996	2005	2006	2009
1. Brunei	92	92	93	95
2. Singapore	73	85	92	90
3. Sweden	94	90	95	88
4. New Zealand	90	90	92	85
5. Canada	80	78	83	85
6. U.A.E.	74	72	75	84
7. Japan	75	82	84	83
8. Germany	91	76	82	78
9. Australia	81	80	80	77
10. Bhutan	92	96	80	70
11. Chile	63	78	67	70
12. U.S.A.	79	50	60	60
13. South Korea	42	62	57	52
14. Vietnam	56	58	59	51
15. Malaysia	58	60	56	47
16. Laos	88	39	45	43
17. Bolivia	39	20	22	30
18. China	33	36	32	30
19. Morocco	37	29	30	28
20. Indonesia	16	15	15	24
21. Cambodia	10	31	32	25
22. Thailand	48	30	19	15
23. Philippines	26	18	10	10
24. India	18	19	18	10
25. Iran	32	22	15	9
26. Myanmar	12	18	19	7
27. D.R. Congo	1	2	2	5

Table 2: *Political Stability and Absence of Violence Indicators;* **source:** *Adapted by the Author from The World Bank (various years).*

Two ASEAN countries, Brunei and Singapore, have the highest scores in terms of political stability and the absence of violence. From 27 selected countries, the U.A.E., Japan and Bhutan are also ranked in the top ten. Sweden, New Zealand

and Canada are in the top five. The Philippines, India, Iran and Myanmar have been trending downwards. U.S.A and Laos witness some major change when comparing between 1996 and 2009. The percentile ranks of U.S.A. slip from 79th to 60th, while Laos dropped from 88th to 43rd. The D.R. Congo is ranked in the last place but the trend is slightly better. Other countries have some minor changes which are not significant. Thailand is seen in the sharply downward moving-trend, dropping from 48th to 15th percentile rank. Among ASEAN countries, Thailand slips from the sixth to eighth place behind Cambodia, Indonesia, and Laos, to name a few. Reasons are mainly from the 2006 coup d'état, the mass protest for democracy and the lingering problems of fighting and disorders in three southern border provinces.

3.3. Government Effectiveness

Countries	1996	2005	2006	2009
1. Singapore	96	98	99	99
2. Sweden	96	97	96	98
3.New Zealand	98	94	92	97
4. Canada	94	96	97	96
5. Australia	89	95	95	95
6. Germany	96	90	91	92
7. U.S.A.	95	90	90	90
8. Japan	86	89	90	87
9. Chile	82	86	86	86
10. South Korea	78	82	83	83
11. U.A.E.	74	72	75	84
12. Malaysia	79	83	84	80
13. Brunei	83	69	77	75
14. Bhutan	70	68	66	65
15. Thailand	69	67	65	60
16. China	58	50	56	59
17. India	53	54	55	54
18. Philippines	57	53	53	50
19. Morocco	56	47	52	49
20.Indonesia	61	38	45	47
21. Vietnam	49	49	50	46
22.Bolivia	48	29	30	37
23. Iran	32	32	33	32
24. Cambodia	9	18	17	26
25.Laos	25	10	18	15
26. DR Congo	4	3	2	2
27. Myanmar	9	2	4	1

Table 3: *Government Effectiveness Indicators;* **source:** *adapted by the author from The World Bank.*

Singapore is ranked as the top country in government effectiveness, while Japan and Korea are in the top ten. Sweden, New Zealand, Canada and Australia are in the top five. Malaysia and Brunei are the second and the third ASEAN countries respectively. Cambodia is improving but Myanmar has slipped to the bottom. Thailand scores in the 60th percentile and is fourth in ASEAN countries. The trend has been slightly downwards since the 2006 coup d'état.

3.4. Regulatory Quality

The survey results are as follows:

Countries	1996	2005	2006	2009
1. Singapore	99	99	98	99
2. New Zealand	98	97	97	98
3. Australia	89	95	95	98
4. Sweden	90	91	91	97
5. Canada	84	93	94	96
6. Chile	97	92	92	94
7. Germany	90	91	93	92
8. U.S.A.	96	97	97	90
9. Brunei	99	77	79	82
10. Japan	65	87	88	80
11. Korea	64	73	72	75
12. U.A. E.	74	70	70	67
13. Thailand	62	64	60	62
14. Malaysia	72	67	67	60
15. Philippines	65	52	51	52
16. Morocco	47	40	50	52
17. China	51	49	43	47
18. Indonesia	60	37	43	42
19. India	39	48	49	40
20. Cambodia	50	36	28	40
21. Vietnam	34	29	30	30
22. Bolivia	59	25	20	23
23. Laos	4	10	10	15
24. Bhutan	31	50	49	14
25. Dr Congo	3	3	10	5
26. Iran	6	10	7	4
27. Myanmar	19	1	1	1

Table 4: *Regulatory Quality Indicators;* **source:** *Adapted by the author from The World Bank (various years).*

Singapore is ranked at the top of the world in the governance dimension of regulatory quality. New Zealand, Australia, Sweden and Canada have been

consistently in the top five. Chile has the high score of 94th percentile, while Bolivia has slipped down to the 23rd percentile. Brunei is second in ASEAN countries. Laos has climbed to the 15th percentile but Myanmar has fallen to the 1st percentile. Thailand is ranked third in ASEAN countries and sixth in Asia, with the percentile of 62nd. The country slipped from 64th percentile to 60th from 2005 to the coup d'état year of 2006. The very minimal decrease here reflects the increasing role and strength of the private sector in national development.

3.5. Rule of Law

The survey results are as follows:

Countries	1996	2005	2006	2009
1. Sweden	97	96	97	99
2. New Zealand	99	97	97	98
3. Canada	95	94	96	96
4. Australia	97	94	95	95
5. Germany	94	93	93	93
6. Singapore	92	95	92	92
7. U.S.A.	93	92	92	92
8. Chile	88	89	90	88
9. Japan	89	88	90	88
10. South Korea	78	81	72	82
11. Brunei	69	60	60	72
12. Malaysia	75	66	67	65
13. U.A.E.	70	63	62	63
14. Bhutan	10	60	60	60
15. India	61	57	56	55
16. Thailand	70	57	54	50
17. Morocco	63	50	50	50
18. China	50	40	39	46
19. Vietnam	35	46	43	41
20. Philippines	58	43	46	36
21. Indonesia	45	25	29	34
22. Iran	37	30	23	20
23. Laos	2	17	20	19
24. Cambodia	15	9	10	16
25. Bolivia	47	27	22	14
26. Myanmar	11	3	4	4
27. DR Congo	1	4	2	2

Table 5: *Rule of Law Indicators;* **source:** *Adapted by the Author from The World Bank (various years).*

Sweden and New Zealand are perceived as the best governance countries

according to the rule of law dimension. Singapore is rated the best in Asia, followed by Japan and South Korea. Brunei and Malaysia come second and third among the ASEAN countries, while Myanmar is near the bottom. Thailand slipped from being the third of the ASEAN countries in the 1996 survey to the fourth in the latest survey. The score decreased significantly from the 70th percentile to the 50th percentile, reflecting chronic problems in the political and administrative systems.

3.6. Control of Corruption

The survey results are as follows:

Countries	1996	2005	2006	2009
1. New Zealand	99	99	99	99
2. Sweden	98	97	98	98
3. Canada	97	94	94	96
4. Australia	93	95	95	96
5. Singapore	96	98	97	95
6. Germany	95	93	92	93
7. Chile	88	90	90	89
8. Japan	80	85	90	88
9. U.S.A.	90	90	85	86
10. Brunei	68	62	62	80
11. U.A.E.	55	82	80	80
12. Bhutan	76	77	75	75
13. South Korea	69	71	70	70
14. Malaysia	75	65	67	58
15. Thailand	40	55	50	51
16. Morocco	66	48	40	48
17.India	40	42	49	45
18. Vietnam	39	26	29	38
19. China	58	29	38	37
20. Bolivia	23	27	40	30
21. Indonesia	31	20	25	29
22. Philippines	52	38	27	28
23. Iran	29	40	40	26
24. Laos	40	10	9	10
25. Cambodia	11	12	10	10
26. DR Congo	1	4	3	5
27. Myanmar	7	1	1	1

Table 6: *Control of Corruption Indicators;* **source:** *Adapted by the Author from The World Bank (various years).*

New Zealand has been rated the best in the world in this category. Singapore,

Japan and Brunei comes first, second and third among Asian countries, respectively. Malaysia is third among the ASEAN countries. The Philippines has declined from being the third in ASEAN countries to sixth with the percentile of 28th. Laos has been moving downwards. Myanmar is considered the worst in the world.

Thailand has been improving from the percentile of 40th in the 1996 survey to the percentile of 51st in the 2009 survey and ranks fourth among the ASEAN countries. The improvement is mainly due to more effective implementation of the anti-corruption law.

4. Promoting Good Governance

Promoting good governance in Thailand as well as other countries requires many comprehensive strategies, actions and principles in increasing governance performance according to various dimensions.

Political stability and democracy is the key for sustainable governmental effectiveness. Since the 1932 Revolution, many Thai governments have been overthrown by unconstitutional means, mainly by military coup d'états. Corruption and struggle among political elites and the weaknesses of the non-bureaucratic sources of power are perhaps the root causes of the problems. The royal Thai army has maintained its power behind the scenes and stepped in when the situation was ripe. Most of the time, the military junta has claimed there is an unavoidable need to solve the country's many problems and to protect the monarchy institution through military intervention. However, as time passed, the continuing deterioration of the country became evident, as well as the deepening of widespread conflict among political factions as well as citizens in many regions. Mass political demonstrations and violence in the past few years call urgently for reconciliation. Fair elections and the restoration of democracy are the first steps for regaining an acceptable level of political legitimacy. A number of other government actions are required, such as providing adequate and fair compensation to families who have suffered losses and people who have been injured. Double standards by the government and authorities in its policies towards certain groups of people must not be tolerated. The military, like other institutions in society, should perform its duty to the best of its ability and must never be allowed to control and interfere with the political system again. Citizens throughout the country must be socialized so that they can take guard against dictators and others wishing to take away their political rights, liberty and freedom. Citizens at the grass roots level should be continuously educated to become massive forces in the protection of their own rights and liberties.

Combating corruption is also on the national agenda. Successful control of

corruption requires honest political leaders as well as public officials and, in particular, transparency building of governmental agencies at all levels. As corruption concerns givers and receivers, private sector leaders should also join hands in declaring a no- bribe policy to any political authorities and public officials. The National Audit Agency is also expected to play a vital role in monitoring and evaluating government agency public expenditures. Since corruption is characterized as embedded in the culture in certain countries like Thailand, the National Anti-Corruption Agency and civil society bodies have to strengthen their forces in combating and overcoming it.

Public sector governance reforms should also be implemented at the central government and local government levels. At the central government level, budgetary reforms are required to improve strategy prioritization and resource allocation and to stabilize public sector finances. In recent years the Thai Government, with the assistance of Asian Development Bank, has developed the Social Sector Programme that aims to support activities and policy reforms in the fields of labour, health and social welfare. The key reform is to improve the targeting of poverty spending through the Bureau of Budget Allocation based on actual incidences of poverty (ADB, 2000:34).

At the local government level, it is necessary to formalize the division of responsibilities between central and local government agencies as a precondition for success in public service delivery. Education is the key area for decentralization. In Thailand, centralization of education management has led to slow progress in human resource development and has increased inequalities in education service and quality between rich and poor families (Buracom, 2011).

For the state-owned enterprises, privatization and management reform should be implemented to enhance competition, efficiency, transparency and private sector development. In general, public-private partnerships (PPPs) in the delivery of public services are required (Osborne, 2010:149-162). The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (2008, foreword) characterizes PPPs as a balanced approach in combining the best of both worlds: "… the private sector with its resources, management skills and technology; and the public sector with its regulatory actions and protection of the public interest." The implementation of PPPs directly involves the key principles of good governance (United Nations, 2008:13-14): participation (the degree of involvement of all stakeholders); decency (the degree to which the formation and stewardship of the rules is undertaken without harming or causing grievance to people); transparency (the degree of clarity and openness with which decisions are made); accountability (the extent to which political actors are responsible to society for what they say and do); fairness (the degree to which rules apply equally to everyone in society); and efficiency (the extent to which limited

human and financial resources are applied without waste, delay or corruption or without prejudicing future generations).

To conclude this part on how to promote good governance, the author would like to present several principles on how to implement PPPs successfully, as proposed by the United Nations (2008:18-64), as follows:

(1) The PPP process requires coherent policies that lay down clear objectives and principles, identifies projects, sets realistic targets and the means of achieving them, with the overall aim of winning the support of the population for the PPP approach.

(2) Governments can build the necessary capacities in a combined approach which establishes new institutions and trains public officials, while at the same time using external expertise.

(3) Investors in PPPs need predictability and security in legal frameworks, which means fewer, simpler and better rules. In addition, the legal framework needs to take account of the beneficiaries and empower them to participate in legal processes, protecting their rights and guaranteeing them access in decision-making.

(4) PPPs allow risk which is most able to be managed by the private sector, to be transferred to that sector. However, governments also need to accept their share and help to mitigate those risks allocated to the private sector in mutual support.

(5) The selection of the bidder should be undertaken following a transparent, neutral and non-discriminatory process that promotes competition and strikes a balance between the need to reduce the length of time and cost of the bid process and acquiring the best proposal. Along these lines, corruption should be penalized.

(6) The PPP process should put people first by increasing accountability and transparency in projects and through these improving people's livelihoods, especially the socially and economically disadvantaged.

(7) The PPP process should integrate the principles of sustainable development into PPP projects, by reflecting environmental considerations in the objectives of the project, setting specifications and awarding projects to those bidders who fully match the green criteria.

In addition, many cases of successful implementation results concerning good practices and innovations in governance can be further studied in detail from the United Nation Public Service Awards Programme (United Nations, 2011).

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Effects of Verbalization on L2 Listening Test Performance

Yo In' Nami & Rie Koizumi

Abstract

Verbal protocol analysis is a method widely used to examine learners' cognitive processes. Although it was originally popular in psychology and related fields, it has been increasingly applied in the field of language testing and second language acquisition. Nevertheless, a few concerns have been raised about the possible effects of verbalization on learners' L2 task performance. This study investigated (a) the effects of non-metalinguistic (i.e., reporting of thoughts per se, rather than reporting of rationales and reasons) verbalization on L2 listening test performance and (b) the relationship among such effects, learners' proficiency level (KET or below, PET, or FCE or above), and test method (multiple-choice or open-ended). The participants were 311 Japanese learners of English, among whom 241 participants were assigned to the silent condition and 70 were instructed to verbalize their thoughts immediately after listening to a tape. In regard to (a), the use of non-metalinguistic verbalization did not influence listening test scores. In regard to (b), the non-effect was consistently observed across the three levels of listening proficiency and two test methods. These results support the appropriateness of using non-metalinguistic verbalization in an L2 listening test.

Keywords: listening, proficiency level, reactivity, think-aloud, verbal protocol

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1. Introduction

In order to understand better the cognitive processes involved in language testing and second language acquisition (SLA), it is essential to examine these processes as directly as possible. One method that helps researchers in conducting more direct observations of cognitive processes is verbal protocol analysis (Ericsson & Simon, 1993), in which learners are instructed to verbalize their thoughts while or immediately after performing a task. Verbal protocol analysis has been widely used in psychology (e.g., Biggs, Rosman & Sergenian, 1993; Brinkman, 1993; Olson, Duffy & Mack, 1984) and L1 studies (e.g., Cordón & Day, 1996; Farr, Pritchard & Smitten, 1990). It has also increasingly attracted attention in L2 research, including language testing and SLA. However, despite the increasing use of verbal protocol analysis, only a limited number of

Native Speaking English Teachers as Perceived by South Korean Elementary and Middle School Students

Christopher J. Dawe[2]

Abstract

English language acquisition has become increasingly important to South Koreans as they strive to compete in the globalized economy. As the demand for English education has increased, the Korean government has responded by, among other initiatives, creating the English Program in Korea (EPIK). This program brings native English speakers from Anglophone countries to South Korea as assistant English teachers. This paper reports the findings of a survey given to over 1,000 Korean elementary and middle school children. The students were asked several questions on a Likert scale to gauge their opinions on a variety of aspects of their EPIK teachers. Broadly speaking, the respondents indicated high levels of satisfaction with their teachers across all questions.

Keywords: EPIK, South Korea, Native Speaking English Teacher (NSET), ESL

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1. Introduction

South Korea in the past decade has extensively recruited English teachers from Anglophone countries as a supplement to the efforts of Korean English language instructors. Including employees at private institutions, by 2008 there were nearly 22,000 Native Speaking English Teachers (NSETs) in South Korea, coming predominantly from the United States and Canada (Limb, 2008). Debate has raged over the effectiveness of the NSETs, their qualifications and, sometimes, their perceived moral turpitude (Jin, 2005). Some Korean citizens complain bitterly about these teachers while others see them as both necessary and helpful in Korea's quest to become more globally competitive. This is, perhaps, to be

Effect of Walking Stress on Word Stress Errors and Retention of EFL Learners: a Comparison of Turkish and Farsi Native Speakers

Shahram Afraz, Hamed Ghaemi and Yaser Kheyrkahnia

Abstract

This paper proposes an effective English word stress teaching method based on walking stress for learning word stress to the required level. Homogenous groups of male and female students have been selected randomly in both Turkish and Farsi speaking groups. A production-test was designed using 40 syllabic words which the participants would read aloud clearly and their voices were recorded for subsequent evaluation. It has been used as pre-, post- and delayed tests. It was piloted on a small group of subjects to estimate its reliability in advance. The purpose of the second delayed test was to see which method of instruction had more impact on the students' word stress retention and could sustain their word stress learning for longer periods of time. The results and findings of the present study confirm the supports of walking stress for word stress learning and retention of Turkish group better than the Farsi group.

Keywords: Farsi, Turkish, walking stress, word stress

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1. Introduction

Having good pronunciation for an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learner is critical because English is not the native language. To teach pronunciation to Iranian EFL learners effectively, it must be taken into account that "Iran, a multicultural society, is home to a number of language communities speaking Farsi, Turkish, Kurdish, Arabic, and so on" (Khadivi. & Kalantari, 2011). English teachers can have great difficulties in teaching pronunciation to their multilingual and bilingual Iranian EFL learners. Thus, teachers may need to design an appropriate teaching method to help their students master pronunciation. This paper investigates and evaluates an effective technique in

Knowledge, Trust, Gender, and Three Dimensions of Attitudes toward Nuclear Power Plant in Thai University Students

Vutthi Bhanthumnavin & Duchduen Bhanthumnavin

Abstract

This comparative study was aimed at investigating the relationships among trust in the government, gender, knowledge of nuclear power plants (NPP) and the three components of attitudes toward NPP. Attitudes toward NPP were measured in terms of three dimensions: cognitive, affective and behavioral tendency. Trust in the government referred to one's beliefs and emotional disposition that the government will do its best, reduce corruption and display more integrity on NPP construction and management. Knowledge of NPP consisted of three dimensions: safety, advanced technology, and social aspects. Measures mostly were in the form of summated ratings with 6 unit-Likert scales. Reliability of these measures ranged between 0.6518 to 0.9267. The sample in this study, obtained by stratified quota random sampling method, consisted of 817 Thai undergraduate students, with the average age of 21.41 years, average GPA of 2.66. Three hundred and fifty three students were science majors (43.2%), and the rest (464 students, 56.8%) were social science majors. It was found that trust in the government, as well as knowledge of NPP were positively and significantly related to all three dimensions of attitudes toward the NPP. Results from three-way ANOVA revealed that males were more favourable to NPP in terms of affective and behavioural tendency than females. The findings also revealed that males with high trust in the government and more knowledge of NPP got the highest score on cognitive dimension. This result was found in the total sample and, especially, in social science students. These results supported the three hypotheses in this study. Path Analysis indicated that trust in the government and knowledge of NPP directly affected cognitive aspect and affective aspect, while theses two aspects directly affected behavioural tendency. Comparisons were made with the results from studies of online tax and mobile banking adoptions concerning the important of institutional-based trust, together with technical knowledge in explaining the three components of attitudes towards NPP. The present results were found to be associated with the Technological Acceptance Model (TAM), and the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). Suggestions for future research and practices were offered.

Keywords: Attitude towards NPP, Knowledge, Thailand, Trust in the Government, University Students.

An Exploration of Discoursal Construction of Identity in Academic Writing

Davud Kuhi and Masumeh Rahimivand

Abstract

The view that academic writing is purely objective, impersonal and informational, which is often reflected in English for academic purposes (EAP) materials, has been criticized by a number of researchers (e.g. Bazerman, 1988; Flottum et al.,2006; Fortanet, 2004; Harwood, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c; Hyland, 2001; Myers, 1989, 1990; Swales, 1990; Vassileva, 1998, 2001). By now, the view of academic writing as embodying interaction among writers, readers and the academic community as a whole has been established (Hyland, 2001, 2005). Following this assumption, this study focused on how second/foreign language writers enact, construct and invent themselves through writing. In this study, the theoretical stance on identity is grounded in Ivanič's (1998) four interrelated aspects of writer identity, namely autobiographical self, discoursal self, authorial self and possibilities for self-hood in the socio-cultural and institutional contexts. Hyland's model of metadiscourse (2004a; 2005a) is used as the analytical tool for analyzing texts. Based on a corpus of 30 research articles, the overall distribution of evidential markers, hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mentions were calculated across three rhetorical sections (Abstract, Introduction and Discussion & Conclusion) of the research articles. According to results of this study, identity is a critical aspect of writing and it should be brought into the mainstream of second/foreign language writing pedagogy through consciousness raising or the specific teaching of certain features.

Keywords: academic writing, identity, self, metadiscourse, English for academic purposes

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1. Introduction and Review of the Related Literature

One of the most important social practices in the academic world is writing. When social interactions occur in the academic community, a text is a place where knowledge and writer's identities are constructed, negotiated and created.

A Case Study of First Year Students' English Progress at Shinawatra University

Robert H. Burgess and Catherine E. Owens

Abstract

A large number of universities compete for students in central Thailand. Many of these are private and offer international programmes of study, usually in an English medium of instruction. Shinawatra University has a small but highly diverse enrolment, drawing students mainly from Thailand, other ASEAN, South Asian and African countries. One feature of the student population is the range of English language proficiency Knowledge of the incoming students' diverse levels of English ability prompted the tracking of English course related data on the entering cohort of undergraduate students through academic year 2012. The aim was to determine some of the variables in support of English language learning and proficiency development. Over two semesters, scores on several academic and English language measures formed the basis for analysis of these learners. Results indicate that attendance and English vocabulary level correlate highly with academic English subject success, while institutionalized placement, streaming and high standards give learners support and/or incentives for success. This analysis provides an impetus for decision-making regarding the academic development and learning interventions needed to optimise success for subsequent first year intakes.

Keywords: academic development, best practice, intervention, placement, vocabulary levels test

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1. Introduction

Understanding the academic needs of first year undergraduates provides an institution with the opportunity to optimise its individual pathways to success. Newcomers to tertiary institutions face a set of new conditions, such as the need for independent learning, self-motivation, time management, social and cultural adjustments and economic constraints, to name just a few (Krause, Hartley, James & McInnis, 2005; Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh & Whitt, 2010; Webster & Showers, 2011). The ability of an institution to guide its new intake through

Book Reviews

The Thai Food Complex: From the Rice Fields to Industrial and Organic Foods

Roland Poupon

Bangkok: White Lotus Press, 2013

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338 + xxvi pp.

There can be little doubt that agriculture remains of central importance to Thailand's political and economic development. Significant news stories in 2013 have included protests by rubber farmers about the conditions they face and wide-ranging discussions of the state and nature of the national rice-pledging scheme, which provides a guaranteed minimum price to farmers Even though the number of farmers is decreasing and the average age of those remaining is increasing, agricultural production is still highly significant in exporting and in spreading the reputation of Thai food as representing one of the world's most esteemed cuisines. The tropical climate and the fertile land, especially around the central region, provide excellent conditions for growing not just rice but a wide range of fruits and vegetables, which are complemented by exotic seafood, fish and the many millions of chickens, pigs and other livestock that feed the people of Thailand and those of a wide variety of other countries. This has been brought about by the inventiveness of the private sector and its interactions with the often paternalistic public sector. The way that this has happened and its implications forms the subject of Roland Poupon's book, which has recently been published in Bangkok by White Lotus but first appeared in 2010 in the original French courtesy of the Institut de Recherche sur l'Asie Sud-Est Contemporaine (IRASEC) and Kailash. The new edition meets the high standards expected from the published and the translation is unobtrusive.

Poupon is described as a geographer, a food engineer and an international consultant and, as these terms indicate, he draws upon a wide range of methods of analysis to marshal his various arguments. One thing that is welcome is his quite extensive use of French language sources, since these are not always considered in English language scholarship. The work is divided into four sections, each of which is a more or less self-contained extended essay covering

the principal issues relevant to the subject The first of these is "Thai Agriculture: A System of Smallholder Farms" and this is followed by "The Food Processing Industry: Sino-Thai Businesses," "The World of Markets from Village Brokers to International Traders" and, finally, "Development models and Alter-Green Revolutions." It is possible to deduce from the selection of topics and the style and mode of discourse the underlying ideology that Poupon brings to this book but the author himself lays out no specific argument or thesis and no specific method of analysis. Indeed, the feeling is generation when reading the book is that the author was primarily motivated by trying to find answers to questions which has intrigued him and the desire to communicate this to others was secondary. That is not necessarily a bad thing, of course. However, there are moments when the author might have benefited from being challenged to justify certain conclusions or lines of argument on the grounds of a specific theoretical framework. This is the case with the final section, in particular, which includes a treatment of the 'Alter-Green Revolution' and features a search of an unusual kind: "Perhaps a path can be found among farming practices that society has so far rejected that would meet the expectations of the most innovative, value-creating, Sloanist, post-modern markets (p.235)." It is not clear that all of these terms have been appropriately defined and located within a coherent and consistent approach.

Overall, the text is informative and convincing and it is evident that the author has devoted a considerable amount of time to studying the subject He is particularly informative when it comes to the strategies and methods of organization of firms within agro-industrial production and the ways in which government agencies have created policies and institutions that have made markets in Thailand conducive to the desired economic growth. The insistence on the importance of Chinese ethnicity as a factor in explaining the ability to manage a trading company is a little wearing and some conclusions might be questioned but these are minor quibbles. This is a splendid attempt to make sense of the agricultural industry of Thailand from a commercial, political and social perspective and so is much to be welcomed.

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Thirst: Water and Power in the Ancient World

Steven Mithen

Phoenix: London, 2013

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347 + xvii pp.

Water is essential to human life and the possibility of civilization and it is no surprise that efforts to ensure a sufficient supply has featured as being among the most important responsibilities of a monarch to manage. It was this responsibility that inspired Karl Wittfogel, writing primarily about the Khmer Empire of Angkor, to propose the 'hydraulic empire' – that is, water management on such a scale required forced labour and a substantial bureaucracy which, he argued, were both typical of the type of despotic tyranny characteristic of Asia. One of the findings of Steven Mithen's excellent book is that community-level organization of water sources took place in some societies without extensive top-down management. Instead, it appears that village-level communities were in some cases able to organize their own water supply systems autonomously. Some readers will be put in mind of Charthip Natsupha's description of the Thai villages of the past, which were content to be left in idyllic and tranquil isolation. In practice, the likelihood is that most people throughout history have been in a position somewhere between the two extremes, since very location-specific knowledge needed to be combined with the ability to create infrastructure using often only very limited tools – Mithen tellingly uses a phrase of the great Joseph Needham, 'a million men with teaspoons,' to describe how the major water management projects in China were completed. However, for such projects even to be considered, water had to be present at the outset because it is necessary for the three conditions necessary for civilization to emerge. Mithen describes these as productive agriculture, almost certainly supported by irrigation, trading networks and waterways for the rapid and convenient transportation of goods (p.65). To some extent, then, water management can emerge from community level activities but in due course a centralized authority will be required to ensure coordination of activities and sufficient planning to make sure that the whole system remains in operation. When it comes to the central state, therefore the issue becomes one of legitimacy as much as comfort or efficiency. Rulers who cannot ensure consistent supply of water, in other words, are at risk of losing the equivalent of the mandate of heaven. Unfortunately, the problems of salination and sedimentation are so

significant that it led to the collapse of some civilizations, irrespective of the effort and ingenuity that had been devoted to the maintenance of the system. This was the ultimate fate of the Sumerians and, later, the Hohokam people whose history is now overlaid by the American city of Phoenix. On the other hand, the engineering triumphs of the Roman and Chinese empires remain important parts of the water supply in the twenty-first century and are likely to continue in that role for some years to come.

Mithen, who was assisted in preparing the manuscript by his wife Sue, provides ten case studies, ranging from the earliest traces of water engineering in the Levant from as much as 1.5 million years ago through to the civilization of the Incas, which flourished until the second half of the C16th. These are bookended by literate and well-informed introductory and concluding chapters and the text is well-illustrated by a number of colour photos and some line diagrams. Of particular interest this reviewer are the chapters on China and Angkor. The chapter on China indicates the extent of the engineering that has been completed and, as is so often the case with that country, the staggering size and scope of the works involved. The chapter on Angkor is refreshingly clear and well-explained: one of the difficulties often encountered in approaching Khmer history is the confusion that often surrounds names and dates. Here, Mithen has outlined the extent of Khmer hydrology and dealt intelligently with the available archaeological evidence and the various interpretations of the use of water that have been offered – notably by Groslier.

It is possible to quibble with the choice of the case studies – there is no coverage of South Asia, for example – but those that have been chosen seem to offer a good range of societies and an interesting array of technical and climatic problems to tackle. As an archaeologist, Mithen is particularly assured when discussing archaeological evidence and, in particular, the development of arguments about water management in a specific area. He has his heroes in this respect and writes about them with both respect and enthusiasm. There is no overarching theoretical framework, although the relationship with power is noted and this is perhaps understandably the case. This leads to conclusions that can be slightly underwhelming in that relationships between power and technology within societies cannot very often be transferred elsewhere. However, as noted in the closing pages, there is much more to learn and much more to discover about this subject. Future volumes along the same lines, updated with what remains to be discovered, will be happily received.

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