A HISTORY OF THAI EDUCATION

Ministry of Education

April 1, 1976
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PREFACE

It is customary for the Ministry of Education to celebrate its anniversary, which falls on April 1, every year. The year 1976 is the 84th anniversary, which according to the Thai tradition completes the 7th cycle of the Ministry’s existence, one cycle being of 12 years duration; and this is considered a special occasion indeed.

Measuring up to the importance of the event, the Under-Secretary of State for Education, Mr. Charoon Vongsayanha, suggested that a history of Thai education, in the English language, should be written and published as part of the commemoration. The suggestion was well received by the Ministry, and a committee was quickly established to do the work. The persons serving on the committee are:

Professor Rong Syamananda  Advisor
Professor Saroj Buasri  Chairman
Mr. Chaloem Yuviengjaya  Vice-Chairman
Mrs. Yowewarin Chandanamattha  Member
M.R. Saisingh Siributr  Member
Miss Napa Bhongbhibhhat  Member
Mrs. Srinai Povatong  Member
Mr. Rakkiat Ratanamani  Member
Miss Lamai Preuksariya  Member
Miss Somsong Buasai  Member
Mr. Pochara Theerathorn  Member
Miss Tareetip Sookaraycdhin  Member
Mrs. Savitri Suwansathit  Member and secretary

The committee worked on the outline of the book immediately; and the responsibilities for the writing and the editing of the various chapters were
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distributed to the different members of the committee. The time being limited and the book being the first attempt, it was decided that it should be concise, yet presenting a complete picture of total educational development. The book contains, as a consequence, topics like

- “The Beginning” giving a short description of education as known during the ancient regimes. (From the Sukothai Period till the end of the reign of King Rama III)

- “The Turning Point” which may be considered as the take-off period in the Thai education history. (From the reign of King Rama IV through the period of the Educational Scheme of 1898 (B.E. 2441) till the end of the reign of King Rama V)

- “The Magnificent Journey” denoting the period during which big strides and great expansions were made. (From the reign of King Rama VI through the Revolution of 1932 till the end of World War II)

“The Magnificent Journey” marks the end of the historical note; but it was deemed proper to include also “The Contemporary Scene” to complete the picture and to serve as a basis for future study.

Insofar as the reliable sources of data for the book are concerned, the authors depended heavily on the book “The History of the Ministry of Education”, written in Thai earlier by a committee chaired by Professor Rong Syamananda, and also on a variety of official documents put out by the various departments of the Ministry of Education.

Now that the book has been completed, on behalf of the Ministry of Education, I would like to take this opportunity to express deep thanks and sincere appreciation to all the members of the committee, who, on top of their regular strenuous duty, have given so liberally of their time and effort. Their good deeds will stay long in the memory of all concerned.

Thanks should also go to the External Relations Division of the Ministry of Education for rendering the secretarial services to the Committee in compiling and preparing the draft as well as the edited version of the book.
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A debt of kindness is also deeply owed to the “Trade Organization” of the Teachers’ Institute, which undertook to print and distribute this book for the Ministry of Education.

In conclusion, it is expected that this concise history of Thai Education may serve as a point of departure for those who have cultivated an interest in Thai education and how it has attained its present form.

A beginning having been made, a continuation of the work, improvement or re-writing will some day ensue.

SAROJ BUASRI
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Chairman of the Committee

Ministry of Education
Bangkok, Thailand
(April 1, 1976)
Chapter I

THE BEGINNING

1. The Sukhothai Period (A.D. 1238-1378)

Education in Thailand may be said to have assumed a definite form during the Sukhothai period, particularly in the reign of Ramkamhaeng the Great (A.D. 1279-1300), who, among other achievements, is remembered for the invention of the Thai alphabet. He created in 1283 the first Thai alphabet, using as its basis the Mon and Khmer scripts which had, in turn, been derived from a South Indian script. He employed for the first time the new alphabet in his stone inscription of 1292 at Sukhothai, with all the consonants and vowels written on the same lines. The alphabet which was introduced by him had undergone some changes and is still in use now.

Obviously King Ramkamhaeng took a personal interest in the education of his people, both in the moral and intellectual aspects. Lanka Buddhism, which spread into Sukhothai at that time, had a great influence in the early development of education during that period. King Ramkamhaeng himself, being a devout Buddhist, persuaded his people to observe the simple Buddhist precepts, to make merit and give alms, and to attend a sermon regularly. He had a stone seat or the Manangkasila Throne, (now kept in the Vihara Yod within the Temple of the Emerald Buddha), erected in the midst of a palmyra palm grove, where, at his request, a monk preached a sermon on every Buddhist pre-sabbath day and Buddhist sabbath day, and he conducted the affairs of the State on other days.

Intellectually, Sukhothai period saw many great scholars and writers, notably King Lihai (1368 to 1374), the author of Tribhumikatha and Nang Revadi Nopamas, a court lady who wrote the Nopanas Story. This testified that education for girls in the Sukhothai period was not confined to home crafts only but literacy and literary skill were also known among them.
The art of making Buddha images, both large and small, may be said to have reached perfection during the Sukhothai period. The famous image of the Buddha, Pra Buddha Jinaraj or Lord of Victory, which now occupies one chapel of the Sriratana Mahathat monastery at Phitsanulek, is generally recognized as a masterpiece of the Sukhothai plastic art.

Also during the Sukhothai period there existed a royal institution where learned men of high calibre or rajpundits congregated to give instruction and training. King Lithai himself attended this institution. Later he entered monkhood and thus setting a precedent for the kings of Ayutthaya and the kings of the present Chakri Dynasty.

In brief, two levels of education were arranged in the Kingdom of Sukhothai, namely,

1. Education for princes and sons of nobles for further duty in serving the kingdom, provided by the rajpundits' institution.

2. Education for the people provided by the monastery and the home.

2. The Ayutthaya Period (A.D. 1350-1767)

Even before the decline of Sukhothai Kingdom, another kingdom known as Ayutthaya came into power. During this period, a large number of Europeans, namely the Portuguese, the Spaniards, the Dutch, the English and the French, began to come to Ayutthaya. Some were traders, others came as missionaries, while a number of them arrived on diplomatic missions. These Europeans introduced some new elements of knowledge and culture such as the casting of canons, the use of firearms, the construction of fortifications, some medical prescriptions and cooking. They gradually built up close association with the court and the people. As a consequence, some of them became influential in the political circle of Ayutthaya, particularly in the reign of King Narai the Great (1656-1688).

It is worth mentioning that, also during the reign of King Narai, a book for the study of the Thai language entitled Chindaman, literally "a
wishing gem", was written by Pra Horatibodi, summing up the elements, the grammar, the prosody, and the versification of the Thai language. Chindamanant became a popular textbook in due time and continued to be in use up to King Chulalongkorn's reign (1868-1910). It is generally accepted as the first textbook of the Thai language. Henceforth the art of letters flourished. In fact King Narai was a great patron of Thai literature. Some of the great poets and scholars who adorned his court were Pra Maharajkru, Pra Horatibodi, and Sriprachya.

It should be noted that the form of education of Sukhothai was adopted by the court and the people of Ayutthaya, namely education as provided by rajuwudits' institution and the monastery. However, such education was of an academic type. It did not provide for occupational training which was generally handed down within the family or acquired on the apprenticeship basis.

3. The Bangkok Period (A.D. 1782-)

After the fall of Ayutthaya in 1767, and following a brief period of Dhonburi, the Kingdom of Bangkok was founded in 1782, by King Pra Buddha Yodfauchulaloke (1782-1809), the first king of the present Chakri Dynasty. He undertook the reform of the Buddhist Church which helped the development of the public education of the country.

To a certain extent, foreign influence helped to accelerate the process of educational modernization. The first printing press was established in Bangkok in 1835 by Dr. Bradley, an American missionary, and his associates. Captain James Low, an official in Penang, had studied Thai and had become so proficient in it that he wrote a book of Thai grammar for the Europeans and published it at Calcutta in 1828.

Modernization of education was further promoted by King Rama IV or King Mongkut (1851-1868). While still a monk, before ascending the throne, he ordered a printing press to be set up at Wat Boworniwes where he took up residence. It was the first printing press owned by a Thai and
competed with the American press in printing books. As Rama IV, he commanded the government to establish a printing press for its own use, and in 1858 it began to print the Royal Gazette or Ratchachanubeksad which has continued till today. The printing press has indeed been one of the contributing factors to the advancement of Thai education.

In spite of the changes and the introduction of modern knowledge, the old system of Thai education was still not much affected. This was mentioned in the "Description du Royaume Thai ou Siam," written rather disparagingly by Monsignor Pallegoix in 1854 as follows: "It is after and sometimes before the cutting of the hair that the parents send their boys to the monastery in order to learn how to read and write. There these children serve the monks as rowers and servants who in turn share their food which is offered to them, and the monks give them one or two small lessons of reading every day; the rest of the time is spent in going for a walk, playing about and amusing themselves. Of one hundred children who have spent eight or ten years at the monastery, there are, in fact, not twenty who know how to read and ten who know how to write, when they leave these devilish monasteries."

Sir John Bowring, in his "The Kingdom and People of Siam," gave a description of the role of women in the Thai society in the following words: "The education of Siamese women is little advanced. Many of them are good musicians, but their principal business is to attend to domestic affairs; they are as frequently seen as men in charge of boats on the Menam; they generally distribute alms to the bonzes, and attend the temples bringing their offerings of flowers and fruit. In the country they are busied with agricultural pursuits. They have seldom the art of plying the needle, as the Siamese garments almost invariably consist of a single piece of cloth."

During the Bangkok period, a number of treaties were concluded with foreign powers, mostly in the form of Treaty of Friendship and Commerce. Since English became lingua franca in the Far East, it was soon realized by King Rama IV that the kind of education provided by the monastery and the
court was not adequate for future government officials. For this reason he commanded that measures be taken to modernize the education of the country and a good knowledge of English would form a part of the new education requirements, as it had become a necessary key to further knowledge as well as a medium of communication with foreigners. At first his own children were taught English by the wives of the American missionaries, but later he engaged as a teacher, Mrs. Anna Leonowens, an English widow from Singapore who served for 5 years. Among her royal pupils was Prince Chulalongkorn who succeeded his father to the throne. He unhesitatingly adopted his father’s policy of modernizing education, and proceeded to establish a Thai school, an English school within the precincts of the Grand Palace, as well as schools for commoners. He also created the Department of Education and the Ministry of Public Instruction.
Chapter II

THE TURNING POINT

Generally speaking, Thai education had continued a traditional pattern to confine its activities mainly within the court circle until the early part of King Chulalongkorn’s reign (1868-1910), not to mention a random education by individual family upbringing and Buddhist monks’ voluntary teaching. The aim was evidently to train young princes and sons of the nobles to become good courtiers by making them acquainted with conventional codes of manners, court procedures and certain knowledge of the prevalent administrative services. Thus, only the fortunate few from among the majority did, in fact, have such an opportunity to enjoy the taste of education in the acceptable sense of the time.

Fortunately, a social conscience must have pricked, to some extent, the minds of those in privileged positions, particularly that of such an enlightened ruler as King Chulalongkorn. Partly due to his educational background provided by a western style tutorship, combined with his own sense of responsibility as a king, as expressed in his own words that “It is a monarch's natural duty to educate and mould the people in the Kingdom into good citizens...”¹, he strived to provide education for the populace so as to lift them from their plight, despite the current social, economic and political constraints.

By 1870², Thailand evidently realized that the impact of Western imperialism was imminent: on her western borders, Burma had already fallen

1 CORRESPONDENCES between King Chulalongkorn and Chao phya phrasadet Surendradhibordi, vol. II p. 45.
2 In 1870, a group of high ranking government officials at the court presented a petition to King Chulalongkorn, emphatically urging him to launch a political reform so as to safeguard the independence of the country from a menacing western imperialism.
under the British rule; on the east, France threateningly tightened her hold over IndoChina; and on the south, Britain's formidable influence over the Malay Peninsula loomed larger. To this country, what had happened to her neighbours obviously served as a really serious warning. It was then concluded that, if the national sovereignty was to be successfully maintained and the national unity was to be hopefully achieved, backwardness had, by every means, to be wiped out and modernization in all respects had to be immediately launched.

Such were delicate components of the background against which a much-needed modernization of this country was placed. This modernization had taken two major forms: a political or administrative reform and an educational one. Priority seemed to be out of the question, for the exigencies of the two reforms had left no freedom of choice for the responsible government. The emphasis on either the former or the latter was only a matter of degree. Although the administrative reform played a leading role, and the educational reform a supporting one—the improvement and expansion of the administration would demand a great number of government officials, and the educational reform would have to produce up-to-date qualified personnel so as to answer that demand adequately—it is, however, evident that their common ultimate goal was the national unity necessary for survival.

Up to the mid-nineteenth century, the princes' and the nobles' education still followed the traditional patterns. Except for the occasional learning of English from private or missionary tutors, they were expected to gain a certain amount of knowledge in the three R's, some Buddhist principles through acquaintance with Pali, and occupational trainings in the career of their circles.

In his Memoirs, Prince Damrong, one of King Chulalongkorn's brothers, wrote: "The education of princes and princesses seemed to have its specific pattern since the reign of King Rama I (probably in the wake of

3 Prince Damrong: Memoirs
the Ayutthaya Period), and lasted until my days. In terms of the existing education, both princes and princesses learned their lessons together, at an elementary level, under the supervision of women teachers in the Royal Palace compound. Starting at the age of three, they continued their study till the age of seven. On entering a level corresponding to a junior secondary education, they were separated on account of their different courses of study: princes began to tackle Pali, while princesses took up the practical aspects of domestic subjects, under the care of men and women teachers respectively. Yet, they had to learn reading in Thai from various chosen books in much the same way. At this level, the practice of good manners was intensively emphasized right from the beginning. The span of this level extended to the time the princes were thirteen years of age and the princesses eleven years of age (when they had their topknots shaved off). Then, they went on to a senior secondary level: princes became novices, learning Buddhist teachings and observing Buddhist Vinaya (Disciplines), and began to study the particular fields of knowledge of their own choice. In most cases, they remained as novices for a period of three months; some stayed on a little longer (but very few remained until being ready to enter monkhood). After leaving their novice lives, they took residence outside the Royal Palace to follow their studies in the chosen technical fields of knowledge. As there was no school at the time, they had to go to the schooling places of renowned specialists. Insofar as an administrative science and the royal court customs were concerned, the princes had an advantage over other people, for they were in a position to attend, since their boyhood days, the daily royal audience over the transactions of state affairs, which were undoubtedly educative for them. Besides, they had a good chance to know high-ranking executive officials of the realm. This part of their schooling lasted six years, and, at the age of twenty-one, they reached a level corresponding to higher learning: the princes now entered Buddhist monkhood, learning more advanced Buddhist teachings and specializing in specific fields of knowledge. By the time they left monkhood, they were well prepared to enter the government service.

As regards the princesses, they went on, after having their topknots shaved off, to more advanced learning gradually, starting from the continua-
tion of morality and practical aspects of domestic subjects, together with a concentration on specialized fields of their own choice. They were schooled to cultivate self-reliance in managing and executing their duties in the royal household. Whereas the princes gained their educative experience in the royal audience hall, the princesses gained theirs in the royal household and its intricate management. They learned the royal court customs and societal etiquette for ladies of rank, and later became trainers of others. It was then customary among the nobles to send their daughters to undergo such a training in the palace; and these young women were generally accepted as refined ladies worthy of a domestic management”.

As for the nobles' education, Prince Damrong also wrote in Life of Somdet Chao Phraya Borommahasrisuriyawongsa (Chuang Bunnag)⁴: “During (Somdet Chao Phraya’s) boyhood days, the young sons of nobles and persons of social standing were educated by Buddhist monks at various monasteries. The monks’ teaching was rather lax. The effectiveness of their education entirely depended upon individual interest and taste. A technical knowledge for their careers, when growing up, had to be sought after from a kind of apprenticeship in their fathers’ professions; for instance, if the father were craftsmen or medical men, their sons usually learned tricks of the trade from their fathers. Somdet Chao Phraya Borommahasrisuriyawongsa⁵ is the eldest son of Somdet Chao Phraya Borommahaprayurawongsa who was Minister of Finance cum Minister of Foreign Affairs (during the period in which a ministry of foreign affairs had not yet been established as a separate agency.), and the scope of his administrative responsibilities had covered the whole eastern region-on-sea since the reign of King Rama II. Somdet Chao Phraya Borommahasrisuriyawongsa must have, from the beginning, studied the official modes of communication with foreigners and the administrative procedures of the region under his father’s jurisdiction as a principal part of his education for a career. It was not

⁴ Prince Damrong, Lives of the Celebrated Personalities
⁵ Somdet Chao Phraya Borommahasrisuriyawongsa (b. 1808–d. 1882) became the Regent during King Chulalongkorn’s minority.
known that he was well versed in horse—or elephant—riding, or in any other subjects, except that many senior government officials had admiringly mentioned about his astuteness and capability for the affairs of state."

The ecclesiastical or monastic education seemed to be much more systematic than the secular one. Possibly, Buddhism has long provided it with a really solid foundation and a well-organized structure of subject matters. Dharma (Buddhist teachings), Dharma Patipati (Practice of Buddhist principles) and Vinaya (Disciplines) are, ever since, the mainstay of the study courses. It had retained particular texts and references, grade progression and procedures of evaluation through exposition of Pali as well as public final examinations at various levels. Through the test of time, modification of learning methodology, as that initiated by King Mongkut (then Prince Mongkut, under a vow of monkhood at Wat Borwornwises), only signified a shift of emphasis from theoretical aspects to more practical ones consistent with the original practice of Buddhist principles.

So far as the education of young girls other than the fortunate few was concerned, they depended almost wholly upon traditional upbringing at home, which varied from one family to another. Some might be lucky enough to enjoy a certain advantage of an extended education through their parents’ association with such educated circles as those of the princes and princesses or the nobles. Among other things, they were also handicapped by the concepts of social inequality and segregation of sexes due to certain conventions and a religious inhibition—prior to the advent of a compulsory education in this country, it was unthinkable to send girls to receive any forms of education taught by monk teachers. Finally there was an attitude that women did not need as much academic education as men.

The progress of educational modernization during the early phase between 1881 and 1897 had been rather slow, despite the fact that the 'consular Bangkok' had acquired some significance in international politics. Actually, it was not King Chulalongkorn’s fault at all but a combination of political restraints and social constraints—the power of the throne having been tested
by the 'Consul-Knox Incident'\textsuperscript{6} and, discretely, by the conservative element at the court; and the educational measures of the modernization having caused certain misunderstanding among the public as being decrees to call up their sons to be trained for the national service.

In point of fact, it may be said that Christian missionaries, especially the Presbyterian missionary, had started, at their own initiative, to organize a few so-called 'missionary schools' in this country since 1848. They set up, in Bangkok, the first two missionary schools which later became known as Bangkok Christian College (for boys) and Wathana College (for girls). Then, they extended their activities to Petchburi and Chiangmai. Though the religious purpose seemed to be predominant in their activities, these missionary schools came closer to the true sense of a school in the context of popular education. Consequently, the gap of educational opportunities for Thai boys and girls had been eventually narrowed in the second phase of King Chulalongkorn's modernization of education. It is the spirit of religious tolerance that made mutual benefits possible.

Generally speaking, the first phase of a movement for educational development in the early period of King Chulalongkorn's reign had arisen from the demand for better trained personnel for the royal household and the gradually expanding government service together with the growing distrust in the quality of traditional monastery training. In 1871, a school under royal patronage was accordingly founded in the Royal Palace compound\textsuperscript{7} to educate young princes and sons of the nobles. It was meant to have different characteristics from the old monastery schools; that is to say, it had its own school building, lay teachers, a time-table and rather systematic courses in Thai language, arithmetic, foreign languages, court practices and other subjects. This school was placed under the care of the Royal Household Page Guards Regiment; and Luang Saraprasert (Noi Archarayangkura) was entrusted with its administration.

\textsuperscript{6} David K. Wyatt, \textit{The Politics of Reform in Thailand: Education in the Reign of King Chulalongkorn} (Thai Wattana Panich, Bangkok, 2512)

\textsuperscript{7} \textit{The History of the Education Ministry}, 2435-2507, p. 28.
Immediately after the setting-up of the school as mentioned above, the "Command Declaration on School" of B.E. 2414 was issued for the purpose. It addressed directly to the princes and courtiers, who were working for the Royal Page Department and the Royal Household Guards Department, in the following terms: the King "has graciously considered that the sons of persons in His Majesty's service were born and bred in good families, and they should be entering government service in future. Now that they have had rather an inadequate knowledge of general academic subjects and official practices, such a general academic knowledge being an essential means to acquire proper learning and bureaucratic practices, the King therefore kindly caused a school to be set up in the Royal Palace grounds. Teachers in Thai, arithmetic and bureaucratic practices shall be recruited from among the officers of the Royal Scribes Department; and they shall be receiving appropriate salaries for their jobs. Students shall be given necessary clothes and per diem for lunch every day. Teachers shall be teaching in a polite manner: and scolding, beating and unsophisticated treatments to students are forbidden. In addition, the government officials' sons other than these are also admissible to this school, if they apply for study. The King will be pleased to take them under his care; and they will be granted an opportunity to study Thai, arithmetic and bureaucratic practices so as to work well in His Majesty's service. Having learned of the 'Declaration', persons concerned should advise their sons to come to this school. The acquiring of really good academic knowledge will bring your sons excellence and prosperity for a long time."

It is interesting to note that the 'Declaration' signifies the advent of a formal education in the reign of King Chulalongkorn, and that its persuasiveness in tone reflects the exigencies of a personnel demand as well as reluctance to change certain modes of life. Yet, the 'Declaration' as a whole shrouded some implications that the scope of activities of the new school would embrace not all sons of the soil but the fortunate few, and that there would be consequently two types of citizens in the society, the one being educated by this school and the other randomly raised by monastery schools. In

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8 Documents on Educational Organization in the Reign of King Chulalongkorn, a centenary publication, October 1, 1968, p. 2.
short, the educational system at the time was essentially for the elite, despite the fact that the command ‘Declaration’\(^9\) on reorganization of monastery schools came out in 1874.

Soon after the setting-up of this ‘Thai School’ with Phraya Srisunthorn Woharn as principal, an ‘English School’ was established in the compound of the Royal Palace to provide a further study in English for the King’s younger brothers and other princes, who had already had an adequate knowledge of Thai language. Mr. Francis George Patterson, an Englishman, was engaged to take charge of the English school as its principal. Unfortunately, this enterprise came to an end when Mr. Patterson resigned to return to Europe. The idea of an English school was revived in 1879. Another English school was organized at the Nanda Udayan Palace, outside the Royal Palace. The new English school had Dr. Samuel G. McFarland, an American missionary, as its principal; and, being independent of the Royal Household Page Guards Regiment, it came under the management of a committee. Unfortunately, it closed in 1892. At this juncture, it is worthwhile referring to David K. Wyatt’s comment on both types of schools: “Nothing about Phraya Si Sunthon seemed very radical, and, too, most young men must have continued to find good official positions without attending his school. As for Patterson’s school, it could not have been perceived as anything very different from Mongkut’s employing Mrs. Leonowens and Dr. Chandler”.

In his capacity of the chief officer of the Royal Household Page Guards Regiment, Prince Damrong had taken vast responsibilities for educational development between 1871 and 1885. He had under his care the Thai school of Phraya Srisunthorn Woharn, the Suan Kularb Cadet School of the Regiment, established in 1882, the School of Cartographical Techniques, established in 1885, including organization of ecclesiastical education and its examination, and of four young princes’ private education (i.e. Krom Phra Chanda-buri, Krom Luang Rajaburi, Krom Luang Prachin and Krom Luang Nakorn Jayasi). As regards the private education of the King’s four sons, it took two forms. For their Thai general education, teachers from the Thai School

\(^9\) Documents on Educational Organization in the reign of King Chulalongkorn, pp. 9-11.
of Phraya Srisunthorn Woharn gave them lessons at their residence, and such activities were organized not as a school but as a tutorial system. For their English lessons, they attended an English school, established for this purpose in place of the old one\(^{10}\). As for the Suan Kularb Cadet School, it became surprisingly popular among princes and nobles, and the increasing demand for admission made itself felt. Inevitably, the management had to reconsider its current objectives as to whether the limited admission of students and the purely military training for only the service of the Royal Household Page Guards Regiment should be maintained or they should be modified to accommodate more students and to give instruction in other fields as well.

It would not be far wrong to say that Prince Damrong might have an arrière-pensée to dilute a military training with a much-needed civil one for reason that the circumstance was ripe enough to favour his anticipation. King Chulalongkorn came forth with a full support of the cause as appeared, in part, in his instruction: ".........the popular desire for education as such should not be opposed just for the benefit of the Royal Household Page Guards Regiment; other government agencies, too, need trained personnel for their services; therefore, (the Suan Kularb Cadet School) must be organized into a school of advanced courses for the benefit of all government agencies or departments ............."\(^{11}\) So the Suan Kularb Cadet School was turned into a civilian one, organized in such manner that instruction was solely given on civil subjects, particularly Thai and English languages; and that graduates, wishing to enter the service of the Royal Household Page Guards Regiment, would have to further a separate study in military training. The reorganization of Suan Kularb School was not completed until 1884. Later, it had extended its admission to younger applicants in order to keep them in training for a longer period.

After the establishment of the Thai School by Phraya Srisunthorn Woharn in 1871, such previous textbooks as Prathom Kaw ka, Prathom Mala, Prathom Chindamani Book I and Book II had been discarded en bloc. They were officially replaced by a new series of government textbooks written

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\(^{10}\) *A History of Education Ministry*, 2435–2507, p. 33.

\(^{11}\) Ibid., pp. 34–35.
by Phraya Srisunthorn Woharn. New textbooks in this series bore the following titles: *Mulabot Parabakit*, *Wahanitnikorn*, *Aksaraproyog Sangyogbithan*, *Waibochnabicharn* and *Bisala-Karant*. It is believed that this new series had been enjoying the privilege of being Thai primers or readers for almost a century. It had, also, played a very significant role in the educational modernization of this country, especially in the Thai School and the Suan Kularb School, where new administrative departments mainly drew their trained personnel. The popularization of this series of textbooks was made possible by the setting-up of a government press by King Mongkut approximately in 1857, and King Chulalongkorn’s decision to improve the quality of education through up-to-date standard textbooks. Thanks to Phraya Srisunthorn Woharn, his good works did contribute substantially to the achievement of educational modernization. All in all, this series of textbooks as a whole was a success.

This series of government textbooks had been the mainstay of curricular activities in the Thai School for some time prior to its adoption by the Suan Kularb School. Then, it was realized that, despite the prescribed proficiency at a preliminary level, few students had really completed the whole series of those six textbooks. The Governing Board of the Suan Kularb School was of the opinion that an annual examination, similar to that of ecclesiastic education, would be better means to guarantee a reliable completion of the course of study, generally considered students’ basic background for further study at a higher level; and that this measure would be greatly helpful to government departments in their selection of personnel. In 1884, King Chulalongkorn made his decision in favour of the proposal, and appointed a commission on examination in Thai language. The Commission members were Prince Sawasti Prawat, Prince Damrong, Prince Srisaowabhang, Phraya Bhasakarawongs (Porn Bunnag) and Phraya Srisunthorn Woharn (Noi Acharayangkura). In 1884, an annual examination for Thai language was put into practice for the first time at the Suan Kularb School; and successful students were entitled to certificates of proficiency. The certificate presentation day was made a really majestic event by the presence of King Chulalongkorn. The King presided over the prize-giving ceremony and, on that
grand occasion, delivered an impressive address, emphasizing the importance of education for members of the royal family and the nobles and, last but not least, referring to popular education in a promising note: "To mention that this school is an endowment to the royal family and the nobles does not mean that those of other officials and the public would be forgotten, the existing schools and others to come into existence in future have been given due consideration so as to have them organized in much the same way as this one; and a thought has been given to building many more schools for our people, including highly advanced schools. Everyone, we assure you, from our children down to the common of commons shall have an equal educational opportunity regardless of their social status. We therefore wish to tell you for certain that education of our country is regarded as an essential matter that we will try our best to modernize".  

King Chulalongkorn kept his promise. In 1884, Prince Damrong was entrusted with the organization of government schools for general public in compliance with the King’s gracious desire: "The organization of government school for the general public follows the deliberation that people traditionally send their sons to be educated by monks in various monasteries since the old days. Monks benefit from the boys’ odd-job services and their parents support, so these boys are taken under their care willingly. In reference to this tradition, it may be said that schools for the general public have long been in existence at every monastery. Nevertheless, these teacher monks have given instruction at their own convenience; and their minimal qualifications vary from one to another. The contents of teaching have never been planned. Thus, the instruction given in that manner has not yet produced the kind of knowledge beneficial for the public. However, it has been impossible to advise or supervise an enormous number of teacher monks to adopt the official teaching pattern throughout the country. In this connexion, the Department of Education issued, in 1875, a pertinent notice to no avail. The new approach to the reorganization of education for the public would have to involve the setting-up of a government school to show how the official learning-teaching process is done. When this kind of schools becomes commonly accepted among the

12 Documents on Educational Organization in the reign of King Chulalongkorn, p. 20.
public, anyone taking students under his care would follow suit: then, the adoption of instruction à la official pattern would spread far and wide. However, a government school as such would have to be set up in a monastery, otherwise there might be certain complications. In other words, to establish a school outside a monastery would amount to an act contrary to the tradition of sending boys to a monastery for their education. So long as the public faithfully uphold that tradition, a government school outside a monastery will receive no cooperation from them. If they abandon their faith in the tradition and turn to support the cause of a government school, a monastery will lose almost all benefits it previously receives from the boys and their parents. On the other hand, the establishment of government schools for the public already involves a considerable sum of expenditure in salaries and current expenses. If more expenses on buying land are to add to it, not many schools can be built for the public. It is therefore more economical to set up government schools in different monasteries where land and sala are ready for the purpose. The location is suitable, for there is usually a monastery in every community. Thus, it is convenient to set up a government school for the public in a monastery. The first one is organized at Wat Maharanabaram.¹³

The above statement of policy and its essence heralded the turning point in the history of popular education in this country as from 1884, and has a far-reaching impact on the educational modernization throughout its second phase. In all fairness, a reorganization of education in monasteries as part of popular education, to some extent, had been done since 1875 by means of free distribution of official textbooks, provision of scanty salaries for monks and lay teachers. However, there was no record of its related supervision or evaluation. It was not until 1884 that popular education was materially developed into what might be called a modern educational system. It seems that, prior to this phenomenon, the emphasis of modernization had been laid on the élite education. The only reasonable excuse in this case might be the urgency demand for better trained personnel from various expanding government departments.

Even then, the popular education was not yet out of the woods. Soon after the establishment of a government public school at Wat Maharanaaram, many people had mistaken the government's intention for a measure to enlist their young sons for army training; and the panic was also aggravated by the existing misbelief that an army life was the worst of all. The detrimental misunderstanding was ripped in the bud fast enough by the Command Declaration, issued in 1875, to the effect that the government public schools and many more to come were meant for the education of the general people's and their children, as well as for the national progress, and that the rumour was unfounded. Soon afterwards people began to regain confidence in the government's good intention and send their children to government public schools. Gradually, many more schools of this type were set up in different monasteries, particularly in the metropolis. Princes and nobles had taken, under their patronage, schools in monasteries closely associated with their families. Eventually, the schools after their prototype were organized all over the country. For instance, in 1884, government public schools at Ayuthya, Angthong, Uthaidhani, Lopburi, Nakhorn Pathom, Rajburi, Pejaburi and Smutprakarn were established.

By 1887, the Department of Education, with Prince Damrong as its chief officer, was founded in order to take full charge of education of the country. The Department, at the time of its establishment, had under its jurisdiction, 34 schools in the metropolitan and provincial areas, 81 teachers and 1,994 students, including 4 other advanced schools in the metropolis, i.e. Suan Kularb School, Mahadhat College, Saranrom School and Sunandralai School. In addition, the Cartographical Department, previously under the Royal Household Page Guards Regiment, was transferred to the Department of Education. The implicit significance of the establishment of the Education Department lies not in the scope of its responsibilities nor status of an authoritative agency, but in the fact that education is being on the way to a planned enterprise, more systematic than ever before, and that education has its own spokesman to speak for its worthy cause, however notoriously inadequate he may be in certain periods of its history!
Anyhow, the Education Department under Prince Damrong’s administration had seen two significant changes: the introduction of a new three-volume series of official Thai textbooks into the government public school circle in 1888, and the transfer of this Department to the Dharmakarn Department (The Department of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs) in 1889. The former was effected so as to solve a problem of rather overloaded content for the three-year course in every government school. The problem had arisen from the fact that, in the later stage of its curricular growth, other subjects had been included; yet, the whole course—the content of six Thai textbooks—had to be completed within the three-year duration. With the new series, students would be able to finish it within one year or, at the latest, a year and a half. As for the latter, it was a change taking place in 1889 as a result of King Chulalongkorn’s experimental measure of his administrative and political reform with a view to establishing officially 13 ministries some three or four years later. The Department of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs became a full-fledged Ministry of Education on April 1, 1892.

Another aspect of educational development in this period, especially in the field of public health, should also be taken into consideration. Soon after Siriraj Hospital (named after the late Princess Sirirajkakuthabandh) and the Medical Department were established in 1888, a medical school to give instruction in medical sciences and modern scientific treatments was set up in 1889 at Siriraj Hospital. By 1893, the first batch of modern medical doctors were graduated and ready for their practices; and the fast growing community welcomed them with open arms.

At the turn of its second phase, the national modernization seemed to have given more priority to political and administrative reform: to his surprise and disappointment, Prince Damrong was made Minister of Interior, in 1892, instead of Minister of Education. Chao Phraya Bhasakarawongs (Porn Bun-nag), former Minister of Agriculture, succeeded him as Minister of Education in the same year. King Chulalongkorn made known the reasons for this

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personal choice to Prince Damrong as follows: "... Now that the country is being in grave danger. If it falls into another country's hands, where would you place the education you love so much? The master nation would manipulate it to suit its liking. Let us both save the country together." The implication of the King's reasoning forewarned the imminent strike of Western imperialism. In 1893, the armed conflict, commonly known as "Siam Crisis", over territorial disputes between this country and France broke out. In effect, it fanned the nationalistic flame in the minds of Thai princes and commoners studying abroad. Almost all Thai students in Europe emphatically requested to switch their courses of study over to military ones. The student princes, under the care of Phraya Wisutthisuriyasakdi (M.R. Pia Malakul), the Thai Ambassador at London, insistently pleaded him for their nationalistic cause. Their prearranged study programmes were drawn near to the very verge of a complete chaos. If it had not been for a timely intervention of the authoritative instruction from King Chulalongkorn, the commotion would have cost the elite education abroad, as part of the modernization, an irreparable loss.

It is not simple to trace the origins of needs for foreign languages and elite education abroad in the modernization of this country. However, one may, by way of assumption, begin by piecing fragmentary statements and comments together before arriving at a reasonable conclusion. The strained international contacts with Western nations since King Rama II's reign, the communication problems in diplomatic practice and in negotiating amity or commercial treaties, and the irregularities of foreigners' service must have served as a nagging reminder to this country. King Chulalongkorn, known as being well-versed in English, had, accordingly, made every endeavour to rectify the disadvantages, as seen in his determination to organize elite education in the country and abroad. Prince Damrong's comment on foreigners'
service around 1898 and the King’s counsel to his sons in Europe are convincing illustrations. Shortage of qualified personnel for the educational and administrative modernization, in the reign of King Chulalongkorn, had dictated the engagement of many European staff. Prince Damrong made his comment on the issue that, if such practice had been adopted far too long, the country would be colonized unaware and without the use of foreign military forces. The Japanese example - terminating foreigner’s service as soon as personnel being properly prepared - could be followed, otherwise the country would be in grave danger in future. In the circumstances, education was the only solution. In order to be independent of foreigners’ service, King Chulalongkorn had established schools and encouraged Thai youth including his own sons, their young relatives and sons of the nobles, to further their studies in Western countries.

In the search for purposes of elite education abroad, King Chulalongkorn’s advice, in 1885, to his sons prior to their further studies in Europe provides the best clues. The royal counsel contains seven valuable points, and the sixth point seems to embrace every component part of the whole purpose at issue: in part, it reads, “What you are to learn would involve the study of languages and certain subject-matter in three languages, that is, English, French and German, of which you would have to master fairly well, at least, two languages, as well as mathematics. They are extremely essential to basic knowledge at the initial stage. As regards specialized subjects, they would be carefully selected and made known to you through my instruction after your satisfactory completion of the preliminary study. At present, I wish to remind you of the fact that, in sending you to further your studies in Europe, I do not intend you to come back to use just European languages and to live in a European style. You must understand that a foreign language is but a background knowledge, and that Thai is your national language that you will use continually. The existing books of technical knowledge in Thai, written

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17 King Chulalongkorn and Chao Phraya Phrasadet Surindradhilbodi: Correspondence Appendix, p. 230. Suksabandh, Bangkok.

18 Kasem Sirisambanthi, Nion Snidwong: Political Thoughts of King Chulalongkorn, p. 17.
of old, have been regarded as obsolete, for they have hardly been revised nor checked with advanced cosmopolitan knowledge on account of our limited intellectual contact with the outside world. That is why we have to learn something through other languages in order to acquire better knowledge in a wider horizon. However, the acquired knowledge would be utilized mainly in Thai. You should not, therefore, forget the proper speaking and writing of your own language you have already learned. If you know a foreign language and cannot read, write nor translate it into Thai, what is the use of it? Such is no better than a hired service of European staff. What we need is that you must be able to translate a foreign language into Thai and vice versa. Furthermore, you should not be conceited for knowing a foreign language, nor feel proud of forgetting your own language..............

Thus, a valid conclusion may be found in the urgent need of a great number of chief executive personnel to sustain the expanding educational and administrative reforms, as well as the extensive functions of the newly organized ministries, in the desire for a fast transfer of modern knowledge and advanced technology in various fields, and in the determination to end the wasteful and irritating dependence on a hired service of European staff. And, perhaps, as the politicides of reform in the reign of King Chulalongkorn evidently points out, “New Siam” requires “Modern elites”, a new generation of a progressive group to counter - balance the reluctant old one.

Nevertheless, the first part of the second phase of educational modernization as from 1892 saw another change of approaches to the development of popular education. Having considered that the popular education development had made a rather unsatisfactory progress, the Government issued a declaration on the establishment of Mulsuksa schools20, a new type of government primary schools, to step up the popularity of education among the people. In this case, there were two grades of schools, that is, lower primary schools and higher primary ones. They were to teach by the pres-


20 A History of the Education Ministry, 2435 - 2507, p. 97.
cribed textbooks; and, at the beginning, teachers concerned were allowed to plan their own curricula, time-tables and necessary regulations. As regards a teacher monk, he had to have at least ten boys under his care for instruction before the group could enjoy a status of a lower primary school. If he had fewer than ten boys under his care, his group would not be counted as a school, and he had to send them to join another school. The annual examination was still in practice. On the surface, the whole organization seemed to be rather loosely knit, but the systematic inspection and the annual-examination device gave the impression that the whole organization was well under control. Schools in the metropolitan area were to be inspected twice a year by officers concerned; and those in the provinces by the appointed provincial officers at the same frequency. The annual examinations were presided over by education commissioners, and lower primary schools could send their students to sit for examination at higher primary schools in the area. In the province where there was no higher primary school, a commissioner would be sent out to organize an annual examination for lower primary students. A lower primary-education examination was called 'Phrayok-song' examination. A successful graduate was entitled to a certificate and application to further his education in a higher primary school. All schools in the royal monasteries and in other community ones, giving instruction after the official pattern, were called 'government schools'. Teacher monks in government schools received increased stipends.

By virtue of the 1892 Declaration, the control of private schools, in its rudimentary form, was introduced; and a development in this respect reflected that the private sector had come in to share, with the Government, the educational responsibilities. The stipulated clause, in this connection, was that anyone, wishing to set up a private school, would have to apply for a permit from the Ministry of Education, and that the rates of school fees would have to be approved by the same ministry. At the time, all private schools were classified into two kinds, a 'Chaloekisakdi school' (a private school set up by an individual person) and a 'Wiseschaloekisakdi school' (a private school teaching Thai and such foreign languages as English and Chinese). The control of private schools was a timely measure, because, since King
Mongkut's reign they had rapidly developed and occupied a certain section of the national education. And the motive could be none other than wishing to keep an eye on the quality of education under the private sector's administration.

Women's education\textsuperscript{21} was another aspect of the educational modernization that had gradually received attention since 1874. At its initial stage in the reign of King Chulalongkorn, the first boarding school for girls was organized, in 1874, by an American missionary's wife, Mrs. Harriet M. House. Its benefactors, the Troy Branch of the Women's Board in New York, called it after the founder's name - 'The Marriet M. House School for Girls', but it was known in this country as the 'Kulasatri Wanglang' (with a strong connexion in its meaning to her previous school in the United States of America - 'The Select School for Young Ladies'). In 1880, King Chulalongkorn had another boarding girl school established in Bangkok in memory of his beloved consort, the Princess Sunanda Kumariatana. It was named after her, but the ‘Sunandalai School’ was short-lived. Then, Queen Sribajarindra picked up the threads of women's education development. She had the 'Saowabha School' for girls established in 1897. From the dawn of the twentieth century onward, the women's education development in this country went on from strength to strength. In 1901, the first government school, by the name of 'Bamrung Wijasatri' was set up in Bangkok, and was later united with the 'Saowabha School' under the name of the latter. Also, the Queen had, in 1903, the ‘Rajini School’ for girls established in Bangkok. Notwithstanding, women teacher training\textsuperscript{22} was not organized until 1907. The 'Satri Widyas School', a government secondary school for girls, took the initiative in organizing extension in women teacher training in order to prepare women teachers for primary schools; and the 'Kulasatri Wanglang School' followed suit. Their prescribed course included general subjects, education and practice teaching. Then, it was in 1913 that the first women teacher training school was set up at the 'Benchama Rajalai School' for girls.

\textsuperscript{22} Ibid. pp. 106 - 107.
Through vicissitudes, the educational modernization as from 1898 had emerged from its trial trips with sounder experience, not to mention internal power politics at the court for the authority over it. In the very year, King Chulalongkorn urged all parties concerned to propose a practicable plan to develop education more successfully. During his European tour in 1897, he requested Phraya Wisuthsuriyasakdi, the Thai Ambassador to the Court of St. James, to find a prototype for a Thai education plan; and, on his return to the country in the next year, he reminded Chao Phraya Bhasakarawongs, the Minister of Education, of the preparation of his proposed education plan and a plausible plea to support it in the forthcoming committee meetings. The proceedings of the ensuing meetings revealed that the Education Minister’s position was quite precarious and his stance in relation to the allocation of the budget seemed to be untenable, and that the meeting on the proposed national education plan resulted in “a divided house” to the disadvantage of the Education Ministry; a division of authority over the educational administration was finally decided to the effect that the Education Ministry was in charge of educational organization within the metropolitan area only and the Prince Patriarch Wajirayan, with a full support from the Interior Ministry under Prince Damrong, wielded the sway of the whole educational organization in the provinces. It appears that Chao Phraya Bhasakarawongs’ first setback was due, probably, to the lack of a consideration relative to Buddhist ethics as a base for his proposed plan à la English, its involvement of a considerable expenditure for an elaborate scheme, and its likely social impact on the tradition of interdependence between monasteries and the community. His second setback, probably, arose from the magnitude of the accepted education plan of 1898 suggesting a division of labour, and his impatience as expressed in his words: “I am a man with little influence, and my eloquence is not equal to the task of expressing my ideas; it is already exhausted”.

So far, the Education Plan of 1898 was the first of its kind in this country, that ever came closest to its modern counterpart of today. It had somehow a certain reference to the British education system. The 1898 Education Plan was divided into two parts: the first part concerned with education in the Bangkok area and the second part with education in the provinces. The first contained ten sections dealing, in detail, with an education plan and classification of academic levels, examination, estimate of the number of school-age children and the number of needed schools, a quantitative expansion of schools, an adequate supply of teachers, school inspection, textbooks, technical or specialized schools, educational expenditures, and women's education. The latter dealt with estimate of population and the number of existing schools, a system of regional inspection, the responsibilities of provincial commissioners, and expenditures. The most significant feature of the Education Plan as appeared in Section I, Part I, was that the educational organization had covered all levels, that is, pre-primary or kindergarten, primary, secondary and technical education up to higher education. The whole Plan, except higher learning, was put into operation from November 11, 1898, and had been in practice until 1902. After that, the 1898 Education Plan had undergone certain reconsideration or revisions as a result of the passing of the Ecclesiastical Reorganization Act R.S. 121 and the report on a Japanese education study tour by three Thai education inspectors-general, i.e., Luang Baisal Silapasat (Saran Devahastin na Ayudhya), Khun Anukieh Widhura (Sanda Devahastin na Ayudhya) and Nai On Sarikaputra. The new Education Plan of 1902 was based on the combination of the 1898 plan and the Japanese national education one, of which the details appeared in the Education Minister's letter No. 117/4053 of September 6, 1902 and its attached enclosure to

25 A History of the Education Ministry 2435-2507, Sukabandh, Bangkok, 1964, p. 147
26 R.S. 121 = Ratkosin Sok (year of the Bangkok Period) 121 = B.E. 2445 (1902 A.D.).
27 Phraya Wuthikarnforni succeeded Chao Phraya Bhasakarawong after the latter's resignation in 1902, and held office until 1911.
King Chulalongkorn. In reference to the new Education Plan, Luang Baisal Siam, one of the education inspectors-general in the Japanese study-tour team, wrote: “At the time, Japan had already formulated her national education plan. The procedure had been approached from the appointment of a commission to survey various education plans in Europe and America and, then, formulation of the plan was framed into a final design from select practicable deliberations. Our team of education inspectors-general seized an opportunity to exploit the Japanese national education plan to our best interests, for it was the most modern combined plan in that period. Having noted upon the report of the team, Siam had since formulated her national education plan and revised it time and again to suit the needs of our nation”.29

The 1902 ‘National System of Education of Siam’ retained all education levels in the 1898 Plan and reshaped them into two categories, that is, the general education and the special or technical one (vocational and equivalent ‘high’ education). The former included primary, secondary and ‘high’ education, and the latter special or technical primary, secondary and ‘high’ education. Its fifteen-point purpose30 served as better compact guidelines for action than those of the previous plan. Even the temporal part of education under ecclesiastic responsibilities found its way into the plan and became much more definite. It is, also, remarkable that ‘high education’, already occupied a place in the sun in both plans, remained dead letters. It would not be far wrong to reason that an economic constraint had been a persistent stumbling block, coupled with the imposing priority of the political reform or administrative reorganization. The defined aim of ‘general education was good citizenship, and that of ‘special or technical education’ a profession. The general education development came under the responsibilities of the Education Ministry, but the responsibilities for ‘special or technical education’

30 Ibid., pp. 174-179
were distinctly left open to a share-out among relevant ministries or departments. An arrangement in black and white as such was requisite, for the scope of technical or professional education covered such fields as teacher education, civil service, medicine and engineering. Other facets of the 1902 plan are that a variety of age limits for admission was imposed so as to motivate graduation within a scheduled duration, and that, apart from new textbooks, an anthology of Thai literature from Ramakirati, Inao, Niras Narindra, etc., was included in the curricula of primary and secondary education.

The year 1970 ushered in another revision of the national education plan, resulting from the realization that the preparation of personnel for government service had reached a near saturation point, and so many people had left their family occupations such as farming and fruit farming for white-collared jobs. This country seemed to have committed a faux pas in much the same way as the British had previously done in their organization of education in India. The revision was based on three principles: 1) All men citizens of school age (women ones excepted) are to be educated; but, (2) they will be educated adequately to their individual ability and, after graduation, be able to earn a living in their hometowns; and (3) outstanding students will have an opportunity to further their study up to the highest level of education.\textsuperscript{[31]}

The basic structure of education classification remained almost the same, and higher education was the top rung of the educational ladder again, but admittedly marked by a tantalizing note "To be organized later on." With due consideration to increasing popularity among the public, the range of graduation ages at different levels was readjusted so as to reduce the number of over-aged students in many classes of non-clerical and clerical education: students in primary education were to be graduated at the age of 12, those in technical primary education as well as those in general secondary education at the age of 15, and those in advanced secondary education at the age of 17. Thus, it would not be too optimistic to gauge the depth of the ulterior motive behind all these moves. Succinctly, it pointed to a drive towards a quality improvement and attempt to bridge the gap between secondary education

and prospective higher education so as to render organization of higher education possible in the near future.

By the end of 1909, the educational statistics, mentioned in A History of the Education Ministry, showed that there were, in the Bangkok area, 131 schools, 14,174 boy and girl students and 748 teachers; and, in the provinces, there were 82 school, 3,938 students and 155 teachers.\(^{32}\) Therefore, the total number of schools was 213 and that of students was 18,112. According to the statistics of the same year compiled by David K. Wyatt, the numbers of schools and students in Bangkok were the same as above, but those of the schools and students, in the provinces, were 1,347 and 29,889 respectively, and the total number of schools was 1,478 and that of students 44,073.\(^{33}\) So far as the financial support was concerned, the educational allocations from the national budgets as from 1902 to 1909 had fluctuated approximately between 1,100,000 baht and 1,400,000 baht, and their percentage in relation to the total annual budgets had wavered between 2.2 and 2.9 per cent.\(^{34}\)

Without any reference to certain consequent controversial issues on the educational and the administrative reforms in the reign of King Chulalongkorn, the whole subject would seem incomplete. The causes celebres have been criticized from different aspects, and the men behind them overtly or furtively mentioned in their connexions. Thus, the points in question are that the educational reform in relation to its aspect of qualified personnel preparation for the government service had, more often than not, been rashly declaimed as having instituted among Thai people, a white-collared-job convention detrimental to the society. In all fairness, there is much to be said on both sides, only if arguments hinge upon reasons and evidence.

It stands to reason that the government had no intention to instil the love of white-collared jobs in the minds of the people but to 'educate the pub-


\(^{34}\) Charuwan Watanena, The Compulsory Education in Thailand' p. 28
for their own benefits and the 'common good' of the society. King Chulalongkorn had made it clear from the outset of the education reform that it was a ruler's 'duty' to educate his citizens, and how important literacy was to the people. In the circumstances, the government had executed the pertinent policy well. From an educational viewpoint, one sees that, in 1904, all concerned in the education reform realized that their organization of Thai education was unexpectedly heading for what the British had committed in their education organization in India. The undesirable trend was immediately arrested by appropriate measures; that is to say, the objective was revised to the effect that only outstanding students were encouraged to further their studies up to the highest level, the others were educated enough to enable them, after graduation, to earn a living in their hometowns. The emphases of the 1907 plan were on channelling special or technical education into more definitely vocational one and on the re-adjustment of varied graduation-ages in technical primary and higher or advanced secondary education. The attempt to counteract the upsurge of love for white-collared jobs had been going on far into the reigns of King Vajiravudh and King Rama VII. From a political point of view, the priority in modernization seemed to have been given to the administrative reform and, consequently, its demand for personnel increasingly brought its pressure to bear upon the educational reform as had been seen in the eventualities under the dictates of the international politics in South-East Asia between the second half of the eighteenth century and the early nineteenth century, and, later, of the urgent needs of better qualified personnel for a diplomatic service to sustain the 'survival diplomacy'. From cultural and social aspect, monarchy in the past had rather irresistible charms, and its association was a prestige conducive to a recognized social status. Thus, to serve in His Majesty's Service was even more coveted, for it spelt an honour, titles, decorations and salaries - all in all, a status symbol not only to an individual concerned but his kith and kin. At the turn of a social change in King Chulalongkorn's reign, the liberalization of the government service by extending its entry to the qualified commoners other than members of such families of the nobles as Bunnag, Kalayanamaitri, Krairiksh and Saeng-Xuto widely opened the door of His Majesty's Service, but the influx of newcomers became
rather selective and was later diverted to other fields of occupations or professions through a curricular re-adjustment and a governmental persuasion. In fact, encouragement to educated people to enter the government service was but a temporary measure to quench the thirst for personnel of twelve newly organized Ministries between their experimental phase from 1887 and their full-fledged stage in 1895. On the other hand, popular education was expected, primarily, to perpetuate literacy, good citizenship and a better standard of living among the general public. Looking at this issue from an economic angle, it seems apparent that economic reasons had an ample influence upon the people’s choice of an occupation or a profession of their own accord. Entrance into other occupations or professions than a government service would have involved, apart from knowledge already acquired, capital, land, labour, managerial abilities, perseverance and risks. It was sensibly said that savings in the modern sense of the term was non-existent, only hoarding existed and a credit system was almost unknown. Thus, capital formation was a rare phenomenon. Entrants would, therefore, have found it hard to survive the onslaught of the imperfect competition in the current business circle.
Chapter III
THE MAGNIFICENT JOURNEY

The characteristic features of King Vajiravudh’s reign from 1910 were: first, the popular and elite education in the previous reign began to bear fruits, partly, favourable to the governmental administration; for instance, junior government officials were better qualified and many of the King’s brothers had completed their studies in Europe in such fields as military science, finance, public works and diplomacy. Second, literate citizens persistently continued to prefer the government service to other occupations or professions, and an endeavour, on the part of the government, to counteract this tendency had been relentlessly pursued. Third, the introduction of a scouts movement in 1911 led to organization of the Senior Scouts Corps as an initial territorial army and the Boy Scouts Corps as a subsidiary branch of education, with a common ideal of the national security. Fourth, the first university in the kingdom was established in 1916 and dedicated to the King’s late father—it was one of the memorable events in the magnificent journey of Thai education. Fifth, the dynamism of the educational and the administrative modernization, together with the transferred knowledge and technology, had withstood well the tests of crises during the First World War and of delicate tasks in the successful fight for the national sovereignty in its wake. Sixth, in 1921, the Compulsory Primary Education Act was proclaimed; it was the first of its kind in this country. Seventh, after the abortive coup d’état of 1911, King Vajiravudh had an experiment of a democratic government organized in a form of an unofficial municipality of ‘Dusit Dhani’ and practised among high-ranking government officials of his own circle. Eighth, Thai society was exposed, to a great extent, to the Western culture; particularly, political, social, literary concepts of foreign patrons permeated among Thai intellectuals.

35 The Thonburi Period and the Ratanakosin Period, Supervisory Unit Publication No. 232, Teacher Training Department, 1973, p. 310
36 Chamuen Amorndarunaraksa (Jaem Sunthavavei) : Dusit Dhani - a Democratic City of King Mongkutklao; a commemoration publication of 1970.
Ninth, King Vajiravudh had deliberately ignored the current tradition that each reigning ruler usually set up one royal monastery by turning his attention to setting up an educational institution instead: he had Vajiravudh College established under his patronage. In addition, the following reign of his brother, King Prajadhipok or Rama VII, from 1925 witnessed two great events. The 1929 Depression swept through the world and violently affected the economy of this country, and the 1932 Bloodless Revolution\textsuperscript{37} was successfully staged in Bangkok. Consequently, a constitutional monarchy was readily adopted as an accepted form of government; and the educational development was accordingly geared into the process of democratization.

In the context of eventful surroundings as above, the educational development since 1910 underwent many modifications and significant changes. At the end of King Chulalongkorn’s reign, a meeting on the expansion of education to all provinces was held in 1909. Its deliberations were that the Ministry of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs, Ministry of Interior and Ministry of Metropolis were to take a joint care of the organization of primary education, and that the development of education was to be expanded within an easy reach of the people in every province. The Ministry of Metropolis was responsible for the development in the Bangkok area, and the Ministry of Interior for that of the provinces. In 1910, a public notification was issued saying that the government would expand its organization of education in all provinces; that a sub-district committee, composed of one headman, one abbot and one medical man, would be set up to organize education in the locality; and that the people should send their children at the age of eight to school at their own convenience. On April 10, 1911, the Ministries of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs and of Metropolis convened a meeting to define the levels of education and types of schools. According to their decisions, the two levels of education were preparatory or pre-primary education ("Mula Suksa") and general education (primary, secondary and higher education). The three types of schools were a government school supported by the budget of the Ministry of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs, a

public primary school ("Prachabarn school") supported by a certain tax, revenue and other financial sources, and a private school ("Bukkala school") supported by private funds. The last two types of schools came under a joint jurisdiction of the three Ministries concerned.

In reference to the development of "general education", there was every indication, since 1911, that the national education policy partly pointed to a continual attempt to divert the people's attention towards vocational education more directly than ever before. As it happened, the Ministry of Educational and Ecclesiastical affairs organized, on January 3, 1912, the first Students Art and Crafts Exhibition at the Suan Kularb School so as to "draw boys' and girls' attention to the art of handicrafts, of which the skill would provide them with a means of living other than government service". Moreover, the royal reply address delivered at the opening ceremony of the exhibition went so far as saying: "Upon my word, I can assure you that earning by handicrafts is by no means inferior to being a government clerk or officer as is generally believed. If you are successful and well established in commerce or handicrafts, you would be ennobled in much the same way as any government officials...........

And, in 1913, the School of Art and Crafts (Poh Chang School) was set up in Bangkok to further the following objectives: (1) to train art and crafts teachers for primary and secondary schools of general education; (2) to enable students to acquire adequate skills for earning a living; (3) to promote the significance of art and handicrafts, and encourage students' application of their skills to improving the quality of finished products; (4) to preserve and promote Thai handicrafts of long standing such as the art of niello making; and (5) to enable students to acquire practical skills in construction and design. Then, these objectives were translated into such different subjects as construction design, drawing, sculpture, carving, gold or silver or niello smithery, weaving, and carpentry. In the same year, two commercial schools were also set up, at Wat Mahapritharam and Wat Raja-
purana, by the Ministry of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs in order to acquaint their students with current knowledge of commercial business and techniques so as to enable them to move freely among businessmen and perhaps, set themselves up in the business circle. Anyhow, the Ministry of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs found the promotion of technical or vocational education rather heavy going, for the budgetary allocation could hardly afford the setting-up of technical schools at all levels of education. Most students of the technical stream tended to drop out, and the popularity of the general stream still reigned supreme.

By 1913, the government realized that the 1902 Education Plan no longer served the purpose of bringing general education and technical one close together, and the persuasive approach failed to convince the people that technical education could be a more practicable means for their children's prospective occupations or professions. The government had adopted a new approach to the problem through educational mechanism. The Ministry of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs (under Chao Phraya Phrasadet Surendaradibordi as from 1912) proposed a revision of the 1902 Plan to make a provision of having general education and technical one concurrently.40 Eventually, the new Education Programme was officially proclaimed on October 30, 1913.

In its preamble, the significance of technical or vocational education and of the completion of a course was emphasized. The Programme of 1913 had classified education into two kinds, i.e., general education (covering fundamental knowledge necessary for every student such as reading and writing, arithmetic, and ethics) and technical or vocational education (including such specific subjects as teaching, medicine, law and handicrafts). The two parts of education were defined as 'compulsory education' and 'special education' respectively; the former was called 'primary education' concerning with knowledge relative to general as well as technical education requisite for good citizenship and ability to earn a living at one's hometown; the latter was called 'secondary and higher education' concerning also with knowledge relative to general as well as technical education. The 1913 Plan extended primary educa-

40 Charuwan Waichetana; Compulsory Education in Thailand, 1974, p. 31.
tion from 3 years to 5 years in order to give students an opportunity to spend the first three years for general education and the last two years for technical education, and to suit the requirement of intended education to their parents’ means. The eight-year secondary general education was possibly meant to accommodate prospective higher education. In fact, allowance was made that the extended two years of primary education would not be imposed in all schools, but would be left to the consideration of the authorities concerned. Nevertheless, the love of government service seemed to be persistently predominant in the choice of career. The government therefore brought in another education plan in 1915 by revising the previous one and introducing the missing link - secondary technical education - into the new programme to fill the gap between the existing primary technical education and technical higher education. The 1915 Education Plan made a further attempt to give girl students an ‘equal opportunity’ for education, but there were, on the way, many obstacles to overcome. First, the prevailing attitude among the people was that women should tend their housewife duty rather than take up academic learning. Secondly, as most schools were situated in monasteries, it was generally believed that only boys should attend them. Thirdly, a shortage of women teachers, especially in provincial areas, greatly handicapped the furtherance of education for women. However, it may be said that the 1915 Plan was approaching a complete all-level educational organization, and its determined reach for the ‘National Education’ was a commendable sustained effort. The retaining of education by individual ability and of concurrent general and technical education, though partly failed, was in consort with the philosophy of modern education.

In 1916, it was deemed that the time was ripe enough to place a true higher education on its pedestal. King Vajiravudh raised the Civil Service School, established on January 1, 1910, to the status of a full university, and named it ‘Chulalongkorn University’ in dedication to his father, the late King Chulalongkorn. Chulalongkorn University came into existence with four ini-

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41 Charuwan Waichetana: Compulsory Education in Thailand, 1921-1931, Supervisory Unit Publication No.159, Teacher Training Department, 1974, p. 39
tial faculties, i.e., (1) the Faculty of Medicine composed of Departments of Medicine and Surgery, of Pharmacy; it responsibilities extended to the Siriraj Hospital, including the Medicare Division with its four Sections of Obstetrical Service and Child Care, of Pharmacy, of Surgery, and of Obstetricians and Nurses' School (under the Queen Mother's patronage); (2) the Faculty of Political Science composed of Departments of Law and Politics, of Finance, Commerce and Economics; (3) the Faculty of Engineering composed of Departments of Civil Engineering, of Mechanical Engineering, and of Electrical Engineering; and (4) the Faculty of Literature and Science composed of Departments of Literature, and of Science.42

Up to the Age of King Vajiravudh, private sectors had come to share more responsibilities of educational organization, and many private schools at different levels of education were set up, particularly in the Bangkok area. However, despite the official regulations, the control of private school administration had been rather lax; and, in most cases, private schools tended to ignore the stipulated registration procedure, and, as a result, their teachers posed quite a problem to the Ministry of Defence in connexion with their exemptions from the national service. Accordingly, the government passed the Private School Act of 1918 in order to "organize the administration of private schools throughout the Kingdom" and to "revise laws and regulations relative to private schools."43 These were more or less two obvious purposes, but, considering the republican objective of the abortive 1910 Coup d' Etat,44 the freedom of mass media, particularly newspapers and foreign political publications and advanced sea communications, there might be some other implicit and opportune purposes to keep a watchful eye over surreptitious indoctrination and the clandestine undermining of loyalty to the throne and of the national security. The evidence to substantiate the above could be


43 I bid., p. 260.

44 The Thonburi Period and the Ratanakosin Period, Supervisory Unit Publication No. 131, Teacher Training Department, 1973, pp. 97-124.
found in plenty, if the depth of King Vajiravudh's certain nationalistic writings were properly fathomed. The Private School Act contained 5 parts: part one concerned with the establishment and closure of private schools; part two, with the supervision of private schools; part three, with the dissolution of private schools; part four, with kindergarten schools; and part five, with the procedures of inquiry and penalty. By virtue of this Act, every private school would have to be registered and come under the supervision of the authorities concerned. All private schools would have to respect rules and regulations as stipulated in this Act. For instance, the management of a private school had to arrange its instruction for students as follows: "1. to enable them to read, write and understand Thai language fluently enough; 2. to enable them to learn good citizens' duty properly, and to instil into their minds the allegiance to Siam and knowledge of her natural history, including her historical background and geography". After the enforcement of the Private School Act, several private schools complied to its provisions. According to the statistics of 1917, there were only 27 registered private schools, but, by the end of 1918, their number rose rapidly to 127.

Chao Phraya Dharmasakdi Montri (Sanan Devahastin na Ayuthya) had taken over the administration of the Ministry of Educational and Ecclesiastical Affairs since 1916; and, seven years later, this ministry was renamed the 'Ministry of Education'. The new Minister of Education made a statement on the national education, in 1919, that general education still encouraged graduates to enter government service, and technical education could hardly deter the love of government service; that the appropriate combination of the two would raise the standard of the national education and this, in turn, would reinforce the national competitive power in the international trade (it was believed that an economic war would ensue in the wake of the armed war); and that the worst drawbacks in the national education had been its inadequate quantity and quality, so an educational investment would have to be in a reasonable proportion to those of certain advanced countries. It was not until 1921 that the above idea materialized: it was considered that

the 1913 and the 1915 Education Schemes had failed in their objective of diverting the people's serious attention from general education and government service to technical education and occupations or professions other than the government service, and that an inadequate educational investment would prove detrimental to the national economy. The Ministry of Education, then, brought in the new 1921 Education Scheme to face the problem squarely.

The noticeable difference of an approach to the education problems from previous ones was that the 1921 Education Scheme was immediately followed by the timely passing of the Compulsory Primary Education Act. Such a step lent a substantial support to the newly-introduced Education Scheme and, at the same time, the effectiveness of popular education at a primary level was well guaranteed. The structure of educational mechanism of the 1921 Education Scheme was almost the same as those of its predecessors. Its types of education were general education and technical education of much the same descriptions; and its two parts of education were popular education (i.e., compulsory primary general education combined with technical education) and special or technical education (i.e., optional secondary general education in combination with secondary technical education). The outstanding changes were that, instead of having to complete grade 6 as prescribed by the 1915 Education Scheme, a grade-three graduate of secondary general education could now go on to secondary intermediate technical education, and that the typical classification of schools was more systematically compact than ever before. Four types of schools: government schools were those being organized and administered by the Education Ministry (i.e., (a) government schools in Bangkok, offering instruction from primary education grade 1 up to secondary grade 8 and (b) provincial government schools offering instruction from primary education grade 1 up to primary education grade 4, secondary education grade 3, or secondary education grade 6. Ministerial schools were those being organized and administered by ministries other than the Education Ministry. Public primary schools were those being set up by the local people or provincial authorities offering instruction in compliance with the primary education curriculum. Private schools were those being defined
by the Private School Act of 1918. Furthermore, this Education Scheme had enjoyed a comfortable long life until March 28, 1933. In reference to two parts of education of the 1921 Education Scheme, i.e., popular education and special education, it seems that the majority of people had a chance to enjoy only the former and, on account of their limited means, merely a few members of the general public managed to taste the privilege of special education. On the other hand, the children of princes, the nobles and government officials, with their better means, fully enjoyed the benefits of special education. Thus, throughout the avenue of their history, the education schemes tended to give the 'lion's share' of educational benefits to the elites and the ruling class. However, the societal convention at the time was fostering the social value of a commons-elite concept. And, of course, any organization of education along the line above had its part in nurturing that kind of social value.\textsuperscript{46}

Considerations regarding the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 1921 may be traced back to its counterparts related to the 1913 and 1915 Education Schemes. Its counterparts were withheld because it was believed that they would most likely defeat their own purposes on account of a shortage of teachers and an inadequate educational investment. By 1921, it was deemed opportune to afford a much-desired law of this nature. There were pros and cons from all concerned. As for King Vajiravudh’s opinion, he made it clear that he wished to raise the status of the whole population to that of a civilized one through an educational expansion to the width and breadth of the country, and that the time was ripe enough to bring a needed law of this kind into practice. At last, the Compulsory Primary Education Act was officially proclaimed on September 1, 1921, and its enforcement began as from October 1 of the same year.

Following are the significant features of the Compulsory Primary Education Act.

(1) This Act was not to be enforced in every province all at the same time, but in certain suitable districts or sub-districts. The suitability of any district or sub-district would have to be considered by the following aspects:

\textsuperscript{46} Charuwan Waichetana: \textit{Compulsory Education in Thailand}, 2464-2474, p. 44.
its being possessed of a proper school building for school-age children, its having an adequate number of teachers, and its capability to collect a local levy for education.

(2) There were three types of schools that gave instruction under compulsory education: government schools, public primary schools, and private schools.

The first two types were free schools, except that government primary schools, specially organized with equipment and adequate accommodation and with the teacher-student ratios between 1:30 and 1:40 were entitled to reasonable fees to sustain the expenditure.

(3) Boys and girls aged between 7 and 14, (except those having physical and mental defects), would have to attend a primary school until being able to read and write; certain districts or sub-districts, with no teachers or needed funds for building available, might be allowed, at the discretion of the Education Ministry, to raise the school age from 7 to 8, 9 or 10 years.

(4) Every boy and girl would have to learn by a primary education curriculum or by an equivalent one. In the case of the latter, a permission would have to be requested from the Education Ministry as the instance of additional teaching of Chinese language in a Chinese school.

(5) An annual attendance of at least 800 hours would be required, and an absence without good reasons for over 30 days in succession was not allowed so as to prevent pupils from playing truant and parents from inattention to their children's schooling.

(6) A district officer had to prepare a list of prospective school-age children and send it, before the coming year (by the end of March), to their parents or guardians and the school principals for information.

(7) Every school-age child had to go to school, with the following exceptions:

a) They were under 14 years old and had completed the whole course of primary education or an equivalent one.

b) They were taught by their parents or guardian or a private tutor under permission of the district officer. Yet, they would have to sit for an annual examination, under the education officer's supervision, for an evalua-
tion of their knowledge. Those who failed in the examination might be sent to a school proper.

c) They had physical and mental defects, or were suffering from a chronic contagious disease.

d) They lived far away from school by a distance of over 3,200 metres, or could not come to school because of other obstacles.

e) They had to look after their helpless parents or guardian, and, in this case, they would have to ask for a written exemption from the district officer's office.

(8) In the case of having to help their parents or guardian in agriculture or handicrafts and having applied for written exemptions, the district officer had an authority to grant the children concerned leave of absence from school not longer than two months a year.

(9) An education inspector was to be appointed at every district to help the district officer supervise school-age children, give information to their parents or guardian and send children that did not comply to the Compulsory Primary Education Act to school in good time. He would receive a salary from an annual budget of the public primary school in the district at the rate fixed by the provincial commissioner.

(10) Parents or a guardian concerned had to register their school-age children at the district office. Failing to do this, they were liable to a fine of not more than 12 baht; if they failed to send their children to school after receiving a caution, they would be fined not more than 50 baht; if failing again after being fined, they were liable to a fine of 100 baht or a ten-day imprisonment or both. If it turned out to be that parents or a guardian had tried in every reasonable way and, yet, their children willfully refused to go to school, they were free from penalty; but the children in question might be sent to a probational school.

(11) In order to raise money for the organization of compulsory education, all able-bodied men aged between 16 and 60 years had to pay an annual education contribution (Suksaplee) of between one to three baht each, except that:
a) they were unable to earn a living,
b) they were monks or novices or other clergymen,
c) they were private soldiers in active service under the conscription law,
d) they had already contributed to the management of a public primary school more than their stipulated education contribution.

(12) If the number of schools was insufficient to accommodate children, the government would take measures to encourage the people to find ways and means to set up schools in each district by setting up a five-member committee to handle the undertaking. They were to be elected annually from among those who paid annual education contribution of not less than five baht, and approved by the Provincial Commissioner. Apart from this, a district officer could set up a school by an appropriate means.47

The primary education curriculum for boys, (a five-year duration) and girls (a three-year duration) contained compulsory general subjects and technical subjects. The five-year programme for boys included ethics, Thai language, a natural history of Siam, hygiene, drawing, boy-scout; and the technical subjects namely, handicrafts, practical agriculture and commerce. It also included optional subjects, i.e., introductory natural science and singing. As for the three-year programme for girls, its general subjects were the same as had been prescribed for boys except that, in connexion with boy-scout, girl students would study only the parts befitting their sex. From different technical subjects, they could choose embroidery or other handicrafts. In so far as technical subjects were collectively examined, the emphasis had been obviously placed on agriculture; commerce and handicrafts had merely played the second fiddle. Unfortunately, a long-drawn struggle to push agriculture to the forefront had been hardly a success, yet, the show would have to go on. Even though there was, at one time, an idea to train teachers to teach agricultural subjects at public primary schools in all parts of the country, it remained an uphill struggle. After all, the control of economy had been well under the tea

47 National Archives Division: Rama VI Documents, S.2/9 on the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 2464 and S.2/10 on Objectives and Procedures.
cups (of trade negotiations) of the Chinese and the Europeans for some time, and handicrafts had gradually slipped away into the hands of foreigners. Thus, the organization of educational development had inevitably run into various difficulties - the magnitude of the challenging tasks, the inadequacy of funds for educational investment, the pressures from international politics and the very conventionalism of the people. Is this vicious circle a thing of the past? Despite adverse circumstances, the development of popular education had come so far as the landmark of a scientific system of education complete with such proper props as the Education Scheme of 1915, the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 1921, the Private School Act of 1918, and other supporting devices. The introduction of a systematic evaluation into the Compulsory Primary Education of 1921 had, to some extent, guaranteed the quality of popular education throughout the country. For instance, the section regarding examination in the Act of 1921 stipulated, in part, that the pass-mark for compulsory general subjects was 50% of individual total, and that of technical subjects was 50% of the total of all subjects. As for optional subjects, the score would be relative to the percentage of the whole class. Students, failing in any technical subject, had to sit for a re-examination on that referred subject within six months as from the date of a previous failure.

Furthermore, the Scouts Movement, organized as from 1911 and, partly, being a handy subsidiary education, should not be overlooked. Boy-scout as an academic subject formally appeared in the lower and intermediate secondary education curricula of the 1913 Education Scheme in place of an elementary service-drill for discipline in the primary education curriculum of 1909. The purposes of boy-scout in schooling activities had practically aimed at cultivating a sense of discipline and a nationalistic attitude so as to lay a firm foundation for further extramural activities of the Scouts Movement and of a good citizen's daily life. On the other hand, the objectives regarding extramural activities of the Scouts Movement may be evidently seen in the Kings considerations as appeared in the preamble of the 'Rules Governing Scouts Corps' of July 1, 1911. It reads: "The Senior Scout Corps has recently been instituted, and its good results are hopefully expected but the right to be senior scouts is confined to the grown-ups. Young people should as well be
physically and mentally trained at their tender age by scouting activities. As they grow up, they would be well acquainted with their duties and become responsible citizens for their motherland. The training as such should be started early, for human instincts would be more easily modified and molded when one is young than when he is old.” In brief, the objectives of the Boy Scouts Corps are the same as those of the Senior Scouts Corps: To instil into the minds of young people “a loyalty or allegiance to the King and the nation, a faith in the national religion, and a sense of responsibility for the national unity.” The whole idea was to develop character, resourcefulness and a public spirit in young men of the country; while the ulterior motive seemed to expect a specific kind of an ideal man for an ideal society in which the young and the old were to live under the same rules and a single standard of merit-and-demerkit convention. The movement is commendable for its determined endeavour, however idealistic it may be, to raise the quality of man up to the plane of an ideal.

After the accession of King Rama VII or King Prajadhipok in 1925, the problem of enforcing the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 1921 in Bangkok came to the attention of the authorities intimately concerned, that is, the Ministries of Education and Metropolis. As this Act had never been enforced in the area before, it was feared that the collecting of ‘levied education contributions’ would definitely pose a rather difficult problem. Finally, it was decided that the enforcement of the Compulsory Primary Education Act had to be carried out, and the only way out of the awkward situation was to enforce the Act without imposing the clause regarding ‘education contribution’ The solution was compatible with the circumstances, for there were already a great number of government schools and private ones in Bangkok and, considering such a convenient access to education in the metropolitan area, it was felt that it would be a far cry to expect the people to sacrifice willingly any ‘education contributions’ to support compulsory primary education. The organization of compulsory primary education during this period followed a similar line to the previous one. Its objectives were:
(a) To enable students to acquire adequate knowledge of general and technical education; (b) To develop their liking for vocational careers in the localities; (c) To make them healthy in mind and body; and (d) To train them to ethical tendency. The reign of King Prachaditpek went through a rough passage—it was said that a great expenditure seemed to have sapped the financial resource of the country. The gradual contraction of international trade had formed itself in the Western world, and, by 1929, what was commonly called the ‘Great Depression’ reached the shores of this country. Its vicious impact on the economy of the country was apparent in such drastic economic measures as the reduction in the number of government officials on a vast scale and in the royal household expenditures, out of sheer necessity. Amidst the economic chaos, the successful ‘Bloodless Revolution’ of 1932 exploited the whole unpalatable situation to its best advantages and readily instituted a constitutional monarchy in place of the old absolute monarchy. Since then, a constitutional democracy exerted, to a certain extent, its influence upon the organization and principles of education but, so it seemed, only literally. The principles of education wheeled around the pivot of a democratic ideal: In the periodied between 1932 and 1936, the Ministry of Education referred to its principles, with a strong connexion to the Popular Party’s (of the 1932 Revolution) policy on education, that “As for education, the government wishes to develop education among the people so as to train them to constitutional government, to an understanding of the nature of works and social conventions, to an acquiring of intelligence and reasoning efficiency of their own, to a healthy body and spirit, to a proper respect for national ethical education and Thai customs, to possessing an ability to earn a living and to a state of being healthy, moral and law-abiding citizens.”

In 1932, a six-member Education Committee was set up by the government to formulate a “National Education Scheme,” and, coincidentally, an “Education Council”, acting as its advisor on organization of the national education development, was also appointed. The intriguing composition of the latter included princes, army and naval officers and civil government officials

48 A History of the Education Ministry, 2453 - 2507, pp: 308 - 309:
The new education programme covered a six-year primary education (a four-year general and a two-year technical education) with a prospective continuation in the subjects previously taken. At the secondary education level, there were a lower four-year secondary and a final four-year secondary education. Graduates of the lower secondary education usually went on to a secondary technical education; and other successful candidates, to a final secondary education in preparation to further their studies in general education at a university or other higher learning institutions. The teaching of vocational subjects in the technical education at every level was designed to complete all people's education with a vocational or a professional knowledge. The draft National Education Scheme was submitted to the Government by the Education Council and officially publicized on March 28, 1933. Its outstanding features were a formal recognition of individual educational ability (as was considered by mental, physical and environmental aspects of each person), an acceptance of women's educational equality regardless of quantity or levels of education, and introduction of teachers' required qualifications appropriate for all levels of education, and an extension of a school inspection to cover sanitation. In addition, a development of kindergarten education, later, was not only a measure to sustain the social change whereby many women often went out to earn a living but, indirectly, to help further the cause of women's educational equality. However, democratization through civics in educational curricula had hardly made any constructive progress since then.
Chapter IV

DEVELOPMENT UNDER THE CONSTITUTIONAL REGIME

1. Background

After the Revolution in 1932, which brought about the first constitutional regime in Thailand, the People's Party (Garana-dhrai) proclaimed education as being one of the six principles to be used in the administration of the country. The People’s Party firmly believed that education, if made accessible to the general public, would essentially contribute to the progress and preservation of a democratic society, and this was declared in the policy of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

“This Government has an ardent wish to make education available to all members of the public so that they will be instructed and trained to live in a constitutional regime. Science education will be given as well as training for future careers and the ability to enter all levels of society. Instruction will be provided to make students well-informed, wise, and capable of logical thinking. The studies of morality and Thai culture will be included to encourage good behaviour.

In accordance with the government’s wish, the Dharma-karn Ministry has always been striving to improve its performance in this field.”

2. Education Committee and Council.

His Majesty’s government then set up an education committee to draft an education plan for the nation. This plan was subsequently considered by an advisory council on education whose duty was to advise the Ministry of Public Instruction on all matters concerning education.
The main achievement of the Council was the formulation of a new educational project in 1932. According to this project, elementary education was divided into four grades plus two more years of studying vocational subjects. The study of general subjects was called "Samansueksa" and that of vocational subjects "Wisamansueksa". Secondary education was also divided into two parts, each of which offered a four-year course. Most students who had completed the first part of secondary education usually went on to study in the vocational secondary schools. However, some students, with more academic inclination and better financial standings could continue their studies in the second part of normal secondary education and could go on to university afterwards. The fact that vocational education was available at all levels enabled students to start their careers at different ages, and thus provided the society with three different kinds of skilled manpower who would be trained up to the level of elementary, secondary and university education respectively.

On March 28, 1933, His Majesty King Rama VII announced the new National Education Scheme proposed by the Advisory Council on Education.

3. The National Education Scheme of 1933 (See Appendix I)

According to this National Education Scheme there were 6 grades in the elementary education. The first four belonged to the section of general education (Samansueksa), and the last two were dedicated to vocational education (Wisamansueksa). Students who came from well-to-do families or were sufficiently intelligent could go on in the first part of secondary education when they had passed the examinations of Pratom 4. Other students who did not possess the same qualifications should carry on in the elementary education where they would be given vocational training. The secondary education was divided into two parts, each of which had 4 grades. On completion of the first part students could continue to the second part of either Samansueksa or Wisamansueksa. University education could be obtained upon completion of the second part of secondary education belonging to Samansueksa.

Chao phraya Dharmasakdimontri, perhaps the greatest authority on education at that time, expressed his opinion that the main idea of the policy
on education was to provide the public with three kinds of knowledge stemming from Puttisueksa (Intellectual Education), Chariysasueksa (Moral Education) and Palasueksa (Physical Education) in order that each individual could make a proper contribution to society and appreciate democracy under a constitutional regime. The people would be encouraged to seek employment most suited to their aptitudes and not to regard civil service as the most favourable type of work as had been a popular concept for a long time. The best way to reach this goal was to lay proper foundations from the outset. Barriers between schools and communities would have to be pulled down, and schools would be made to serve communities in every possible way. There would be studies of everyday life, the defence of the country, military and police affairs, and health and hygiene. The world itself would be the classroom, and all the objects around us would be the teacher. The way of life and routine work could be the lesson, and experience could be used as a means to teach. Everyone in the community would be taught according to his special talent with the emphasis on the service he could render to his community.

According to Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri, one of the concerns of the Ministry of Public Education at that stage was the education of children under the age of seven. Considering that in ten years' time these children could become active members of society, the government deemed it appropriate to set up kindergartens for children under the age for compulsory education to promote both physical and mental development of these children. In addition, the kindergartens could help relieve the mothers of the tiresome task of looking after their children. The main aim of the kindergartens was to look after little children and teach them to read, write and count. However, most kindergartens were geared towards pre-elementary courses or the elementary courses themselves, and there were few kindergartens in the real sense of the word.

Chao Phraya Dharmasakdimontri finally emphasized that the government should see to it that all schools should have the same standard of education and share the same objectives of national education. Every student was to be trained to serve society as a good, well-informed citizen of a democratic country.
4. The National Education Scheme of 1936 (See Appendix II)

Naval Captain Luang Sintusongkramchai became Minister of Tam-makarn in 1935 and played an important part in formulating a new National Education Scheme which was declared near the end of 1936. The National Education Scheme of 1936 was conceived with a view to improving that of 1933 which required too many years of study—12 years in the general section of education plus a few more in the vocational section.

The main differences between this new scheme and the previous one may be summarized as follows:

1. Elementary education was reduced to four years instead of six.

2. For secondary education, there were now only six years of study to complete the courses, i.e. three years in each part. Those who did not wish to enter university could finish their secondary education in six years instead of eight.

3. Pre-university education was provided for students who had completed secondary education courses and wished to continue in university later on. As a kind of preparation for university studies, pre-university education offered subjects that were directly relevant to those in the universities.

4. Vocational Education was organized to take students who had completed any of the courses of Samansueksa; therefore, a student could, at any stage of his education, embark upon the study of vocational subjects.

5. Educational Development following the 1936 Scheme

Since elementary grades 5 and 6 no longer existed in elementary education, the Ministry of Public Instruction made plans to set up vocational elementary schools. A large number of qualified teachers were required, but since it was not feasible to set new syllabuses and open vocational teacher training colleges in such a short time, the Ministry arranged a special training programme on vocational subjects for teachers from Prachabarn schools in the provinces. The programme offered a minimum one-year course that could be extended to three years if required. Furthermore, for the develop-
ment of vocational education, the Ministry of Public Instruction set up two agricultural secondary schools in Nakorn Ratchasima and Songkla.

For secondary education, the Ministry formulated new syllabuses and teaching programmes to suit the new National Education Scheme. The new syllabuses and teaching programmes were drafted with the aim to give students enough knowledge in general so that they could become good members of society. To fulfil this aim it was essential that every student should know his duties towards his community; therefore, the Ministry of Public Instruction added to the syllabuses a new subject dealing with morality and civics. In this way, a student who had completed his secondary education would know something about the government of his country, his obligations under the law, his legal rights and duties concerning everyday life.

In addition, the Ministry of Public Instruction, in conjunction with the Ministry of Defence, formed a Youth Corps of secondary students who were given military training. The training of secondary students could prove to be of great value in the defence of the country as well as relieve the forces of its time-consuming task of training full-grown men.

Physical Education was promoted through the collaboration of the Department of Physical Education and the Department of Education, both of which played an important part in organizing students' sports and training students to be healthy and of good conduct. For further development of physical education, the Department of Physical Education proposed to the Cabinet a project to set up teacher training schools of physical education, which would train teachers to teach secondary students, because the demand for physical education teachers was becoming greater in proportion to the increased activities in this field. With the help of the Ministry of Defence, the Ministry of Public Instruction managed to find teachers and training centres to cater for those who came from Prachabarn schools in the provinces. Apart from the promotion of students' sports, the Department of Physical Education aimed to make sports available to the general public who would be encouraged to participate more in sports activities.
In 1937, the government, in compliance with the National Education Scheme, decided to abolish elementary grades 5 and 6 in Prachabarn schools and municipal schools. In 1938, it took over all vocational schools from Prachabarn which was left with the control of elementary education only. When private schools and Prachabarn schools were more firmly established and better organized, they would be allowed complete control of elementary education which would then be relinquished by government schools all over the country. Except in some areas where there were no private schools or Prachabarn schools, the government schools would be able to cancel all elementary classes and concentrate solely on secondary education which would be expanded to embrace all parts of the country.

A number of different kinds of teacher training colleges were built to meet the demands for more teachers; nevertheless, there was still a shortage of qualified teachers among most schools because the number of schools and students was increasing rapidly, especially in Prachabarn areas where the number of qualified teachers was in poor proportion to that of the students.

6. The Establishment of the Ministry of Education

In 1938 there was a change of government. The new government passed a new act on the administration of the Ministry of Public Instruction whereby the Department of Education was abolished and the Department of General Education (Samansueksa) and the Department of Technical Knowledge (Wichakarn) were set up in its place on April 1, 1939. The Department of General Education was in charge of Samansueksa, and the Department of Technical knowledge took charge of vocational education as well as improved the syllabuses, textbooks and set the examinations. In 1941, the name of the Ministry of Public Instruction was changed into the Ministry of Education. The Department of Ecclesiastical Affairs was renamed the Department of Religious Affairs, and in 1942 the Wichakarn Department became the Department of Vocational Education (Archewasueksa), the general policy of the newly founded Ministry of Education, as announced by the Minister of Education, Admiral Sin Kamolnawin in 1941, was as follows;
1. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. The main objective was to have as many schools as possible and to admit all children who would be encouraged to pass the examinations of elementary grade 4 so that they would not have to study the same course again in the classes provided for adult education. There was still a problem of teachers' qualifications and the syllabus that was being revised. Although the textbooks were sufficient in number and up to standard, a great number of children were so poor that they could not afford to buy them.

2. GENERAL EDUCATION. Every effort was being made to provide education for all students who wished to continue their studies up to the university level. However, the government had no immediate plan to build more state schools or increasing the number of classes in these schools, but would rather entrust the expansion of secondary education to the private sector.

3. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. The aim was to train students in such a way that when they had completed the courses they would be well prepared for any kind of work that required a certain skill. Vocational courses could be taken by students who could not afford to carry on their studies in the Section of General Education, which required more money and time to complete than Vocational Education. Besides, the Ministry of Education wanted to change the general belief that skilled labour was an inferior type of work and to prove that vocational studies could be as important and profitable as studies of other subjects.

4. PHYSICAL EDUCATION. Provincial governors should help set up playing-fields and preserve traditional Thai sports in their provinces.

5. PRIVATE SCHOOLS. The government should support the setting up of private schools. In order to provide places for students the number of private schools should be increased with the help of the government in order for them to achieve and maintain high standard.

7. Education during the War Years (1941 - 1945)

At the end of the school year of 1941, the Ministry of Education cancelled all final examinations because Thailand was in a state of war although she did not take an active part in it. Adjustments were made in the absence of annual final examinations in that year for students with regard to their
achievement. A 60 percent attendance was deemed a successful completion of the course of that year.

In 1942, there was another change of government, and Lieutenant General Prayoon Pamornmontri became Minister of Education. A year later the Ministry took control of all municipal schools. In its report of 1943, the Department of General Education stated that the progress of education had been impeded by the shortage of funds. With more adequate funds, the Ministry would be able to buy more teaching equipment, build more schools, train more teachers, etc. In spite of this and the war years, which were disrupting the normal routine, it could be said that the achievements in 1943 were no less satisfactory than those of the preceding years.

In 1944, as the central areas of Bangkok and Dhonburi were under constant air bombardment, schools in dangerous areas were evacuated. Later the government ordered all government and private schools closed until 1945.

8. The National Education Scheme of 1951 (See Appendix III)

The idea to revise the National Education Scheme began in 1947, but it was not until 1950 that a committee was formed to draft a new scheme of education which was completed in 1951. Later on in the same year Lieutenant General Sawad S. Sawadikiat, Minister of Education, mentioned the new plan while addressing the conference on Prachabarn Education:

"The problem of Prachabarn Education is inseparable from that of Compulsory Education which forms the basis of the country's development. According to the Elementary Education Act, children are compelled to attend school until they are fifteen years of age. However, any student who can pass elementary grade 4 examination can leave school. It has, nevertheless been generally recognized that the knowledge obtained from 4 years of elementary education is not sufficient for the present society. Nowadays every country is trying to keep their children at school as long as possible so that when they leave school after completing their compulsory education, they will
be well-informed citizens. At present, there is not a single developed country that imposes only four years of compulsory education. If we want to compete with foreigners, we shall have to make our people better educated. The Ministry of Education has been concerned about this matter and has set up a committee aiming at extending the period of compulsory education to seven years and making every student obtain at least the certificate of Secondary grade 3 or its equivalent.”

According to this scheme, secondary education was divided into three branches: Samansueksa (General Education), Wisamansueksa (Special General Education), and Archewasueksa (Vocational Education).

Samansueksa at the secondary level, was the continuation of elementary education and the training for work which provided the foundations of knowledge and enhanced the ability of citizens. Ranging from secondary grades 1 to 3, this was a new branch aiming at dividing equally the courses between the study of textbooks and the training of students’ skills. As a result, after leaving school at this stage, students would be able to do something practical, working as skilled labourers, for example, and not just having book knowledge.

Wisamansueksa was the education fundamental to the pre-university or vocational courses. It lasted six years (secondary grades 1 to 6).

Archewasueksa was the study of specific subjects essential to earning one’s living. It could be pursued by students who had completed certain courses of elementary education, or secondary education. It was divided into 2 parts: “Elementary Vocational Education” and “Advanced Vocational Education”.

9. The National Education Scheme of 1960 (See Appendix IV)

After the coup d'etat in 1958, Field Marshall Sarit Tanarat, the leader of the Revolutionary Party, appointed a committee of twelve called “The Committee for Revising the Education Scheme”. The committee operated until September 1959 when it was dissolved by the decree of the Revolutionary Party which set up in its place the Council of National Education
with Field Marshal Sarit as chairman. The Council took over the unfinished task of revising the National Education Scheme of 1951, and formed an administrative committee headed by M.L. Pin Malakul, Minister of Education, to draft a new scheme which was completed in 1960. It is interesting to note that, for the first time in our history of education, we had a council of education consisting of as many as 77 members from all sectors of life who came together to deliberate upon a national education scheme. These members could not be regarded as true representatives of the people in the sense that they had not been elected by the public but selected by the Revolutionary Party, however the formulation of the National Education Scheme was quite democratic because it had to gain the approval of this council.

10. The four National Education Schemes: an Overview

Since 1932, which marked the change of government to democracy, every national education scheme had aimed at giving every citizen education suitable to his inate ability and financial situation. In the National Education Scheme of 1960, there was a stipulation: "The State intends to give every citizen as much education as his aptitude would allow" meaning that poverty should no longer prevent a potential citizen from pursuing his study. As a matter of fact, the previous governments had, in practice, been working along this line of thought before 1960. The fact that this concept of equal opportunity was specifically stated in this National Education Scheme meant that from then on the State would make greater effort to give financial support to students who were poor but capable of higher studies.

The National Education Schemes of 1933 and 1936 specified that there should be three kinds of education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical, which were all to be considered equally important. In the National Education Scheme of 1951, Hattanueksa or Practical Education was added to the other three kinds of education, and these four were supposed to be studied in equal proportion. The National Education Scheme of 1960, abandoned this principle of shifted equal proportion, and adopted a new principle which was to provide education to meet the demands of society and individuals, and
national education would be organized to suit the economic policy and the administrative machinery of the nation.

As for the division of education into grades and levels, there was a great change. Pre-elementary and university education, the lowest and highest levels of education, were unaffected while elementary, secondary, pre-university and advanced vocational education were merged into two levels only: elementary and secondary education. Elementary education was divided into 2 parts, of which the first contained 4 grades and the second 3 grades; secondary education was likewise divided into 2 parts i.e. 3 years and 2 or 3 years respectively. Superficially it looked as if there were no significant changes from the original organization of education but a careful study revealed that some important elements were affected by the new division of grades and levels.

According to the National Education Scheme of 1951, elementary education signified the study of subjects that gave basic knowledge, and there were 4 grades for children from the age of eight to eleven. If one were to consider elementary education designed for children, it should last more than 4 years because at eleven years of age one is still a child. The National Education Scheme of 1960 regarded the first 4 years of elementary education as only the first part of elementary education and believed there should be 3 more years of study at this level. Consequently, the first part of secondary education of 1951's Scheme became in 1960 the second part of elementary education. The prolongation of elementary education was not in itself a new idea in our history of education. From 1902 to 1912, for example, there used to be 6 years of study before secondary education. Thanks to the new classification, our secondary education conformed to the international standards, and secondary education could then be rightly considered as education for adolescents.

Before the Revolution of 1932, secondary grade 8 was marked as the final stage of general education (Samansueksa) which, with 4 years of elementary education, consisted of 12 years of study. However after 1937, secondary grades 7 and 8 were excluded from general education and classified as pre-
university education, designed for those who really wished to further their studies at the university level, so the general education was reduced to 10 years of study. But a great number of students still demanded at least 12 years of general education, and pre-university education could not be maintained exclusively for a small minority of students as planned. For this reason, the National Education Scheme of 1960 decided to go back to the twelve-year general education to satisfy the majority who now demanded higher education.

In the National Education Scheme of 1951, there were two branches of education: general education and vocational education, either of which could be selected by students after elementary grade 4. However, in practice, this division of education at such an early stage had not been working out too well because vocational subjects could be effectively studied only when a student had a good grasp of basic knowledge and training in general, which required at least 6 or 7 years of elementary education.

On compulsory education, the National Education Scheme of 1960 added a special clause that the State should, as far as its financial condition would allow, extend the period of compulsory education to raise the standard of the people's basic knowledge. The target was to have 7 years of compulsory education. In addition, the Scheme made special provisions for disabled children who were exempted from compulsory education so that they might, regardless of their inborn handicaps, be given some form of basic education.

In general, the principal change brought about by the National Education Scheme of 1960 was the expansion of both elementary and secondary education. The fact that elementary education now required 7 years of study and that it was given priority as the essential foundation of education for the general public meant a major step towards real democracy, since the viability of a democracy is based upon the standard of education of its people. Failure to govern a country in a democratic system often stems from one important factor, namely that there are not enough educated middle-class people to create public opinion. In the history of our democracy, most problems have been caused by the low standard of education of our people. The higher the standard of education becomes, the easier it is going to be for the country to be governed in a democratic system.
Chapter V

THE CONTEMPORARY SCENE

i) Pre-School Education, Elementary Education and Special Education

Pre-School Education

Concept and Aims

Pre-school education in Thailand, like anywhere else, is designed to encourage harmonious physical, intellectual, emotional and social development, so that a child would be well prepared for the formal education he is due to receive. Realizing the importance of educational conditions in early childhood in the later development of aptitudes and personality, the Ministry of Education established La-or Udis Kindergarten,\(^1\) the first of its kind, as far back as 1940.

Strategy

Since then early childhood education has been gradually enlarged; at present, two types of classes which are not compulsory are offered to preschool-age children. Firstly, there are kindergartens, both public and private, which admit children aged 4-6. The course in these kindergartens is two years before the children proceed to Grade 1. Secondly, there are also pre-primary classes attached to public primary schools. These classes admit children at the age of 5 who would take a one-year course leading to Elementary Grade 1. The pre-primary classes, in fact, have the same fundamental purpose as the kindergartens. The only difference is that they are attached to certain primary schools where there is a necessity to eliminate language and cultural difficulties.

\(^1\) La—or Udis Kindergarten is now a demonstration school for kindergarten teachers, attached to the Teacher Training Department.
The Ministry of Education has founded in each province a kindergarten which serves as model school for private ones. It also plans to establish a school of this type in each district in future.

In 1974, there were 78 kindergartens under the care of the Ministry of Education, 72 of which also offered elementary Grades 1-4 while the remaining 6 covered elementary Grades 1-7 as well. Private kindergartens were 766 in number. Infant classes were offered in 127 primary schools. Altogether 176,202 children out of 3,822,695 in the 4-6 age group (representing 4.61%) were given pre-school education.

The Ministry of Education launched also in 1974, a nation-wide head-start project, which, at the initial stage, was implemented in 84 Buddhist temples. The aim of establishing these schools in the temples is that the monks, who serve as teachers, would be able to prepare the children for formal education later on and teach them certain ethical values at the same time. The 1974 statistics shows that there were 4,347 children benefiting from this pilot project, which, if successful, would be widely expanded in future.

Primary Education

Concept and aims

The main objectives of primary education are to provide all boys and girls with moral, physical, intellectual and practical education in accordance with their individual capacities, so that they should be moral citizens with discipline and responsibility, with good mental and physical health, and with a democratic outlook. In other words, primary education is designed to teach our future citizens self-realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

Policy and strategy

In order to achieve these educational objectives, primary education has been compulsory in Thailand since 1921. Before 1960, it consisted of only four years, and all 7 year-olds were required to be in school till the end
of Grade IV, or until the age of 14, whichever came first. In accordance with the recommendation of the Karachi Plan proposed by the UNESCO Regional Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States on Primary and Compulsory Education, held in Karachi between December 28, 1959 - January 9, 1960, the Government of Thailand committed itself to the expansion of compulsory education from 4 to 7 years, and promulgated a new National Education Scheme in 1960. It was then decided that the duration of compulsory education should be gradually extended to 7 years depending on the resources and readiness of each locality.

Since compulsory elementary education consumes vast sums of money, the government policy, as stipulated in the National Education Scheme encourages the establishment of private elementary schools. Approximately 10% of the total enrolment in elementary education is in private schools at the present time. Most of the latter, however, are located in the urban areas.

**Administration and control**

The Ministry of Education formerly had responsibility for all educational activities below the university level. In 1959, the government adopted a policy of decentralization. In conformity with this policy, the administration of public primary schools in municipal areas was transferred to the municipalities. In 1966, all the public primary schools in rural areas were transferred to the Changwad Administrative Organization. Public elementary schools can therefore be classified as follows:

1. municipal schools;
2. government schools which are attached to the Department of General Education;
3. demonstration schools which are attached to teacher training colleges and some universities; and
4. rural schools, the vast majority of which are attached to the provincial administrative authorities called the Changwad Administrative Organization (CAO).
At present, the General Education Department administers only schools which are reserved for experimentation and demonstration and a few upper primary schools for socio-economically deprived children. Although school administration has by and large been transferred to the CAO, responsibilities for curriculum development, school standards, instructional supervision, and various instructional services continue to be vested in the Ministry of Education.

Size of primary education, school year 1974
(public and private schools)

Primary school-age population:
  Lower primary (7-10 years) 4,512,622
  Upper primary (11-13 years) 3,008,054

Total enrolment in primary schools:
  Lower primary 5,156,314
  Upper primary 1,350,452

Primary enrolment ratio 86.52%
Total number of teachers 219,363
Proportion of trained teachers 70.00%
Pupil-teacher ratio 31
Total number of schools 30,909

Orientation of primary education

In order to achieve the educational objectives already mentioned, the elementary school curriculum prescribes a number of required subjects with time allotments for each. The curriculum pattern, however, is heavily oriented towards a Western form of education especially in relation to the organization of modern subjects. The medium of instruction is Thai, in the form used in the central plains of Thailand.

Curriculum research has been carried out both extensively and intensively by the Elementary Education Division, Department of General
Education, and the Bangkok Institute for Child Study, Srinakharinwirot University. Research findings reveal that the goals of primary education tend to be too broad and too general to be of much help in establishing appropriate curricula and in evaluating pupil progress. The objectives are not formulated in measurable terms or in terminal performance specifications. The content of education is oriented toward examination criteria with an over-emphasis on academic subjects. Thus the system attempts to prepare all school children for further education even though not more than 35% of fourth-grade children have access to upper primary education and only a small percentage from that level proceeds to secondary and higher education.

The quality of primary education is uneven. Urban schools are generally more efficient, offering relatively good basic education to a large percentage of the relevant age-groups, whereas children in rural areas often find programmes of limited scope and quality.

Because of the shortage of qualified teachers and lack of teaching materials and textbooks, instruction in rural schools stresses reading, writing, arithmetic and fact memorization. In some schools there are no syllabi, lesson plans or curriculum guides for teachers. In schools where teaching materials are available, many teachers are inclined to depend on textbooks and memorization of subject-matter rather than encourage active pupil participation.

The examination system in primary education is another problem, and its effects are felt throughout the educational process. So long as subject-matter examinations which put a premium upon rote-learning are required, the curriculum and teaching methods will continue to emphasize memorization and preparation for examinations rather than actual learning. The most noxious effect is that many students, even parents, feel that education consists only of preparation for interim and end-of-year examinations. And teachers tend to blame children's learning abilities rather than their own poor instructional methods when their pupils do not pass the end-of-year examination.
The Ministry of Education has completed a systematic appraisal of the existing curriculum with a definite intention to reform it at many levels. The conclusions were as follows: "... curriculum objectives of the elementary level were too broad and idealistic with respect to what primary pupils can actually learn, while the curriculum content was primarily subject-matter oriented, inducing, to a large extent, only cognitive development. Besides the stated purposes, content prescription and time allotment proportions, little attention was given to suggesting ways and means for teachers to organize, in the light of children’s needs and curiosities, the learning programme, materials and desirable environments which lead to sensible learning experiences".

The lack of instructional materials for the use of teachers is a serious handicap, especially in the rural areas. Very few schools have such curriculum guides or lesson plans. Besides, those which are available tend to follow those used in the metropolitan area of Bangkok-Dhonburi, which are not appropriate for rural children. The Ministry of Education, through the Department of Educational Techniques in which a Division of Curriculum Development was established, has therefore given considerable priority to curriculum reform, including textbook development.

With a view to introducing modern mathematics in primary education, the Supervisory Unit of the former Department of Elementary and Adult Education launched in 1968 an experimental programme in a small number of schools in Bangkok-Dhonburi. This programme encompasses the development of curriculum, textbooks, workbooks, teaching materials, and intensive teacher training. In view of the success of the experiment, it is expected that this programme will be extended to more primary schools in the next few years.

Although the examination system, especially the end-of-year evaluation, persists, the process of evaluating primary education has been improved. Formative evaluation has been emphasized. An automatic promotion programme, initially in Grades 1, 3, 5 and 6, has been implemented in quite a number of schools; it will be extended to a larger number of schools in the next few years,
Problems and experiments

1. Finances The Budget Bureau (Prime Minister's Office) allocates all public primary education funds through the Department of Local Administration (Ministry of Interior) for the municipal and rural primary schools, and through the Department of General Education (Ministry of Education) for the rest.

The major item of public recurring expenditure (90%) is teachers' salaries. Average teachers' salaries have risen slightly less than per capita income, and this fact has tended to induce teacher shortages and the recruitment of low qualified teachers in the rural areas.

With decentralization of public school administration to the local authorities, it was expected that the municipal and provincial administrative authorities would assume a greater proportion of the financial burden. Although 25% of the local budgets are intended to be utilized for primary education, many localities have not been able to meet this target because of economic constraints.

2. Drop-outs and repeaters Thailand still faces the problem of having 48% of the children who enter the first grade repeating grades; thus it may take 5 or 6, and in a few cases 7 years, to complete four grades. In addition, dropout rates average about 6% each year. The repeater rates in Grades 1-4, however, have been decreasing in the past few years but are still significant. In 1961, 32% of the pupils in the first grade were repeaters, but by 1973 the proportion had decreased to 24%.

A study of repeaters in 1965 indicated that 50% were in the first grade, 25% in the second, 18% in the third and 7% in the fourth. A follow-up study in 1973 yielded similar results. Thus approximately 69% of repeaters in the lower primary cycle were found in the first two grades. Repeater rates in rural schools are much higher than in urban schools.

3. Shortage of Resources Primary education suffers from a shortage of trained teachers mainly in rural areas, since better teachers normally
find employment in urban areas. In 1973, educational statistics indicated that about 2% of primary school teachers in the country were degree holders, about 30% diploma holders, 38% lower certificate holders, while 30% had no proper teaching qualification.

The shortage of classrooms and teaching materials, including textbooks, contribute to the low quality of primary education. To alleviate material shortages, a programme of free textbooks and teaching materials is included in the Third Five-Year Plan. Approximately 150 million Baht (US$ 7.2 million) has been allocated for this purpose.

Conclusion

In a country such as Thailand, plagued by increasing financial limitations combined with rising expectations for education on the part of the population, careful planning of primary school development is essential to reduce wide disparities in educational facilities and opportunities in different parts of the country and to make efficient use of available resources. This is being done through operational plans prepared by the Department of Local Administration (Division of Rural Elementary Education) and Changwad Administrative Organizations, with the collaboration of the National Education Commission and the Planning Division of the Office of the Under-Secretary of State for Education.

Special Education in Thailand

The term “Special Education” as defined by the Thai Ministry of Education is somewhat different from the conventional meaning as understood in the western hemisphere. In other countries, this may refer to the provision of education for children who are exceptional or handicapped physically, psychologically or mentally, socially, and emotionally. In Thailand, the term carries a broader connotation that special education is provided for all kinds of handicapped children (including those who live in remote areas and economically handicapped) in order to maximize the effort of compulsory education.
It has been the government policy to provide special education as well as to encourage private sectors to share the burden. The Ministry of Education has been providing the voluntary organizations with financial and academic assistance in terms of construction costs and teachers.

The implementation of special education programmes in Thailand is the joint effort of governmental authorities and different foundations to which some special schools belong. The government's contribution towards these schools to the form of an annual subsidy, teachers' salaries, school building costs, educational equipment and students' board and lodging. At present special education in Thailand may be described as in the following paragraphs:

**Education for the blind**

There are 3 schools for the blind, namely:

1. **Bangkok School for the Blind** This residential school for boys and girls between 6-14 years of age was established in 1939 by the Foundation for the Blind in Thailand under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen. The school programme also includes vocational training for blind girls.

2. **Northern School for the Blind** This is also a residential school for boys and girls set up in Chiangmai in 1961, run by the Foundation for the Welfare and Education for the Blind in Northern Thailand.

3. **Nonthaburi Vocational Training Center** This institution offers training in various occupational skills to blind male trainees aged between 15-30.

Besides the programme in special schools, in 1965 the Ministry of Education inaugurated the programme of integrating blind children into regular classrooms from kindergarten to high school wherever practicable.

Blind students in the special schools and in the integrated programme who prove to be good learners are encouraged to further their study in the academic stream in accordance with their potentiality, while others are entitled to receive vocational training according to their aptitude.
Education for the Deaf

To date, the education for the deaf is provided for boys and girls of school age in residential schools. Only students in Bangkok and Dhonburi are not boarders. Those who show potentialities in specialized fields will be encouraged to continue their study in regular vocational schools.

At present there are five residential schools for the deaf located in different parts of the country.

Education for the Crippled

Severe poliomyelites first occurred widely in Thailand around 1951. Hundreds of children in Bangkok and the provinces suffered seriously. An unfortunate result was that the "post-polio" children were physically unable to attend school and a remedy measure was started as a bed-side teaching programme in hospitals in 1955. Then it was developed to a special school for severely handicapped children, while the mild cases are encouraged to go to regular schools. The work for the crippled in Thailand has yielded promising results due to the joint efforts of various governmental agencies and private organizations at home and abroad.

The School for the Crippled, called "Sri Sangwarn" after Her Royal Highness the Princess Mother, is run by the Foundation for the Welfare of the Crippled with the co-operation of the Ministry of Education. It is located at Amphoe Pakred, Nondhaburi. Those who live outside Bangkok, Dhonburi and Nondhaburi are boarders, while those who live in the metropolitan area commute by bus provided by the Foundation.

In some hospitals, special classes and bed-side teaching are provided for children under school age who are chronically ill in order to give them equal opportunity in education.

Education for the Mentally-retarded

In 1955, the General Education Department, then called Department of Elementary and Adult Education, started a programme for the mentally-
retarded by setting up special classes for the slow-learners and educable mentally-retarded in some government-owned elementary schools in Bangkok and Chonburi. At present this kind of service is widely known and becomes a regular school programme.

As for the severely mentally-retarded, there is a residential school named "Rajanukoon". The school premises located within the compound of the Institute of Mental Retardation in Bangkok were built primarily by His Majesty the King’s donation. The school is run by the Medical Services Department, Ministry of Public Health, with the assistance and co-operation of the Foundation for the Welfare of the Mentally-retarded under the patronage of Her Majesty the Queen. The General Education Department provided the necessary technical assistance and teachers.

**Education for Hill-Tribes’ Children**

One-fifth of the total area of Thailand lies in the hills and valleys in the north. There are approximately six major hill-tribes. These hill-tribes have different languages, ways of living and beliefs. Owing to the differences in their linguistic background and cultures, there is a great need for special approaches and techniques in educating these children.

The government has given special attention to the provision of education for hill-tribes’ children and is going to establish a special school in each province where they are found. A case in point is a special school built for hill-tribes’ children in Phetchaboon in 1971. Students of this school are provided with board and lodging, clothing and educational materials.

At present education for hill-tribes’ children are mostly provided in the one or two-room schools scattered in the mountainous areas. Those schools are run either by the Changwad Administrative Organization or the Patrol Police. The Ministry of Education is responsible for the training of teachers, preparation and distribution of textbooks, teachers’ manuals and other educational materials.

Teachers of hill-tribes’ children not only teach but try to serve as community leaders in various development activities. Since the hill-tribe people
speak their own dialects not understandable to other people, it is necessary to set up a special curriculum which emphasizes basic skills in learning Thai as a second language in order that they will be able to communicate with other people in towns for the transaction of business.

Education for Children in Remote Areas

A residential school was founded in each of the 12 educational regions with the aim of providing education for children who cannot attend regular schools owing to geographical, transport and economic problems. These children need special facilities from the government in the forms of food and accommodation, clothing, educational materials, medical care as well as special training. The special curriculum for this type of schools emphasizes basic skills and good citizenship. Hopefully, they will go back to help develop their own villages after graduation. The average annual enrolment from Grades 1–7 of both sexes in each school is approximately 500.

Education for Boatmen’s Children

There are a good number of Thai people who earn their living by selling goods along the rivers and canals. They have no permanent homes and the children have to accompany their parents on the trips. In January 1960, the Bang Kruay Elementary Boarding School was instituted on the bank of the Chao Phya River at Bang Kruay District, Nondhaburi. This school offers educational facilities, as well as clothes, board and lodging to boatmen’s children who lack an opportunity of attending school. Besides regular courses of study, the school also provides some vocational training suitable for river traders.

Education for Leprous Children and Children of Lepers

Children of lepers or leprous children themselves are considered socially handicapped. Those who are of school age must receive at least compulsory education. In order to segregate the lepers from other people and to separate children from parents who suffer from leprosy, special boarding school are set up for them in some provinces where leprosy is found. Rehabilitation programmes and medical care are one of the government’s main concerns.
Major Problems

At present special education programme in Thailand is carried out on a limited scale and has to face many problems. Firstly, the Ministry of Education could not expand the scope of work due to the lack of budget and personnel. Secondly, foundations which support activities for handicapped children are more preoccupied with the philanthropic rather than the educational aspect. Thirdly, there are few qualified teachers who have been trained in the field of special education. Most teachers who work in schools or institutions for handicapped children are offered only in-service training. Finally, the attitude of the people towards the handicapped in Thailand tends to be overprotective. They feel that those handicapped people should be taken care of and that it is not necessary for them to be educated or to earn their living. Job opportunities for handicapped workers are too limited.

The Ministry of Education is fully aware of these obstacles and attempts have accordingly been made to overcome them.

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ii) Secondary Education

Concept and Aims

It is felt that the desirable role of the school should be to encourage nationalism, to develop character and personality, to help improve the national economy, to provide government leaders as well as professional, technical and skilled workers. Thus it can be said that the elementary education aims at providing basic knowledge and promoting the development of children towards effective learning and desirable behaviour. Secondary education which follows aims basically to give students general knowledge and skills to enable them to earn a living, or to become an apprentice or to continue their studies at a higher level. It aims, at a deeper level, to explore and promote the interests and aptitudes of individual students, taking into account individual differences.

The curriculum of the secondary school in Thailand is literary, linguistic, mathematical and scientific. It is divided into two streams - academic and vocational. The academic stream is designed to prepare students for university and the vocational stream to provide specific vocational training.

The academic stream consists of five years of study – three lower and two upper grades; the vocational stream consists of 6 years of study – three lower and three upper grades. Students may transfer from the lower level of the academic stream to the upper level of the vocational stream if they wish. For details of subjects and class-hours of a typical secondary school curriculum, see Appendix V.

Policy and Strategy

The first overall economic and social educational plan, known as the First Six Year Development Plan, was introduced in 1961. It was based on the National Scheme of Education, with emphasis on providing educational opportunities outside the Bangkok-Dhonburi area and in the central region of the country. In 1966 followed the Second Five Year Plan (1966-1971), which laid emphasis on the quantitative expansion of secondary, technical, professional, and teacher education in order to provide both the middle- and high-
level manpower needed for economic development. The plan proved so successful that the manpower shortages in most fields were eliminated during the plan period. There was also very great qualitative improvement at all levels of education. Teachers were better qualified and more attention was devoted to supplying adequate quantity of teaching materials and school buildings.

The present period is under the Third Five Year Plan (1971–1976). This plan aims to improve education in relation to the socio-economic development of the country. Curricula at all levels are to be improved and diversified, particularly in rural areas so that what is learnt is more directly applicable to the future lives the children will live. As regards secondary education, it is to be expanded to comply with the demand for manpower at the middle level. Schools will be built in every amphoe all over the country during the plan period.

Curriculum development is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. There is a permanent Curriculum Committee appointed by the Ministry of Education, consisting of the Directors-General of all the departments in the Ministry except the Department of Fine Arts and the Department of Religious Affairs. But, in practice, a committee, consisting of selected teachers, supervisors, university instructors and officials of the Ministry of Education, is appointed to consider curriculum objectives and requirements. Then, sub-committees consisting of specialized subject teachers are appointed to work out specific details. Next, the resulting syllabus is examined by the committee to ensure that it is in accordance with the Ministry of Education rules and regulations. Usually before the new curriculum is introduced into the school, it is explained and discussed at seminars and conferences convened for the purpose by the Ministry. Regional modifications, within the framework of the original, are permitted so that the curriculum may be more effective in catering for local needs and conditions.

The responsibilities of the academic secondary school are to recruit and select students by means of competitive examinations. Students must pass an entrance examination, as only a limited number of applicants can be accepted each year. Those who fail in the entrance examination go to a
private or a coaching school to prepare themselves for the public examinations for the certificate of lower secondary and upper secondary education.

Other responsibilities are to teach according to the specified curriculum, examine students, manage funds and expenses, keep records, provide instructional aids, maintain good public relations, and carry out all the administrative work within the school. Each secondary school organizes its own examinations and has the right to pass its students at all levels except M.S. 5 at which level the examinations at present are organized by the Ministry of Education itself.

The secondary school teacher's duties are the typical ones of lesson preparation, instruction, test and examination preparation, evaluation and record keeping. School management falls largely on the principal. If too difficult a problem arises, the principal may call upon provincial or departmental assistance.

As for curriculum text-books and teaching aids, the school gets assistance from the Department of Educational Techniques, Ministry of Education, whose responsibilities are to approve and prepare lists of books for use in the schools as well as to promote the use of instructional aids on the part of teachers.

Before 1958 every school had a six-day week, but since then they have been allowed to open five or six days a week as they see fit. However, the hours of study must total at least 30 per week for primary and secondary schools, and 33 for vocational schools.

The prevailing practice is a school day of about 6 hours divided into periods of 50 or 60 minutes. School is usually in session 5 days a week for 180 days from May to March. There are three terms in an academic year. But with the new scheme of education started in June 1975 with the M.S. 4 level, there are only two semesters, one lasting from June 1 - October 15 and the other from November 1 - March 15.
The emphasis on examinations is still very pronounced. Students proceed from grade to grade by means of examinations. Admission to secondary schools and universities depend upon them. Many students are eliminated at the end of each year through failure in examinations. Thus a high promotion rate inevitably becomes one of the goals which all schools try to achieve.

Examinations given at the end of the primary level, the lower secondary level and the upper secondary level, are set by the Ministry of Education. University entrance examinations are conducted by the Bureau of State Universities. Throughout his school career, a student has to take examinations. Consequently, all effort is concentrated on passing the examinations successfully.

Administration

General responsibility for administering the educational system rests with the Under-Secretary of State for Education. The local administration is divided into three different levels:

1. The regional level which consists of 12 regional education offices, each headed by a regional education officer. He and his staff serve as general supervisors and provide in-service training.

2. The changwad level which consists of 71 Changwad: each administered by a changwad education officer.

3. The amphoe level which consists of about 550 amphoe. Amphoe education officers are responsible for supervising all education in the amphoe.

In the central region, however, all schools and colleges, government and private, are administered directly by the appropriate departments of the Ministry of Education.

The Ministry of Education takes full responsibility for formulating policy and for controlling all types of secondary education. It controls education through the preparation of curriculum and the provision of text-books.
General secondary schools are administered by the Department of General Education, and vocational schools by the Department of Vocational Education. All private schools come under the Office of Private Education Commission.

The Department of General education, which administers all Government secondary schools, is responsible for constructing school buildings, providing qualified teachers, budgeting, gathering statistical data, maintaining official records, determining the administrative area and financing the enterprise. It also supervises the curriculum and method of instruction.

The Department of Educational Techniques is responsible for preparing and administering nationwide examinations in public and private schools for the certification of M.S. 5 graduates. It provides professional assistance to various departments in the development of curriculum, textbooks and teaching aids. It approves and prepares lists of books for use in school, as well as gives the Ministry of Education advice on educational matters and issues.

Finance

All government schools obtain an annual budget from the Government for salaries, miscellaneous expenditure, equipment, buildings, etc. They are free of charge but students have to pay small subscriptions, chiefly spent on sports equipment, library books, learning and teaching facilities.

Teachers in government schools are civil servants. Their starting salaries are assessed according to their qualifications. On retirement, like all other civil servants, they receive a gratuity or a life pension.

Private schools receive certain subsidies from the Ministry to provide salaries for qualified teachers.

Targets and Plans of Operation

The targets and plans of operation of the Department of General Education as regards secondary education include the following:

1. To provide for an increasing enrolment of secondary school students in provincial areas at a higher rate than student enrolment in Bangkok, and
to upgrade the quality of teaching and learning in schools in the provincial areas to a level that is equal to, or higher than, that in schools in Bangkok.

2. To improve the quality of secondary education by:

2.1 Supplying buildings, teaching aids, materials and equipment to project schools;
2.2 Improving the quality of teaching and learning by means of supervision and in-service training;
2.3 Developing research and analysis pertaining to secondary education such as research on curriculum, methods of teaching and testing;
2.4 Increasing the number of teachers in proportion to the increasing quantity of work.
2.5 Promoting security, welfare and opportunities of teachers to keep up their morale and to increase work efficiency.
2.6 Seeking foreign assistance - technical, material as well as financial;

3. To solicit from private agencies and other organizations land for sites of new schools or annexes, and funds for construction.

4. To support and encourage private schools to improve their standards of education.

Programmes and Projects

Many new programmes and projects have been proposed to meet the needs of the community. An example is the change in the orientation of the comprehensive high school.

The Comprehensive High School

As it became apparent that many vocational skills could not be taught effectively to 14–16 year-old children in lower vocational secondary schools, the authorities concerned thus decided to gradually abolish vocational education at this level, and to replace it with a new system of comprehensive secondary education with a diversified curriculum.
The comprehensive high school differs from the academic and vocational high schools in that both streams are combined in one school under a single administrative staff. Its objectives are:

1. To educate students according to their individual aptitudes;

2. To develop a background of general education so that students will have the basis for further specialized studies;

3. To provide pre-vocational instruction so that students will be better able to earn a living after leaving school or pursue further vocational studies;

4. To promote the social emotional intellectual and physical growth of students.

The first comprehensive school in Thailand was a girls' school, Suranaree Wittaya, opened in Korat in 1960. This type of school was planned at the time when the 1960 National Scheme of Education was being drafted, but was not included in the Scheme because of its experimental nature. The school was such a success that it led to the opening of the second comprehensive school, Rajseema Wittayalai, a boys' secondary school.

The first two comprehensive schools have been very successful. The number of drop-outs has been decreasing noticeably as students pursue courses suited to their own aptitudes and inclinations. Attitudes towards vocational education have been more positive as indicated by the number of students, including many who are academically talented, taking practical arts and vocational courses.

In 1965, the Committee for the Comprehensive Secondary Schools was established by the Ministry of Education. The Committee recommended the expansion of the comprehensive schools and their recommendation was seconded by the Research Committee on Secondary Education and Human Resource Development which made a thorough study of educational needs in Thailand. Thus the expansion of comprehensive schools has become a national policy.
As Canadian loan funds were available for developmental projects in Colombo Plan nations, the Canadian Government approved a long-term, no interest loan for the purchase of equipment from Canada, and approved grants to be used for the training of Thai teachers and supervisors in Canadian universities over a period of three years. They also agreed to provide a team of five advisors to work on the Comprehensive School Project in Thailand for two years.

Twenty existing secondary schools located all over Thailand were assigned to the Project. They were selected on the following criteria:

a. Economic - the occupational demands of the locality,
b. Space for expansion,
c. Feeder school enrolments,
d. Population of the locality,
e. Present school enrolments,
f. Proximity to vocational schools in which students may further their vocational training,

g. Usefulness as a laboratory school for the Supervisory Unit, and

h. Socio-political consideration.

These twenty schools were known as Type I comprehensive schools. It was planned that the schools chosen would be improved under the following four-point programme:

1. To improve the quality of instruction and administration by organizing in-service programmes for teachers and administrators and by careful recruitment of qualified staff;

2. To improve physical facilities in order to effectively offer various secondary education subjects;

3. To reorganize the curriculum in such a way as to permit individuals to select courses suitable to their aptitudes and interests which are compatible with the needs of the country;
4. To establish a centre in which supervisors can do their research and planning in accordance with modern concepts of education and for the improvement of teaching, particularly in these project schools.

Up till the mid 1960's all secondary general schools concentrate very much on academic subjects, and practical training was left to secondary vocational schools. Consequently, it was felt that it would be more realistic if vocational secondary education grades 1-3 were gradually phased out and replaced by a more diversified form of general secondary education. Thus in 1966, a diversified curriculum was introduced in some general schools, later called Type II comprehensive schools.

**Average Percentage Distribution of Instructional Time Spent in Type I and Type II Comprehensive Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Core</th>
<th>Practical</th>
<th>Electives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type I Comprehensive</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type II Comprehensive</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both types cover both lower and upper secondary levels. In the upper secondary grades, though students have elective periods, they can choose to follow the arts or the science stream (as in ordinary schools) or a new general stream with considerable emphasis on acquiring practical and vocational skills.

Unfortunately, the Type I comprehensive, with its large number of elective periods is too expensive to expand on a nationwide basis, and thus the Third Five Year Plan (1971-1976) concentrates not only on the diversification of the curriculum in all secondary schools, but also on the upgrading of about 200 existing secondary schools to Type I comprehensive.

Other projects centre mainly on rural and provincial secondary school development and on the improvement of the quality of teaching and of educational facilities.
Rural Secondary School Development Project

This project attempts to improve the existing rural secondary schools by offering various selective courses in industrial arts, agriculture, and business education. These courses are provided in accordance with local needs.

Project Quantitative Goal: 198 schools are under this project during 1972-1976. Budget is allocated for industrial arts, agriculture workshops and nursery houses. Science, agriculture, social science, industrial arts, and business education supplies and equipment are provided. Special training is given to teachers in these schools.

Operation: Each year 38-40 schools are brought under this project. The selection of schools for the project depends on priority of readiness.

Provincial Secondary School Development Project

Under this project, 38 schools in provinces are to be developed during the years 1972-1976. The project aims at preventing students from flocking to schools in Bangkok. To achieve this, the project schools are to be improved qualitatively to attract students and are to provide more places to keep up with the increasing number of student population.

Quantitative Goal: During 1972-1976, 38 schools in provinces are to be expanded into large size schools with adequate buildings and facilities such as libraries, science laboratories, shops for industrial arts, agriculture and home economics.

Operation: 8-9 schools are selected each year on the basis of readiness as regards buildings, teachers and equipment.

Other projects

A project is being undertaken to upgrade the instructional standards in rural schools which are not up to the standards of those in the urban areas both in general facilities and in the quality of the staff and teaching. The
project will be carried out in the form of in-service training for principals and teachers, and provision of teaching materials and equipment.

Another project to be carried out during the Third Plan period is to establish a special training centre for private school teachers. This is to ensure the standard of private secondary schools which is normally considerably below that of public schools.

Besides, the Department of General Education plans to expand considerably its in-service training programme for all teachers, step up school supervision services, improve classroom evaluation and measurement activities, and reorganize school leaving examinations.

Problems and Trends

Secondary schools in Thailand are still facing many problems, the major ones of which may be summed up as follows:

1. The lack of budget for constructing and equipping secondary school buildings to meet the enrolment needs;

2. The low teacher-pupil ratio, resulting in low standard of teaching;

3. The difficulty in determining the students' needs and planning curricula to meet them;

4. The inadequate facilities in the areas of health, transportation, lunches, libraries, and recreation.

5. A great number of students come to Bangkok each year to continue their education at the secondary level, there being no secondary school in their home district or due to the belief that schools in Bangkok are of higher standards.

6. Under the pressure of accepting more students, the Ministry of Education has had urgently: to increase the number of secondary schools, enlarge most of the existing ones, and adopt a two-shift system in almost all government schools. Despite great efforts, the national budget allotted to the Ministry of Education is too limited to allow the authorities concerned to solve the problems of schools being overcrowded or with inadequate facilities.
7. As government schools are urged to accept more students, private schools are accordingly left with far fewer students than ever, much below the expected number. Many of the smaller private schools, unable to support themselves, have been forced to close down.

8. The number of M.S. 3 graduates who do not continue their studies is increasing each year, due either to poverty or poor academic achievement. Only a few can secure a job while the rest are unemployed and become a burden to their families and society.

9. Guidance services are yet to be improved and expanded in most schools in Thailand.

**Trends in reaching the Ideal of Secondary Education**

There has been an increasing interest in planning curricula that should provide for the needs of all ranges in ability, for all variations in interests, and for all fundamental needs. Such planning involves increasing the number of courses offered and making a better selection of learning activities, with three basic objectives in mind, namely, to provide a general education for all youth, to provide elective programmes for the majority to develop useful skills, and to educate those with talent for handling advanced academic subjects.

Such curriculum as described above has already been introduced. In June 1975, a new curriculum with the credit system was introduced. For the academic year of 1975, it was used at the M.S. 4 level only, all the other levels still following the old 1960 curriculum. In the following school year, it would be used at M.S. 4 and M.S. 5 levels; and in the 1977 school year it would be used at all secondary levels.

The major reason behind this change in our educational system is obviously the rigidity of the old percentage system. The result of the M.S. 3 final examination is what determines a student’s field of study. Those who obtain less than 65% lose the opportunity to study in the Science Stream; they must choose either the Arts or the General course. For those who have
been fortunate enough to obtain good marks, the field is wide open; they can choose to take Arts or Science or General.

The second reason is the rigidity of the curriculum. Every student has to study all the subjects laid down in the curriculum, whether to their liking or not. Consequently, studying at this level is boring to some extent. The credit system will do away with such rigidity. Students will have more freedom in the choice of subjects.

The new curriculum includes the following distinctive features and requirements:

1. One academic year consists of two semesters, with an optional summer semester.

   First Semester: June 1 - October 16
   Second Semester: November 1 - March 16
   Summer Semester: April 1 - May 16

2. The school is required to teach at least 5 days a week. The student is required to stay in school for not less than four semesters to be entitled to the Certificate of Upper Secondary Education.

3. The student is required to obtain 100 credits within the space of two years or longer if necessary.

4. A theoretical subject worth one credit must be instructed one period a week. Similarly, a theoretical subject worth three credits must be instructed three periods a week.

   A practical subject worth one credit must be instructed and practised two or three periods a week.

5. The subjects in the curriculum are divided into 2 categories: compulsory subjects and elective subjects.

   The compulsory subjects are Thai, Social Studies, Science, and Physical Education.
Out of the required 100 credits, the student must obtain 34 credits of the compulsory subjects i.e. Thai, 12 credits; Social Studies, 12 credits; Science, 6 credits; Physical Education, 4 credits. The remaining 66 credits are obtained from elective subjects.

6. The grading system. There are 5 levels: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4. 0 means fail and all the other scores are passing marks.

4 indicates very good, 3 good, 2 average, and 1 below average.

It is hoped that the new curriculum will not only help solve most of the current problems, but will also lead to the ultimate aim of producing good citizens.

Bibliography


iii) Teachers Education

Preamble

Formal teacher training in Thailand started in 1892 with the establishment of the first teacher training school. Students were trained for two years to become primary school teachers. In 1903 the programme was extended to train secondary school teachers. When Chulalongkorn University was founded in 1917 the Teacher Training School became part of the university. In the following year, the Ministry of Education took the Teacher Training School back and ran courses for primary and secondary teachers at Wat Borom and Suan Kulark Schools. Nevertheless, in 1928, the secondary school teacher training was handed over to Chulalongkorn University again. The students were enrolled from graduates of secondary grade VIII (the highest grade in secondary education). They did two years at the Faculty of Arts or Science, then spent the third year in training to become teachers. Those who had completed the three-year course were awarded Secondary School Teacher's Certificate.

In 1940, the Ministry of Education set up the Teacher Training Section in the Department of Educational Techniques. It was in charge of teacher training in the capital and the provinces. There were, at first, four teachers schools: Suan Sunanta School, Bangkok Primary Teachers School, Petburi-vidhyalangkorn Girls' School and Ban Somdej Chao Phraya School.

During the Second World War, all the teacher training schools were evacuated to the provinces. In 1944, eight more teachers schools were set up in Songkla, Lopburi, Udorn, Ubol, Pitsanuloke, Petchaboon, Ayuthya and Nakornsawan.

After the war, the teachers schools in Bangkok were re-opened in 1947. The training of teachers was extensively developed. Experts from UNESCO played a major part in improving the quality of teacher training. Some types of semi-qualified teacher training were abandoned. At one time, owing to the shortage of teachers, the Ministry had to take pupils who had finished only secondary grade III for two years' training before sending them to rural areas.
Some primary teachers were recruited on an accelerated programme. School leavers who had completed secondary grade VIII were given a one-year course and were authorized to teach in primary schools. Those were attempts at solving the immediate problem of teacher shortage.

In 1954, the Teacher Training Department was set up as an independent body from the Department of Educational Techniques. Teacher education was formerly administered by different agencies. The Vocational Education Department was in charge of training vocational school teachers. Agriculture teachers were trained by agricultural schools.

The Physical Education Department trained physical education teachers for all primary and secondary schools. In the attempt to standardize the training of teachers undertaken by various authorities the government, then, set up the Teacher Training Department to be responsible for all types of teacher education. However, this did not work out satisfactorily and the training of vocational teachers and physical education teachers was handed back to the Vocational Education Department and the Physical Educational Department.

In 1958, nine teachers schools were granted the college status, and, a few years later, all the teachers schools became teachers college. There are now thirty-six teachers colleges in the whole country, which means that on average there is one teachers college to two provinces. These colleges offer courses leading to both the Lower Certificate of Education and the Higher Certificate of Education.

Degree courses for teachers are offered in various universities, for example Chulalongkorn University, Chiangmai University, Silpakorn University, and, particularly, Srinakharinwirot University, the former College of Education, with its campuses in Bangkok and the provinces.

Concept

The concept of teacher training is based on the trilogy of learning: general education, specialized subjects as major or minor subjects and professional education which comprises methods of teaching and educational
psychology and guidance. As teacher training is one of the most vital factors contributing to the development of the educational system as a whole; it is agreed that priority should be given to the high standard and efficiency in teacher education.

Prospective teachers are trained to teach in the primary and secondary classes. The courses are divided into three levels:

a) the Lower Certificate in Education

Students who have graduated from M.S. III may sit for an entrance examination to the teachers colleges. After two years training, they are awarded the Lower Certificate in Education, which qualifies them to teach in the seven classes at primary schools.

b) the Higher Certificate in Education

Students are recruited from graduates of M.S. V or those who have obtained the Lower Certificate in Education. They follow another two-year course which will enable them to teach in lower secondary classes up to M.S. III.

c) Degree Courses in Education

The Srinakharintriwirot University, formerly known as the College of Education, offers courses in various branches of education at bachelor, master’s and doctoral degree levels. Furthermore, in order to meet the demand for degree teachers, teachers colleges have opened courses similar to those of the Srinakharintriwirot University since 1974. These colleges will turn out about 900 degree teachers in 1976.

Policy and Strategy

The Department of Teacher Training has a dual policy of both training competent teachers and increasing the teacher output to meet the chronic shortages. It is a difficult task to accomplish. However, it has spared no effort to carry out this mission. Over the years, there have been special programmes to encourage the teachers to upgrade themselves, for example, by setting up evening courses in teachers colleges for the in-service teachers so
that they may become better qualified. In the days when teachers were urgently needed, they were recruited from the equivalent of primary grade VII leavers who were given two years further training, in order to teach in the elementary public schools in the rural areas. This measure has been discontinued as better qualified teachers became available.

In-service teachers in the provinces have many opportunities to improve themselves. They can either take up correspondence courses in Bangkok, then take qualifying examination at the end of the session. Better still, they can take an entrance examination, then attend evening courses leading to the Lower or the Higher Certificate in Education. Those who have already obtained both certificates but wish to get a degree may attend evening courses leading the bachelor degree at Srinakharinwirot University.

In order to accelerate the output of competent teachers, the teachers colleges have stepped up the number of intake both in regular sessions and evening sessions. In 1973 the number of lower certificate teachers output rose to 9,124 and the higher certificate was 3,008. It is expected that by 1976 there will be 49,722 graduates at the lower certificate level and 20,021 at the higher certificate level. These figures show that there are more or less enough qualified teachers at all levels to meet the demand. The Department of Teacher Training has now a policy to reduce the evening courses enrolment so as to avoid wastage in training. The recent problem is that many qualified teachers failed to find jobs in urban areas at the moment, whereas vacancies in the rural areas have not been filled. The expansion of the teacher training has not solved the fundamental problem of teacher shortages, or rather the uneven distribution of teachers.

The Department of Teacher Training also has a policy to train teachers to become competent community leaders in rural areas. Student teachers are encouraged to do their teaching practice during their training in needy areas so that they may realise the acuteness of the teacher shortage problem and feel inspired to go out to help the rural community after their training.

In order to attain the objectives in training competent teachers the Department of Teacher Training has set up a Rural Teacher Training Project and adopted the following strategies:-
a) Set up more teachers colleges in the provinces so that the staff and students are kept in touch with the local way of life, culture and needs.

b) Give scholarships to teacher trainers to study abroad in order to raise the standard of teacher training in the teachers colleges.

c) Set up special programmes to train primary school teachers in sensitive areas in co-operation with the Department of Public Administration. These teachers are recruited from the Border Patrol Police to help fill the gap of teacher shortages in politically sensitive areas.

d) Upgrade the teaching profession by setting up degree courses for teachers in the provincial colleges.

e) Give scholarships to students from the rural areas on condition that they go back and teach in their native villages especially in the hilltribes project.

f) Give hardship allowances and free accommodation to teachers who are willing to go out to teach upcountry. They also have better chances for promotion and further studies.

g) In order to promote good understanding among the Southern provinces students are allowed to take Islamic Religious Instruction as a minor subject at the higher certificate level and as part of the training programme at lower certificate level at any southern teachers college.

As most of the teachers who are graduates at the lower certificate level teach in primary schools throughout the country, it is the government's policy that they should not only get academic knowledge but that their knowledge of other subjects such as physical and health education, agriculture and Boy Scout Organization should not be neglected either. They are expected to supervise all the extra-curricular activities when working in small schools. They are expected to provide their community with effective leadership in development programmes.

The recent impact of the Rural Teacher Training Project upon the present day teacher training is so great that an entirely new concept of training
primary school teachers has emerged. The following features are characteristic of the modernized teacher training programme.

a) Decentralization of teachers colleges. New teachers colleges are set up in the provinces so that students will be in touch with life in the rural community. They will learn about the way of life, the culture and the social structure of the individual community.

b) Economic orientation of teacher training programme. As agriculture is the most predominant occupation of the Thai people, it has been introduced in the training programme. Student teachers have to learn about modern agricultural techniques, and farmers' cooperative movements in various parts of the world, so that they can help the adult population of the community as well as teaching their pupils.

c) Emphasis on practical resourcefulness of student-teachers. The new teacher training programme requires that students have adequate knowledge of physical education, Boy Scout and Junior Red Cross organizations. Practical knowledge of carpentry may come into use with the construction or the repairing of school buildings. An elementary public school teacher in the rural areas is therefore a community helper who could improve the living condition in the community besides being a competent teacher.

The in-service teachers have not been neglected. There are special courses for them during the summer holidays. In 1974, there were 39,000 teachers attending these courses and taking examinations in order to upgrade their qualifications. There are also qualifying examinations for those who are not sufficiently qualified. There were, in 1974, 20,808 teachers taking the lower certificate examination and 31,506 taking the higher level.

Special Projects.

1. The Thailand-UNESCO Rural Teacher Education Project (TURTEP).

This project was initiated at Ubon Teachers College in 1959. Between 1959 and 1964 the project received support from UNESCO. Since 1964 the Department of Teacher Training has been carrying on the work on its own.
The aims of this project are to improve and develop the rural schools in order to increase their competence and efficiency in primary education, and to improve the living conditions in rural communities. Students have been sent to rural areas to do teaching practice so that they can familiarize themselves with the conditions there. When they become full-time teachers, they will have already got used to the rural way of life.

This project has been a success on the whole. Now all the teachers colleges have adopted this project as part of their syllabus. Nevertheless there are delicate problems, which can be summarized as follows:

a) Some areas are difficult to reach, especially in the rainy season. The supervisors have great difficulty in their journeys to and from schools. This problem can be solved by choosing the areas which are easily accessible.

b) The teachers in the school where students undertake their teaching practice are usually less qualified than the students. They do not criticize the students’ teaching, although they have more experience. This could be solved by organizing a course for these local teachers in the principles and techniques of criticism, so that they can criticize the students effectively.

c) A clear distinction must be made between the role of the teacher and that of the rural developer. It has been noted that this project has trained people to become community developers rather than to become teachers in rural areas. They concentrate on building something for the village rather than teaching.

2. Teacher Training cum Education Extension Project. (an ongoing project)

This project, supported by UNESCO and UNICEF, was initiated in 1969 with the aims to promote professional cooperation among the teachers colleges in the same region; to improve and develop the system of student-teaching and the methods of leading appropriate to local conditions; and to develop each teachers college into a centre whereby professional guidance and leadership can be offered to local schools.

All teachers colleges taking part in the project are equipped with teaching aids, libraries and transportation. Rural elementary schools are chosen to
serve as aided schools. A series of seminars have been held for project participants.

The evaluation of the project is still pending. However, it is agreed that after the pilot phase has expired the local personnel should be able to carry out activities without the assistance from foreign experts.

3. Head Start Project

This is primarily a pilot project serving pre-school children living in rural areas. The project reflects the view that the pre-school period is of great importance to the later physical, intellectual and emotional development of the child’s life. It aims at providing an opportunity for better development of the children living in the rural community so that they may begin their formal education with a certain degree of readiness, as well as encouraging the feeling of involvement and participation within the community to the extent that the community, once realizing the importance of the programme, may carry on the project itself.

This project, started in 1968 as a pilot project in poor regions, was carried out with children about one to two years before compulsory education age. Classes were held in the schools in the TURTEP programme. Since then, it has been expanded and the La-or Utit Kindergarten School in Bangkok has served as the training centre for the project participants.

The project has been popular among poor parents who have begun to send their children to pre-school classes. In 1972, there were 63 schools and 1,883 children involved in the project. Many items such as educational materials and vehicles were provided by UNICEF.

According to the questionnaires and interviews with the instructors and parents, it is concluded that the children who have received the pre-school training do better than those who have not had the same experience. The first aim has been fulfilled, but the second remains to be fulfilled due to economic condition. Most parents are faced with the necessity to earn their living to the extent that they have no spare resources to contribute to the project.
4. Teacher training to solve the teacher shortage in needy areas and for the Hilltribes Project.

There has been a growing need for teachers in the needy areas and for the hilltribes. It is agreed that the teachers who are to teach the hilltribes children should be familiar with the culture and the problems of the hilltribes. Therefore, many grants have been given to hilltribes students who are graduates of the so-called ‘welfare’ boarding schools. They attend a two-year course leading to the Lower Certificate of Education at Chormbueng Teachers College. The aims of the project are to develop courses of study for prospective teachers to teach in the hilltribes schools and in needy areas, and to prepare teachers for these schools by giving grants to local students in needy areas and to hilltribes students. To date, over 1,000 grants to study at Chormbueng Teachers College have been given, and teachers have been given encouragement to serve in depressed areas in the forms of hardship allowance, special promotion or opportunities for further studies, as well as opportunities to teach in areas with better facilities as a change.

5. Teacher Training Project for Children with Hearing Handicap.

In 1969 La-or Utit Kindergarten School with the assistance of volunteer teachers experimented with the method of teaching Thai children with hearing handicap, helping them to communicate orally, and eventually to join other children in regular classes.

The results have been encouraging and therefore more teachers have been trained at La-or Utit to serve in the schools set up by the Department of General Education for such children.

6. Project for teaching Mohammedanism at Yala Teachers College.

This project strives to prepare primary school teachers for the task of teaching Mohammedanism in the schools in the southern provinces where a high percentage of students come from Muslim families. Courses in Islamic Religious instruction are offered at the Lower Certificate of Education as well as the Higher Certificate level.
7. The Third Education Project.

Under the Third Education Project financed with a credit of U.S. $19.5 million from the International Development Association (IDA), the Teacher Training Department is carrying out a project to expand and upgrade primary teacher training. Under this programme seven new teachers colleges are to be built in various provinces in addition to the three teachers colleges concurrently being constructed in Lampang, Buriram and Phuket.

The ten new co-educational colleges would have a total enrolment of 20,000 students and by 1980-81 would produce about 8,000 teachers per year. Due to housing shortage in rural areas, the seven new colleges would have to provide housing facilities for staff and students. The project will also include a demonstration school at each teachers college. The new curricula would include agriculture, animal husbandry and rural sociology courses, and prepare teachers for an active role in community development in rural areas.

Problems in Teacher Training.

1. Some students who enrol in teacher training colleges are not genuinely interested in the teaching profession. Because of the lack of other openings for further education they turn to teacher training courses, usually the two-year course. Therefore it will be unrealistic to expect them to become teachers of high quality.

2. After two years of training to become primary school teachers, students who wish to pursue a higher level of education may stay on for another two years, but the curriculum, instead of being the continuation of the previous course, aims at training teachers for secondary schools.

3. There is discrimination among teachers of different grades, therefore certificate teachers try to obtain a higher certificate and eventually a degree. The fact that a degree means prestige will in future lead to a serious problem of unemployment among degree teachers, since recently, in addition to the courses available at Srinakharinwirot University, seventeen teachers colleges have extended their training to the degree level.

4. Teachers with the same qualification who join different departments of the Ministry of Education and those who teach in the universities do not have the same prestige nor promotion opportunities.
5. Although the number of qualified teacher output has increased every year, the sad fact remains that not all of them become teachers, mainly because the number of posts in government schools is limited. As a result, apart from those who take up teaching posts in private schools the rest take up other forms of employment.

6. There is a prevailing reluctance to apply for teaching posts in rural areas due to poor living conditions, thus the problem of teacher shortage in remote areas remain unsolved.

7. The evening courses offered in the teachers colleges are good in principle, in upgrading in-service teachers in primary and secondary schools, but they create problems of poor performance on the part of those teachers who attend them, both as serving teachers and as course participants.

8. At the teacher training level, often academic staff are recruited from young graduates who lack the academic training and experience in teacher education.

9. There is no co-ordination between the teacher colleges and the universities which offer courses in education.

10. The curriculum for the teacher training at present is too centralized and does not meet the diversified regional needs, nor is it suitable for the various local conditions.

Bibliography


11. Reports in Thai from the following documents.


iv) Vocational Education

Concept and Aims

Vocational education includes all the studies of, and training in professional subjects and technical skills. In Thailand, the aim has been towards supplying manpower needed for the development of national economy, particularly in the fields of agriculture, industry, commerce, and home economics.

Vocational education may be conducted at four levels:

1. Professional level, to produce administrators, planners, controllers and managers.
2. Semi-professional level, to produce technicians, laboratory assistants, etc.
3. Skilled labour, to produce workers with sufficient knowledge and experience needed for their tasks as well as ability to solve problems in connection with their work.
4. Semi-skilled labour, to produce workers for some specialized fields of work, in a shorter training time than needed for the training of skilled labourers.

In Thailand, most emphasis has been put on vocational education at levels 2 and 3, with some attention being paid to level 4. Apart from vocational schools and colleges, vocational subjects have also been taught to some extent in comprehensive schools that teach skills which may not be available in the commercial or industrial systems. Salespersons and clerks, who need only little training and a right attitude in doing their job, are two examples of the products from this type of vocational education. Another training institution is the Labour Department, Ministry of Interior, which offers courses to those who are already employed but want to be upgraded or retrained.

Methods of Vocational Education

1. About 90% of Thai people get their skills by informal apprenticeship, whereby parents hand down their skills to their sons and daughters,
2. Pre-service and in-service training offered by business and industrial firms in the form of specialized courses tailored to suit their own requirements.

3. Institutional training in universities, colleges, schools or professional training centres. This kind of vocational training is very effective, as it could train any type of skill within a specified period of time. However, there is a problem of overproduction which calls for proper planning in view of the threat of unemployment.

4. Co-operative programmes whereby schools provide the academic aspect, and the business or industrial firms provide the practical training for the students.

5. On-the-job training, which is applicable and necessary virtually in all jobs.

**Policies and Strategies**

In the old days, education in Thailand was conducted on a small scale. Those who entered school wanted to become educated in order to go into the Civil Service. Then the Ministry of Education started a scheme to instill a vocationally practical habit into all pupils in the elementary grades so that they would have some basic knowledge in agriculture, commerce, and handicraft. So it set up schools all over the country to offer those vocational subjects. As it happened, in the first stage of the plan, those who were either very poor or who had not done well in ordinary education would turn towards vocational education which put a great deal of emphasis on manual operations. Moreover, vocational education then was still not very complicated. Such jobs as farming, handicraft and technical work were regarded as being included in the vocational field, and vocational subjects have been locked down upon as suitable only for the people with low mental ability ever since.

Thus, by the end of World War II, schools that offered vocational training were not very popular. So it became necessary, in 1945, for the Ministry of Education to modify the vocational curricula in order to make vocational education more attractive. Various new schemes were also
implemented to persuade young people to take more interest in vocational education. For instance, students who had completed the elementary vocational course, which had hitherto been terminal, could now continue to higher levels of education. There were new hostels for students from remote region of the country, and more scholarships for vocational students were granted. As for vocational girls' schools, the curriculum for girls' crafts was revised to include dressmaking and tailoring in order to make the schools fit better into the rural picture. All the schools for dressmaking and weaving were transformed into schools of crafts for girls, with an exception of one school at Potharam. Weaving as a subject had to be given up because people were then more interested in imported textile than home-made one. As changes in vocational education were being implemented, there was a necessity to train more teachers. Since 1947, weaving instructors have been trained to teach dressmaking as well. A lack of vocational teachers was recognized by the government, so three schools for vocational teachers' education were set up to fill this gap.

The present system of vocational education aims to produce manpower for the modern industrial, agricultural and commercial concerns in which there exists a precise organizational structure and in which the proportion and quality of each level of employees have been predetermined at the earlier stage. So vocational schools, instead of admitting those with low mentality as generally understood, turn out to be the organizers of vocational education for those with high mental and manual ability. Since modern firms require only high-calibre people for their employees, attracting more capable students to turn towards vocational education, in order to get rid of the old misconception, means opening the door for them to an opportunity for advancement in their education, social status, and profession, with sufficient financial reward to make up for the hardship which they have to face in earning their living this way.

In 1960, the government announced a new national education scheme with an explicit aim to promote vocational education on a larger scale, in accordance with the national economic development plan. Vocational education was now divided into three levels: lower secondary vocational grades
(M.S. 1 - M.S. 3), upper secondary vocational grades (M.S. 4 - M.S. 6), and diploma level. Each level of education was continuable to the higher one, with an exception of the technical training courses for adults which were terminable in one, two or three years. This enhanced the popularity of vocational education even further, and the trend has continued up to the present.

One of the questions asked by most people is why those vocational graduates have not been trained to go out and fight for themselves in an independent, private enterprise. For example, the agricultural graduate should try to grow vegetables or do some farming. The commercial graduate should try to become the owner of a business concern. Likewise, the graduate from an engineering school should try to set up a servicing workshop of his own. This is a problem on the national scale and not that of the Ministry of Education alone. As long as the government still does not have sufficient control over jobs, an efficient welfare system for each line of professions, and a means to change the attitude of the Thai people to make them more willing to face hard work, this problem cannot be satisfactorily solved.

Programmes and Projects

In 1951, the United States started USOM in Thailand. This agency imported experts to help develop vocational education. There are training courses and seminars for top administrators of the Department of Vocational Education. The assistance from USOM was towards setting up the first technical institute in Bangkok. The original objective was to produce skilled technicians at a level higher than the existing Certificate of Higher Vocational Education, and to have more diversified, specialized subjects in order to cater for the market demand. Prior to this, technicians in various government offices had usually been upgraded by means of an internal examination. Even though some government departments, such as the Department of Civil Works, opened a training school especially for the purpose of producing technicians, the output was still not sufficient to satisfy the requirement of Thailand's expanding industry. This necessitated the setting up of the Bangkok Technical Institute in 1952. Later, three more technical institutes were built, one in
Songkhla in 1954, another in Nakorn Ratchasima in 1956, and the third one in Chiangmai in 1957. These regional technical institutes admitted students with a secondary grade 6 (M.S. 3) Certificate for a three-year diploma course.

UNESCO also gave aid in developing vocational education in the Chachoengsao province. It helped the Chachoengsao School of Carpentry to diversify its courses into the fields of metallurgy, electrical engineering, and mechanical engineering. This was the first time that a carpentry school offered engineering courses. The name of the school was changed to the Chachoengsao Technical School in 1959.

Wayne State University helped the four technical institutes towards expanding their syllabuses in 1954. In its turn, the Bangkok Technical Institute, as the coordinating centre, assisted other vocational schools in various subjects such as carpentry, home economics, handicrafts, machine maintenance, and agriculture. It also arranged a seminar in 1957 for the headmasters of vocational schools from all over the country.

Since 1958, Thailand has cooperated a great deal with foreign countries in the economic and technical fields. Also, the United Nations proclaimed 10 years of development from 1960 to 1970 by urging all countries to develop their economy to help raise their citizen’s standard of living, with the assistance from developed countries. Then there was the Karachi Plan, under the auspices of UNESCO and in collaboration with the United Nations, resulting in many useful development programmes for Thailand. At about the same time, the National Economic Development Board was set up. There started the first National Economic Development Plan (1961 - 1966), followed by the second one (1967 - 1971). An important policy, called “The Industrial Promotion Policy” was proclaimed by the government.

As a measure to meet the subsequent demand of skilled labour SEATO helped develop 18 schools for carpenters into technical schools, in 1958, with Hawaii University assisting in technical matters. The courses offered, in addition to carpentry, were construction, automobile engineering, electrical engineering, electronics, welding, and industrial engineering. Formerly, admission into these schools was limited to pupils who had finished the 7th
elementary grade. So all the equipment were suitable only for young students and appropriate for the purpose of this type and level of education, which is to teach basic knowledge in craftsmanship in the rural regions in order for the graduates to further pursue, by themselves, and, particular line of skills of their choice. The existing workshops were adapted and improved to economize on resources. Finding teachers was, as usual, a problem, since normally there already was a lack of technical instructors in Thailand. So when this plan for opening further 18 technical schools in the rural areas was being implemented, the problem of finding teachers became more apparent. The short-term solution was to select some existing technical and carpentry instructors who also had engineering aptitude, and train them in other technical fields. The result was quite satisfactory. But since these instructors had only an elementary knowledge in each field and, hence, could not teach at a higher level, there started a plan to offer a Diploma in Education course for those who already had a technical skill and who wanted to become instructors in their own fields. Later, in 1962, these SEATO technical schools changed their policy to admit only students who passed the secondary grade 6 (M.S. 3).

In 1960, the Japanese government helped set up a telecommunication centre in Nonthaburi. This centre has since been used for training students, civil servants, and officers from government enterprises in telecommunication. The West German government helped set up, in 1961, an engineering school in Bang Son, and the Thonburi Technical Institute, with financial and technical assistance from the United Nations, was opened at Bang Mod in 1962. The Thai-German Technical College at Khon Kaen was set up in 1965 with an aim to produce more technical lecturers. The West German government also supplied training equipment worth DM400,000 to the Patumtanee Agricultural Engineering Training Centre which was opened in December, 1968. The Thai government, on its part, provided a plot of land for the site of the Centre, heavy tools, and essential spareparts. It has since been used as a workshop for training in agricultural engineering for students, agricultural groups, and lecturers from various agricultural colleges.

In the rural areas, there has always been an acute shortage of technicians. It was evident that there was not enough manpower with suitable
ability and characteristics. Hence USOM and the Department of Technical and Economic Cooperation helped the Office for the Accelerated Rural Development, during 1964-1972, to produce technicians for the express purpose of accelerated development. This took the form of a programme at Northeastern Technical Institute in Nakorn Ratchasima. The objective of the programme was to produce surveyors, construction engineers, and civil engineers totalling some 3,000 to work in the Accelerated Rural Development units all over the country.

Since 1967, another important step in the development of vocational education was the Mobile Trade Training School Programme. This was in accordance with the government policy that emphasized rural development with the purpose of enabling people to find work and, hence, making them feel that the government really cared for their well-being tried in every possible way to create opportunities for further, useful education. USOM has been helping this programme from the very beginning until there are now 54 mobile schools. This type of vocational education would undoubtedly play a very important part in the future.

King Mongkut’s Institute of Technology opened in 1970. There are three campuses: Thonburi Technical College, Northern Bangkok Technical College and Nonthaburi Technical College. Each college at first offered engineering subjects up to the bachelor degree in engineering and industrial education. Later, in 1975 master degree courses in electrical engineering were also offered at the Thonburi Technical College. This was a good opening for those with high ability to turn towards vocational education in a greater number. It was expected that many technical colleges would want to join the Institute in order to upgrade the status of their staff and students to that of university level. As for the technical schools, they would also want to become technical colleges themselves. This resulted in the improvement in the quality of vocational education at all levels.

The newly-formed College of Technology and Vocational Education admitted its first batch of students in 1975. One of its objectives was to enable those who had passed the Diploma in Vocational Education (two years’
study after the higher secondary vocational level) to study for further two years and obtain a bachelor degree: another is to produce more vocational teachers at the first degree level by admitting those with a Diploma in Vocational Education for another year's study. Initially, seven institutions under the Department of Vocational Education participated in this programme. A year later, the number increased to twelve.

**Problems**

Just like any other fields, vocational education also has problems, the most serious of which are as follows:

1. **The educational system.** At present, vocational institutions are divided into schools and colleges, with two corresponding sets of administrators performing duplicate jobs concerning agriculture, industrial engineering, commerce and home economics. Instead, the line of responsibility should be allocated to four divisions, namely the Agriculture Division, the Industrial Engineering Division, the Commerce Division, and the Home Economics Division.

2. **The high turnover rate of vocational instructors.** Vocational instructors are regarded as one of the most important resources in the training of vocational students. The good vocational instructors can be as knowledgeable as those who are working in that particular field of the industry. The more such instructors there are, the more useful they would be in training and producing graduates with the required quality to meet the demand of the labour market. But it is a well-known fact that these instructors, especially engineering ones, are often allured by trade and industrial firms which have better pay structure and working conditions than the educational institutions. So there must be an improvement in the incentive system for vocational instructors so as to prevent them from going into industry or to alleviate the problem of adequately filling the vacancies caused by their resignation from the educational jobs.

3. **The need for market information.** Nowadays, as the country is being developed both in agriculture and industry, the number of new jobs has
greatly increased in proportion to the scientific and technological progress. Modern techniques have been employed in all professions. This makes the demand for labour different from formerly. Accordingly, those responsible for the administration of national education must be able to closely follow and anticipate these changes in the market demand so as to plan and arrange the training of vocational students so that they have the desirable amount of knowledge and experience as required by the modern industrial and business firms. This is one of the most difficult problems to overcome, since the existing information regarding labour is still scarce and cannot be utilized to the full. It is doubtful whether those in authority have any idea which type of skill is needed, in what number, and at what time. Even more difficult is the problem that we do not know how skilled the employers want their prospective employees to be. Usually the employers hope too much that their newly-graduated employees would show the right aptitude in a clear manner from the very first day that they start work, without allowing them time to settle down and adapt themselves to the new environment so that they may begin to obtain more experience and further skill from the actual work. This problem needs rather a long time to solve. There must be a method of data gathering from a broader source that yields a more precise information than at present. A probable solution is to seek a closer cooperation from those institutions concerned with the labour market such as the Labour Department. There must also be a closer cooperation between the trade and industrial circle on the one hand and the manpower-producing institutions on the other. There is an urgent need for the government to proclaim a more liberal policy of investment promotion in order to create new jobs at a higher rate than at present so as to generate employment opportunities for vocational graduates.

4. The quality of education. In order to maintain a high standard, the expenditure in vocational education must be in a good proportion to the number of students. But it has long been evident that the annual educational budget and the number of students are not in a proper ratio. The rapid growth of population has caused government schools and colleges to raise their number of admission to the point that they could not maintain the quality of their product as stipulated by the National Economic and Social Develop-
iment Plan. Income from the government alone is not enough to ensure a reasonable standard of training. In order to survive and function well, there must be some other sources of income for these institutions.
v) Higher Education.

General Background

Institutions of higher learning were first created as training centres for administrative members of the government. Later this concept was changed due to King Rama VI, who considered that an institution of higher learning should be open to the public and not confined to government officials. Under his guidance the first university, Chulalongkorn University, was established in 1917.

With the Revolution of 1932, a demand for another type of institution of higher learning was created. It was met with the establishment of the University of Moral and Political Science in 1933. This was initially an ‘open’ university. The name of this university was later changed to Thammasa University. Thereafter more conventional entry and attendance requirements were gradually introduced.

During the four decades from 1920–1960, three more universities were established; these are the University of Medical Sciences, Kasetsart University and Silpakorn University.

In the period immediately following the Coup d'État Revolution of 1958, great strides were made in the improvement and expansion of higher education. The National Education Council (NEC) was created in 1959 to serve as an advisory and coordinating agency for the development of education at all levels in Thailand. In the area of higher education, the NEC works in concerted effort with all universities towards the national goal of development and efficient utilization of human resources.

In the 1960's, higher education effort in Thailand was directed towards the provincial areas as part of the decentralization programme. Chiang Mai University, under the supervision of the NEC, came into existence in 1964.

As part of the Northeastern region development programme, Khon Kaen University was founded in 1965. During the same period a University for the South was founded with two campuses in Pattani and Haadyai. With royal permission it was given the name of Prince Songkla University.
The most recently established university in Bangkok is Ramkamhaeng which opened in 1972. This is an 'open' university founded as an attempt to meet the needs of increasing number of students seeking higher education. In the 'open' system, lectures are not compulsory.

Almost all universities mentioned offer mainly programmes leading to bachelor's degree. The National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA) is the institution that offers studies and research programmes at graduate level only. Besides teaching and research programmes in various fields, training courses for administrators all over the country are regularly conducted.

In the middle of 1974 the College of Education which was a degree granting institution under the Ministry of Education developed into Sri Nakharintrawirotr University. Founded in 1954, the College had as its purposes the provision of pre-service and in-service education of teachers and education administrators and the conduct of research on educational problems. With the change in status, the original purposes have been extended to cover education and research in other fields of study as well as teacher education.

King Mongkut's Institute of Technology came into existence in 1971 by merging together the North Bangkok Institute of Technology, the College of Telecommunication and the Thonburi College of Technology. It offers bachelor's degree courses in technology and produces teachers of vocational education.

Concepts and goals

Higher education, as defined by the 1960 National Education Scheme is the education of advanced professional or academic knowledge and the research conducted in the universities or other higher education institutions.

Specifically, the purpose of higher education is to produce the high-level manpower corresponding with the need of the country by the expansion of the fields necessary for the social and economic development of the country such as agriculture, engineering, science and medicine at a higher
rate than other fields. Besides the quality of the graduates produced is also stressed; not only should they be equipped with the academic knowledge but also moral and ethical, with the good principles that they can apply in thinking, judging, enriching the new knowledge, and with the readiness to cope with and lead the society in the future.

The goal of higher education is divided into two aspects:

1. Quantitative. The criteria for specifying the quantities of the students in 11 higher education institutions (with the exception of Ramkhamhaeng University which has no enrollment limitation) is the manpower requirement in the bachelor's and master's degree levels. Also emphasized is the rapid extension in the important professional fields. According to the Third Development Plan, the goal for student increase from 1971 where there were 53,300 students is to be 75,500 students in 1976 or 41%.

2. Qualitative. To provide qualified university instructors in sufficient numbers, efforts are being made to promote postgraduate programme in various fields at all universities. Regional universities are being strengthened, so that they may serve the academic needs of the regions.

At the same time, the private sector is being encouraged to participate in the providing of higher education.

Policy

1. To raise the quality and the efficiency of higher education administration in both academic and administrative aspects so that the wastage especially at the bachelor's degree level will be reduced.

2. To promote the production of highly qualified manpower in the fields necessary for the social and economic development of the country especially in agriculture, engineering, science and medicine.

3. To promote research work and text-book production for the needs at the higher education level.
4. To continue to develop higher education both qualitatively and quantitatively.

Higher Education Administration

The higher education institutions of Thailand are classified under three categories:

1. Universities, institutes and private colleges under the supervision of the Bureau of State Universities.

2. Technical or vocational, agricultural and teacher training colleges under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. These institutions formerly trained only middle-level technicians and school teachers. The duration of their courses is two or three years. Recently the government has extended the course requirement to include a five-year programme for the bachelor's degree.

3. Other specialized or professional training institutions under the sponsorship of ministries and government organizations (e.g. nursing colleges, Buddhist colleges, military and police academies etc.) or international institutes (e.g., the Asian Institute of Technology)

In this chapter the higher education will limit its scope to those in the first category only.

The Bureau of State Universities, with a status equivalent to a ministry, was set up in 1972 as coordinator between universities and the government. Top level policy-making and planning, setting the standard of curriculum and university personnel administration, and recommendation of budget allocations are among the responsibilities of this Bureau.

Both state and private institutions of higher learning are established by law: the university acts, and private colleges by the Private Colleges Act of B.E. 2512 (1969). Although each university is established according to a separate act, the provisions of these acts are not dissimilar. The curriculum, teaching methods and organizational structures of newer universities tend to
be after those of prestigious, established ones. Statutes and regulations are almost uniform for all institutions offering the same courses.

There are at present ten universities, three institutes and ten private colleges under the responsibility of the Bureau of State Universities, namely:

Chiang Mai University
Chulalongkorn University
The Institute of Agricultural Technology
Kasetsart University
Khon Kaen University
King Mongkut's Institute of Technology
Mahidol University
The National Institute of Development Administration
Prince of Songkla University
Ramkhamhaeng University
Silpakorn University
Sri Nakharinwirot University
Thammasat University
Assumption College of Business Administration
Bangkok College
College of Business Administration
College of Commerce
Krirk College
Patana College
Payap College
Siam Technical School
South-East Asia College
Sri Patum College

University Administration

The governing board of a university is the university council. Members of the council comprise the president (usually a distinguished scholar),
rector, deans, directors of institutes of the university and other “qualified” persons not employed by the university. The rector, as chief administrator, carries out the task according to the policy laid down by the university council. The council has a great deal of power in the areas of policy formulation, academic development, appointment of professors and academic administrators, etc. Faculties, composed of various departments, constitute the educational constituencies of the university. Each of them, with a dean as its head, is controlled by the faculty board, consisting of dean and department heads.

In addition, the faculty senate is set up to serve as an advisory body to the rector on matters involving academic standards and policies and student affairs. Members are elected for 2-year terms and fall into two categories: the first are elected by individual faculties and the second by the staff at large.

At present the merits of student participation in decision-making bodies of the university are under consideration. However, joint faculty-student committees have been informally set up in some faculties with staff and student representation to discuss educational and welfare problems of students in the faculty concerned.

Admission Requirements and Procedures

Thai students regardless of age and sex who have completed twelve years at primary and secondary schools and been awarded an M.S. 5 certificate or the equivalent, or a thirteen-year study course in the vocational stream and received the vocational certificate are qualified to apply for admission into a state university. They must pass the joint higher education entrance examination (except for Ramkhamhaeng University—an ‘open’ admission university). Besides these students, most campuses of Sri Nakharinwirot University admit holders of certificates of education (i.e., two-year teacher training course after M.S. 3 or ten years of education) to their freshman classes of the Faculty of Education, and holders of higher certificates of education; or their equivalents, to their junior classes. Admission of these students is carried out by means of the University’s own entrance examinations. Foreign candidates may be admitted, provided they meet academic, legal or language
proficiency requirements, or at the discretion of the admission board of each university.

Private colleges which offer four-year or three-year education require for admission the same qualifications as universities.

For post-graduate programmes, those who hold bachelor’s degree with honours or have undergraduate grades well above average may be admitted without having to sit for the entrance examination.

The undergraduate candidate must apply in person for the joint entrance examination held in April of each year. Candidates’ examination results are used for placing the candidates according to their choice of faculty or field of study and in relation to the number of seats available in the institutions of higher learning. They may select six faculties or fields of study for their matriculation choice and usually take about five subjects. Applicants whose scores are ranked within the number of available seats of the faculty are entitled to take oral and physical examinations.

The number of applicants taking the joint university entrance examination for the academic year 1974-1975 was 44,182 and 10,593 (about 27%) were admitted.

The top ten per cent of secondary school graduates in each province in the northern and southern regions and the top twenty per cent in the northeastern region are admitted to the corresponding regional universities and given their choice of faculty without having to take the joint entrance examination. However the candidates must pass an aptitude test which each university prepares and administers.

Courses

Courses in over 140 fields of study are now offered in state universities. The bachelor’s degree requirements vary from four to six years depending on the fields of specialization. In some universities students who pursue the 4-year programme leading to bachelor’s degree will automatically be given a diploma after having successfully finished the third year of study. In addition to degree programmes, a number of universities also offer shorter courses, for which certificates are awarded.
The university also arranges seminars, lectures, and courses for the public and general information on academic, professional, and cultural matters.

Those who have completed the bachelor's degree can take a further one-year post-graduate diploma course.

Master's and doctorate degrees are also offered in many subjects generally requiring about 2 years for the former and a further 2 or 3 year, for the latter.

Thammasat University is the only university in Thailand with the curriculum system. Instead of having the traditional specialized education of 4 years duration, all freshmen are required to take general education courses for one year (formerly 2 years) in the faculty of Liberal Arts. Thereafter they specialize in the subject of their choice for a further 3 years.

Most universities admit only full-time students. But in recent years, evening courses and special sessions have been introduced only recently at Ramkhamhaeng University at the bachelor's degree level. However the majority of the students are day time students who attend regular classes.

Formerly many universities in Thailand offered only a few closely related professional areas of study. This situation is to be expected, since all universities established prior to the 1970's grew out of professional schools set up earlier by various ministries. In these universities, the curricula are quite rigid and narrowly oriented along departmental lines towards particular professions. A student is left with little choice in selecting subjects on his own. The concept of general or liberal education was initiated only in the last decade. The curricula became less rigid and the university structure more flexible, permitting problem-oriented or interdisciplinary-oriented programmes of study.

The language of instruction is Thai with the exception of economics major courses at Thammasat University which are conducted in English. Special courses given in English are arranged for foreign students at the discretion of the university.
The English language proficiency of some students is already sufficient for listening to lectures by visiting professors or foreign teaching staff members and efforts are being made to bring about an overall improvement.

**University Staff**

Because of the increased number of universities and the expansion of the university system since the late 1950's, the number of teaching staff has increased, by nearly 40-50%. The number of Thai college graduates locally and abroad was yet small. The universities have had to appoint as assistant instructors recent graduates with first or second class honours at bachelor degree level. Until now, almost 50% of the teaching staff, still, possess only bachelor's degree. Most universities have to rely on a large number of special lectures from government officers or experienced teaching staff members from other universities.

The overall teacher-student ratio is approximately 1 to 10. At first glance Thai universities seem to be much better off than most universities elsewhere; but when all factors are scrutinized, this ratio does not seem to be meaningful or comparable with other institutions. First of all, it has long been a practice in Thailand that a lecturer spends a long time with students in programmes. The student class contact hours per week averages between 25 instructional to 30 hours, or almost double that elsewhere. Secondly, the lecturer has to perform other clerical and administrative duties, since there is usually no personnel to perform these duties, due to limited budget appropriations. Thirdly, nearly 50% of the lecturers are new graduates with little or no experience in teaching. Lastly, the overall ratio does not give a true picture representing the load of work of the individual lecturers or individual departments.

Both the administrative and teaching staff of the universities are civil servants under the University Civil Service Commission. Normally instructors with local degrees are initially recruited as probationary assistant lecturers. The qualification for this first position is a first class or second class honours degree. After one or two years they are normally granted leave of absence on full pay to obtain post-graduate qualifications and are appointed
as lecturers Those who are appointed as lecturers of the staff generally have done post-graduate studies abroad.

The University Civil Service Commission has authority in matters of initial placement and promotion and the CSC code and conduct. The appointment procedures and qualifications for rectors, deputy rectors, professors, associate professors and assistant professors are described in the university act.

Student Activities and Welfare

The office of the vice-rector for student affairs coordinates the entire student services programme; assists students with academic and personal problems or difficulties on request, or upon reference by the university staff; also assists students in the pursuit of out-of-class studies and provides counselling on extra-curricular activities.

Every university and institute has its own student union and each faculty has its own student committee. There are a number of scientific, literary, social and athletic societies or clubs to encourage student activities and promote students' talents. In the past, student life tended to be dominated by work and preparation for examinations. A small number of students participated in extra-curricular activities. But within the last decade, most of the students have recognized the importance of participation in other group activities besides the usual sporting events. They participate as volunteers in national development work. Partly influenced by the students' activities in foreign countries, they were gradually stepping into the political area with the establishment of the National Student Centre of Thailand (NSCT) in February, 1970. Their activities reached the turning point with the overthrow of the government in October, 1973, and they became one of the pressure groups in the government administration. Residential facilities in most of the universities are provided on a limited scale. The majority of students are local students and housed in private lodgings,
Though scholarships are awarded to outstanding students, a great number of other deserving Thai students are in financial need. Therefore, requests by foreign students for direct financial assistance are rarely given consideration. Scholarship schemes are now being implemented for approved courses in accordance with the manpower requirements of the country, with the aim of ensuring the relevance of university education to the economy, and possibly minimizing the rate of unemployment among university graduates.

In addition to scholarships, short-term loans are available in cases of emergency to mitigate the difficulties of students living away from their home.

A student health service with resident medical officers and sport facilities with instructors in physical education are available for the students in nearly every university.

Provision is made for military training through the Territorial Defence Scheme. While studying, the students are exempted from military service.

**Financing**

At present the government grant accounts for approximately 85-95% of the total income of the university. Although the government budget appropriated to university education has increased from 861.9 million baht in 1973 to 1,011 million baht in 1974, it can be said that the share of university education in the education budget for the whole country has remained almost at the same level since 1967, representing an average of 15% of the education budget of the whole country, or 2.8% of the national budget, or 0.48% of the Gross Domestic Product. Other sources of funding and assistance come from property, tuition fees and services, grants and foreign technical aid.

**International Cooperation**

Technical assistance at government level is received from foreign foundations, international agencies, the United Nations Development Programme, the Colombo Plan, the US AID, the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization and other donor countries in the forms of scholarships for study
and training, experts, and commodities. In addition private programmes at the institutional level have been arranged with Western and Asian institutions.

Problems

The main problems and obstacles in educational development at the higher level are as follows:

1. The problem of coordination and planning for development,
2. The problem of data analysis;
3. The shortage and uneven distribution of qualified personnel;
4. The inadequacy of financial resources;
5. Failure to keep abreast with the latest development of educational trends and technology;
6. The problem concerning teaching equipment and materials, and educational technology; and
7. Failure to fulfil the function of the university as research centre.
vi.) Adult Education and Non-Formal Education

Background and Concept

The original aims of adult education were to combat illiteracy and to induce better understanding about the role of an individual under democratic ruling. These aims were the result of the first national census in 1973 which revealed that 68.8% of the population over ten years of age were illiterate. This finding was alarming, since a modern school system had existed for more than some fifty years prior and its adequacy in equipping the population with literacy skills had never been challenged. Such a high illiteracy rate, it was also felt, posed an obstacle to democratization of the country. Therefore in 1940, the government decided to embark on a nationwide campaign to eradicate illiteracy.

An Adult Education Division was created within the Ministry of Education to develop and implement education for those over fifteen years old who were not in the formal school system. Funds were allocated to all provinces to set up literacy classes, and most importantly, a law was passed making literacy compulsory for all Thais. Within a period of three years from 1940 to 1943, over 1.4 million adult graduated from the programme.

During the Second World War, economic necessities forced the government to abolish the compulsory law but literacy classes continued to operate on a voluntary basis. However, the absence of the law combined with the lack of enthusiastic support from government officials, the lack of the atmosphere of necessity for literacy, and the hardship of the war greatly reduced attendance at literacy classes. The enrollment had dropped so much by 1945, that the adult education programmes became virtually stagnant.

After the Second World War, the government's interest in adult education was renewed. In 1948 the aims of adult education were broadened to include the promotion of vocational training, how to use spare time productively, and the promotion of better living conditions among the population.

This expansion of aims resulted in the establishment of new adult education programmes. Vocational evening adult schools were opened (using the
facilities and the personnel of regular day schools) and the general adult education beyond the literacy level was started. In addition, public libraries were established at the district level, and public education units sent to every province.

In 1957, the UNESCO Fundamental Education Centre (The Training Centre in Adult Education at Ubolrajthani, TUFEC) was established. The establishment of the centre with its emphasis on rural development influenced the Adult Education Division to concentrate its activities on the rural population. This shift of emphasis can be seen from the 1956 revision of the adult education programme’s objectives:

1. To improve the living standard of the rural population in cooperation with TUFEC;

2. To establish and promote educational institutions for adults in vocational and general education streams in cooperation with other agencies;

3. To promote rural education through mobile public education and mobile vocational education units;

4. To set up and operate public libraries;

5. To develop and produce reading materials for adults;

6. To produce and distribute audio-visual materials for use in educational programmes;

7. To promote occupational skills;

8. To promote public education and to develop responsible citizenship; and

9. To conduct research and training programmes in adult education.

In 1963, all fundamental education units and the rural development training functions of TUFEC were transferred to a new Department of Community Development. TUFEC remained merely a training centre for local leaders and unqualified primary school teachers.
In 1965, a UNESCO functional literacy programme designed to relate the teaching of literacy to the promotion of occupational skills encountered some obstacles arising from lack of technical experience on the part of its teachers. In view of this, and the increasing number of social action programmes which aimed at directly improving the standard of living through provision of services, the planners of adult education programmes felt the need to delineate responsibilities between adult education programmes and social action programmes in community development. Adult Education was seen to serve two major functions. First, to develop the learner himself to become a problem-solver with a critical sense of judgement (a departure from the concepts of learners as empty vessels to be filled with knowledge and skills). Secondly, to help the learners to recognize their own needs and be able to seek help from extension services accordingly.

The underlying philosophy of the two major functions aforementioned relates to the assumption that the ultimate goal in life of all men is to attain happiness. Happiness exists when there is no conflict between man and his environment physically or mentally. Man will continue to strive towards this aim until he reaches that equilibrium which can be found either by changing his environment or making adjustment within himself or both.

Since educational and development activities are designed to serve man, they, therefore, must aim ultimately to increase the happiness and the satisfaction level of the man himself; that is, to assist him in his search for the tools that will enable him to create his own harmony.

In the Thai nonformal education programme, a process known as “Khit-phen” has been identified as the vehicle to harmony. “Khit-phen” is sometimes interpreted as critical thinking, sometimes as rational thinking, or even as problem solving. It is, in fact, the combination of all these processes, and more. A man who has mastered the process of “Khit-phen” will be able to adapt himself so as to be in constant harmony with his ever-changing surrounding and will, consequently, be able to lead a happy life. A “Khit-
phen" man can see through the problems, locate the causes or the origins of problems, and eventually identify the solutions most appropriate for himself and his community. He will also be able to achieve what he has set out to do. In case he fails in his attempts, he will be able to face the truth and seek other means or revise his previous attempt in order to ultimately achieve his goal.

Based on the above philosophy and assumption, the present adult education programmes are developed to achieve the following objectives:

1) To train the learner to become a "Khit-phen" person.
2) To equip the learner with learning tools to acquire further knowledge (literacy, improved techniques, etc.)
3) To transmit knowledge, attitudes and skill necessary for functioning in the society.
4) To promote and preserve the desired cultural heritage of the nation.

Accordingly, adult education is presently defined as, "Any experience and activity which has been organized for out-of-school population with an aim to promote better knowledge and skills, academically and vocationally, so that the people can achieve an appropriate standard of living and lead a productive life within the community."

Policy

1. To develop a decentralized administrative system in adult education, according to the Ministry of Education's Educational Reform Policy, so as to:
   - support a democratic system of government;
   - promote more creative thinking and responsible attitudes especially in the rural areas;
   - promote types of education which will be most appropriate to different socio-economic situations.
2. To coordinate adult education activities among other agencies, both governmental and private, so as to consolidate all efforts for solving national problems and to mutually support one another.

3. To provide equal opportunity in education for everybody, especially those with little or without adequate qualifications to enrol in the regular school programmes, in order that they can have an education appropriate to their respective needs.

4. To accelerate non-formal education programme in the rural areas both qualitatively and quantitatively in order to reduce the gaps in educational accessibilities between the urban and rural population.

5. To induce "Khit-phen" capabilities among adult learners and provide them with adequate skills training and sources of information useful to their daily life.

6. To promote research and the application of technology in developing non-formal education programmes most appropriate to the Thai social structure.

Goals

A. In terms of quality

According to the 4th Educational Development Plan the following goals have been set for adult education:

1. To develop curricula both short term and long term, with contents that will be profitable to the society and which will be relevant to the problems and needs of the population.

2. To train central, regional and rural staffs to be able to manage the learning process and the administrative operations according to the principles of lifelong education.

3. To create administrative, supervisory and follow-up systems that can lend supporting services to all non-formal educational programmes.
B. In terms of quantity

As stated in the 4th Education Development Plan, the targets for adult education programmes between 1977-1981 are as follows:

1. To provide functional literacy education to 589,500 persons.
2. To provide continuing education, at level 3, 4 and 5 (grade 5 through 12) to 890,700 persons;
3. To provide continuing education, through correspondence and radio programmes to 178,000 persons;
4. To provide short-term vocational training to 721,200 semi-skilled workers;
5. To provide "interest group" type training to any group on any subject in which the Adult Education Division can viably present to 210,000 persons.
6. To set up village newspaper reading centres in 23,000 villages
7. To establish 153 provincial libraries in addition to the 158 district libraries that will also be established.
8. Life-long education centres will be set up in every province to provide direct services to the urban population and supporting services to the rural population.
9. Research development and training centres in adult education will be set up in 4 supra-regions to conduct research, curriculum development, and the training of personnel for out-of-school activities.

Strategies:

1. Set up and adapt, from existing research, development and training centres for adult education in the North, South, Central and Northeast, curriculum in nonformal education which will be most relevant to the problems and needs of the local population.
2. Set up life-long education centres at the provincial level to serve as life-long sources of education for the people and to provide administrative follow-up and evaluation support to the provincial government.
Each of these centres will have an executive committee, with the director of the centre serving as a member, and a secretariat to coordinate the work between the committee and the centre. The committee system is employed to encourage more cooperation and coordination among all concerned and also to ease the burden of the province in the screening of activities, the planning of operations, and the follow-up and evaluating activities of the centres.

3. The central coordinating system will be directed by the National Committee on Non-formal Education.

4. All adult education activities will be closely interrelated and mutually supporting so that the public can enjoy continuing educational experiences in the context of life-long education. Those from the rural areas who have completed the functional literacy course should be eligible to use village newspaper reading centres, join interest groups, etc.

5. Since the out-of-school population makes up almost 80 percent of the total population, an attempt to expand the activities rapidly should be made. To service this expansion an attempt should be made to enlist cooperation efforts from volunteers and private agencies.

6. Curriculum, texts and teaching materials as well as various instructional methodologies to use in non-formal education will be revised in accordance with the problems and needs of local clientele. Emphasis will be placed upon the learning process and personal skills which will enable an individual to continue learning to keep himself up-to-date, while less stress will be placed upon teaching. Thus, a teacher will serve more as a facilitator, who will try to create an atmosphere most conducive to learning, rather than to teach.

7. More mass media will be employed for non-formal education in order to supply up-to-date information to the public to help them in their decision making.

Note: level 3 — equivalent to elementary grade 7
level 4 — , , , to secondary grade 3
level 5 — , , , to , , , , 5
8. Existing educational resources such as buildings, and education personnel will be employed for non-formal education activities as much as possible. This may require certain modifications and training where necessary.

9. The surrounding of all the Adult Education centres will be kept as close to nature as possible in order to attract the general public but the centres should not be too far from the heart of the communities. These natural surroundings will not only be suitable for spiritual inspiration but can also be made into agricultural demonstration areas as well. Buildings should be designed into several small compartments and scattered amid the natural surroundings rather than one single big building.

Problems

Because adult and non-formal education is historically an offshoot of the formal education system, it inevitably faces many of the problems that are currently plaguing formal schools (i.e. teacher centred process, fact oriented curriculum, considerable irrelevance in curriculum content, poorly trained and motivated teachers, and a concentration of effort in those parts of the country which are reasonably well developed). However, at the same time, because it is a relatively new activity and operates on a relatively small scale, it does not suffer the institutional inertia of the formal school system, and is more able to respond immediately to identified problems.

Given the fact that about 20% of the adult population is illiterate, that a further 20% or more is not truly functionally literate and that the vast majority of the rest of the population (particularly those living in the rural areas) do not have even their minimum essential learning needs met, quite obviously the major problem faced by adult education is the immense target group; its dispersion throughout the country (often in remote areas), and the huge diversity of learning needs that must be met. This problem is made even more intractable than would otherwise be the case by the scarcity of budgetary resources available for adult education activities. With a target audience
comprising over 60% of the population requiring education in academic and practical subjects in a host of problem areas relating to their quality of life (agriculture, family planning, nutrition, hygiene, etc.) and in general interest and cultural subjects, very little impact can be made with less than 5% of the government educational budget allocated to sixty or more different programmes.

A second major problem is that in general (though there are many important exceptions), neither the majority of officials nor of the general population really understand an educational programme designed more to help people improve directly their quality of life, than to learn subject matter and give certificates so engrained is the idea in their minds that schooling and education are synonymous terms. The masses seem more eager to memorize irrelevant facts, as long as this will earn them certificates that will provide them at least with a chance of social and economic mobility, rather than participate in a learning process that will help them cope more effectively with their environment. Officials are often unwilling to allocate scarce educational resources to programmes (such as newspaper reading centres, or public education units) which in their minds have little to do with education. It is thus inevitable that there are far more social pressures for the expansion of the more formal adult education programmes than there is for the expansion of the potentially more useful non-formal schemes.

This close relationship between formal and non-formal education has caused other problems in the past—for example, an insistence on having suitably “qualified” certificate-bearing instructors, thus preventing the mobilization of all the possible “teachers” (progressive farmers, workers, soldiers, student volunteers etc.), who could in fact be used in many programmes. Also, there is often the same over-academic, fact-oriented, teacher-centred curriculum as is found in formal schools, and in addition often adult education becomes as inflexible and highly structured as the formal school system.

A further related general problem area is the inability of many adult education schemes to adjust their programmes to specific regional or community
needs, with a national curriculum being maintained on the grounds of standards.

Finally, there are problems concerning coordination of different adult education initiatives, and the lack of a sufficiently large stock of trained personnel experienced in the administration of adult education.

Some Adult Education Programmes

A. Interest Group Programme

The Interest Group Programme has been organized to provide training on request to any group on any subject in which the Adult Education Division can present effectively. The topics for study are based on the problems, needs, and interests of the people so that what is studied can provide the knowledge and experience necessary to help the people and their community.

For the above reasons the Ministry of Education has organised interest groups in a flexible way so as to be able to serve the needs of an individual within a short period of time. At present the duration of a group is limited to not more than 30 hours and can be as short as 5 hours. The programme was launched in 1973 and has received a great deal of attention from the public. It can now be found in almost every province throughout the country.

B. Mobile Vocational Training Programme

This programme provides short vocational skill training in various fields. Its aims are to equip the learners with knowledge that can be useful in solving their problems in daily life, to enhance their profession, and upgrade their living conditions. A mobile service unit will transport all the necessary equipment to distant districts and villages to provide training to needy people who normally do not have much spare time or who cannot easily make it into town to get training. This mobile unit will move on once the needs have been fulfilled. Vocational training, organized by the service unit, will be training that is relevant to the rural needs of the people, for instance, pump repairing, motorcycle repairing, barbering, hair-dressing, cooking, agriculture, radio repairing, etc. All will be of short duration of about 20-50 hours. If
a learner needs intensive training in order to take up a new profession he may have to take a full length course of up to 100-200 hours. But for those who desire to brush up on their old skills or are interested in certain components of the course (for any specific undertaking without changing their profession), or one who does not intend to move elsewhere for a new job, a short course of 20-30 hours will be sufficient. After completing the course the learner will receive a certificate from the Ministry of Education.

This programme is being expanded in the countryside. Those who are interested in it can inquire for more details at any educational office, lifelong education centre, or directly at the mobile trade training unit or mobile vocational unit.

C. Functional Literacy Programme

The functional literacy programme was originated to help the people to know themselves and their community better, to learn how to think critically, to learn how to solve their problems and how to acquire relevant information to help them in their decision making. The Adult Education Division has gathered data on problems, interests and needs of the rural population and used it in the development of the curriculum. Classes were organized into teaching-learning experiences and offered at schools, temples or even at the learners’ homes. The learners with the teachers discuss problems both of a specific and general nature. The objective is to identify the causes and consequences of problems, and together work out guidelines to solve such problems. Hopefully, satisfying the respective needs of the individuals and the community. Besides this, the learners obtain skills in reading, writing and arithmetic which will become useful tools for them in seeking further knowledge and information that can be useful in their daily lives.

The Division launched this programme in 1970. In 1975 there were only 17,807 adult learners enrolled indicating that further expansion is imperative. The small enrollment is due to several constraints and the Division is trying to overcome these problems so that this programme can be made available to the rural population as extensively as possible. There has been evidence,
based on research, which indicates that a functional literacy programme is one of the most effective ways to help raise the standard of living of the rural population.

D. Village Newspaper Reading Centres Project

This project is set up to provide the public with news and information, to promote literacy skills and to prevent the people from relapsing into illiteracy. This project represents one kind of non-formal education activity. What the villagers gain from the reading centres can be considered as part of the self-learning process which will help them build up the knowledge and skills useful in upgrading their lives. Village newspaper reading centres can be used not only as a place where people can read newspapers but also as a centre for the dissemination of knowledge and information and as a clearing house for all information coming from various mass media channels.

E. Radio Correspondence and Television for Non-formal Education

Since 70.9% of the total number of households in Thailand have radiosets, radio has an advantage over other mass media in that it can offer educational opportunities to the majority of the people at little expense in time and money.

As for television, even though many limitations do exist such as the service cannot yet be extended to people in the distant areas, the high cost of television receivers, and the lack of electricity, it is an accepted fact that the role of television as an effective tool of education is becoming more and more apparent.

For these reasons, the Ministry has endorsed radio correspondence and television for non-formal education as a means for development of one of its important projects. The project will render more educational opportunities for the deprived rural out-of-school. According to this project the scope of operation will be spread extensively throughout the country. Responsible agencies involved will be the Centre for Educational Technology of the Department of Educational Techniques, and the Department of General Education in cooperation with existing radio and television stations,
F. General Education Project

The General Education Project is being organized to serve those who are not able to enrol in the formal school system. Graduates from these courses will be entitled to certificates equivalent to those from the regular school system. Classes under this project will be set up in schools or in other buildings which belong to government as well as in associations and organizations. Local resources of the day school system or other agencies will be employed in educational activities for adults. The General Education Department will contribute to the payment of teacher’s fees, some teaching materials, and supervision. This project will have its own curricula, which are equivalent to elementary and secondary levels of education. Courses available are:

1. Lower elementary education

   1.1 Fundamental education, 1st and 2nd levels (equivalent to grade 2 and 4, respectively) which will require 6 months to complete. This curriculum is used in every adult school except where the functional literacy project has been in operation.

   1.2 Level 1 (grades 1&2) and 2 (grade 3 & 4) which requires 6 months each to complete and used in schools in the cities mainly for those who intend to continue their education to higher levels.

2. Upper elementary education. Adult Education level 3 (grade 5 to 7) which requires 1 1/2 years to complete.

3. Lower secondary education. All Education level 4 (grades 8 to 10) which requires 1 1/2 years to complete.

4. Upper secondary education. All Adult Education level 5 (grades 11 & 12). This curriculum is similar to that of grades 11 and 12 in the formal school system.

The general education curricula are undergoing revision at this time. They are being concerted in content and style from an academic nature to a functional nature starting with level 3 and then continuing on to levels 4 and 5 respectively, until complete. The purpose of this conversion is to revise the contents to make them more relevant to the conditions and problems in the every-
day lives of the learners; to encourage adults to learn using a problem-solving method; and finally to induce adults to develop creative thinking ability.

G. Vocational Adult Education Project

The Vocational Adult Education Project was organized to help people improve their occupational skills by providing short term training according to the needs of the participants. The project consists of two kinds of activities:

1. Stationary schools such as vocational adult schools which are using secondary vocational school facilities and open at night. Duration of the courses vary from 100 hours to 1 year. The 25 available subjects may be classified under 4 categories, namely, industrial arts, home economics, business arts and agriculture.

2. Mobile vocational units and mobile trade training schools. The former are small units which are moved to distant villages and which operate from 9.00 A.M. - 3.00 P.M. They offer courses ranging between 150-200 hours. Subjects available are: dressmaking, barbering, cosmetics, mechanics and agriculture.

The mobile trade training schools (MTTS), on the other hand, are mobile units serving larger communities. The available subjects emphasize industrial arts such as mechanics, radio repairing, electrical repairing, welding, etc. the class hours are divided into three sessions. The morning session runs from 9.00 - 12.00, the afternoon from 12.00- 4.00 P.M. and the evening from 5.00 P.M. - 8.00 P.M. All courses run between 150-300 hours.
vii) Other Educational Activities

1. The Arts

Concept and aims All branches of the arts, modern and traditional, are promoted by the government; and art education including music has an important place in the school curriculum. However, as Thailand has an extremely rich artistic and cultural heritage which dates back many centuries, traditional arts receive relatively more attention. At the government level, there is the Department of Fine Arts, attached to the Ministry of Education, whose responsibility is to preserve, propagate and promote the traditional arts in all aspects: including design and architecture, plastic arts, visual arts, performing arts and handicrafts.

Policies and Strategies The artistic and cultural policies of Thailand are embodied in both the National Culture Act, and the Educational Development Scheme.

At the implementation level, the Ministry of Education is mainly responsible for the translating of the policies into actions through its various departments. As far as in-school or formal education is concerned, art and music are compulsory subjects both at the primary and secondary stages. At the higher level, however, art and music education is selective and is usually offered in the form of art and music appreciation or the history of art and drama courses. But, of course, in colleges or faculties specializing in arts, such as the faculties of Fine Arts, Architecture, Interior Decoration, Archaeology, etc., the various branches of arts are duly emphasized.

As mentioned above, the Department of Fine Arts within the Ministry of Education is mainly responsible for the preservation and propagating of the national arts and culture. Therefore, in addition to the various administrative as well as operational divisions and units concerning monuments and sites, museums, architecture, drama, music, history, literature, library and archives, this department also runs two types of special colleges. The first type is called the College of Dramatic Arts, with the main campus in Bangkok, one in Chiangmai and another projected for the South. This college offers
courses at three levels in traditional music, drama and dance, as well as western music. The preliminary course covers a period of six years from grade 5 to grade 10. The intermediate course takes three years from grade 11 to grade 13, and includes some elements of teacher education to enable graduates to teach in elementary schools. The final and advanced course takes two more years to complete after grade 13, and emphasizes more on teacher education, so that graduates are qualified for secondary school teaching. The other type of College run by the Department of Fine Arts is the College of Fine Arts which offers a three year course after grade 10 in both traditional and contemporary arts, including Thai design, Thai architecture, lacquer and gold work, pottery, painting, wood-carving and sculpture.

As regards handicrafts and traditional design, there is another special college which offers 3 levels of courses after grade 10, for three years, five years, or six years. In the sixth year, some teacher education is added to the curriculum. The School of Arts and Crafts, as it is called, is attached to the Department of Vocational Education, also within the Ministry of Education.

Special Programmes and Out-of-school Activities

In addition to courses in arts offered in schools and colleges, the Ministry of Education also carries out many special programmes and out-of-school activities to promote art and music appreciation. These are implemented by many departments and units, such as the Educational Technology Centre of the Department of Educational Techniques which operates educational radio and television offering services programmes of artistic and cultural interests for both school children and adults. Also, the National Museum with branches in many provinces, the National Theatre and the National Library, all within the Department of Fine Arts, regularly organize art exhibitions, special lectures as well as film shows, music and dramatic performances for students and the general public. The Division of Cultural Affairs within the Department of Religious Affairs offers an advisory service on customs and Thai traditions to schools as well as adults education agencies, in conjunction with the Adult Education Division.
Main Problem  Arts and culture in Thailand have been so inextricably related to everyday life from time immemorial. In the old days, artistic skills were acquired within the family or in the Buddhist monastery, because art in Thailand is largely related to religion. With the gradual institutionalization of education, many artistic techniques and certain forms of Thai arts are fading into oblivion. In spite of the efforts made by the educational authorities to preserve and promote the national art and culture, by teaching it as a subject in school or integrate it in adult education programmes, the result in present situation still leaves much to be desired.

2. Physical Education

Concept and aims  Physical education, being an important factor contributing to the manpower and the national development, is given due emphasis by the Ministry of Education in Thailand, and this is testified by the existence of a separate department responsible for physical education programmes. This department runs two colleges for training physical education teachers, organizes sports competitions among school students and arranges sports tournaments for the public. It also has under its jurisdiction a Boy Scouts Division and a Junior Red Cross Division, thus extending its work to community development and public health.

Strategies  The College of Physical Education offers courses leading to the Higher Certificate of Teacher Training and the B.Ed. degree. The curriculum is very similar to that of the ordinary teacher training colleges, with emphasis on Physical Education subjects and the qualifications earned by the graduates are equivalent to those from the normal teacher training colleges.

The College of Physical Education is affiliated with Srinakharintra-wirot University. Furthermore, it provides in-service training in Physical Education, health education, and recreation for personnel of various government departments including the Armed Forces.

Among its assets, the Department owns a national stadium with full facilities which is used by both the school population and the public through
various sports associations. It should be noted that the National Stadium, though located in Bangkok, extends its services to the whole country, for annually the final all-country sports contests both for schools and the public take place here.

Special Programe The Department of Physical Education organizes demonstrations on physical education techniques on special occasions. The Department is also actively involved in the training of athletes for competition in international events such as Olympic Games, International Football Tournaments, SEAP Games, Asian Games. It is also the body in charge whenever Thailand hosts such an international event.

Problems The lack of qualified teachers in many specialized fields still remains one of the most acute problems of the Department of Physical Education. Another problem of equal seriousness and urgency is the inadequacy of space and facilities. The last problem, which is in fact the most serious, is the problem of instilling the sporting spirit among the competing students. Students must be taught to become more aware of the fact that sports and games are not only for physical fitness, but also for the development of the proper mental and spiritual attitudes as well.

3. Boy Scouts Movement

Concept and aims Boy Scouts activities in Thailand, perhaps for historical reasons, have always received a warm and generous attention from the government. The Boy Scouts Movement is considered an effective means of fostering among the young people the sense of unity, dedication, honesty and sacrifice in the cause of the community or the nation.

Strategies Although there is a Boy Scouts Division within the Department of Physical Education, this division is only administrative and co-ordinating in nature, with the responsibility for organizing summer training courses for Scouts and Scout Masters and giving services and subsidies for a number of Boy Scouts camps in various regions of Thailand. The department also
arranges for the translation of "Scouting for Boys" into Thai, with a view to familiarizing Scouts in Thailand with international standards of Boy Scouts. It also publishes a monthly news bulletin "Boy Scouts" publicizing the activities of Boy Scouts in Thailand.

**Special Programmes** The Boy Scouts Division has regular contacts with Boy Scouts of other countries and also with the Boy Scout World Bureau. There have been many exchanges of Scout Masters with the neighbouring countries. Thai Boy Scouts have taken parts in many Jamborees, and International Meetings of Scouts abroad. The Boy Scouts Division with the co-operation of the World Bureau has also organized a few international Boy Scouts events in Thailand.

4. Junior Red Cross

**Concept and aims** The Junior Red Cross Project in Thailand has adopted the International Junior Red Cross principles, namely to train members to give service to individuals and the public, and to foster the spirit of friendship and mutual understanding among members.

**Strategies** The Junior Red Cross Division, within the Department of Physical Education, is an administrative and co-ordinating body. Most of the activities undertaken by member schools are extra-curricular with the view to training pupils in health education and community service. The division conducts training courses for teachers and organizes seminars and conferences to revise the rules and regulations of Junior Red Cross in Thailand.

**Special Programmes** The Junior Red Cross Division, in co-operation with the Public Welfare Department and various hospitals, arranges special programmes to enable member students to render services to orphans, babies, the old and the sick, etc.

The division also sends representatives to the International Redcross Meetings, as well as observers to many Junior Red Cross activities in other countries including countries in Europe and the U.S.A.
Main Problems Generally, the Junior Red Cross activities are merely extra-curricular and therefore fail to inspire enthusiasm among members. The curriculum should be revised and provisions should be made for schools to encourage proper training of teachers and students, if Junior Red Cross activities are to be really meaningful and contribute in real terms to character training of the young.

5. The Use of Media For Education

Aims and Developments

Thailand has a rather well developed mass media infrastructure, with about 150 radio stations and 9 television stations. The Ministry of Education fully realizes the tremendous impact these media have on forming people’s attitudes and aspirations, particularly on the young, it therefore is keen to put these new media to the most constructive use.

-Radio: In 1954, an educational broadcasting service was initiated by the Ministry of Education. Since then the service has developed and expanded steadily, and at present, it caters for both out-of-school and in-school audiences.

-Television Attempts have been made by the Thai government to use television for education. Two projects have already been started—the Bangkok Metropolis Educational Television and the Ministry of Education’s experimental project.

At present, the two projects are still limited both in coverage and programme output, and, because of the high capital costs involved in television, steps to be taken to implement plans for a full-scale use of television for education have to be carefully considered.

Strategies The Educational Technology Centre in the Department of Educational Techniques is the body responsible for producing, transmitting, or arranging for the transmission of educational broadcasts for school-children, teachers, and adults. The Centre operates its own station in Bangkok. In addition, the Public Relations Department of the government transmits school
broadcasts from a number of regional transmitters and also uses more stations for transmitting some of adult educational programmes in the evening. The series of programmes for schools are planned by subject committees nominated by the Ministry of Education.

The Schools Service covers three subject areas, namely music programmes for grades 1-7; Social Studies for grades 1-5; and English for all grades of the upper primary level and the secondary level.

In addition, the Educational Broadcasting Service transmits Children’s Lunch Hour Programme consisting of both educational and entertainment materials, and Teacher’s Hour containing talks on subjects of school radio as supplementary to classroom teaching.

For the out-of-school audiences, the service offers programmes of educational value in the wider sense, i.e. programmes which give information, entertainment with cultural emphasis as well as selected news.

**Problems** The multi-media approach is obviously the one favoured by the educational authorities in Thailand. However, the different media are at present at different stages of development, and each media has different inherent limits and demands. Thus, while the argument on the comparative virtue of television goes on, it is generally agreed that the radio (which unfortunately in recent years has been eclipsed by television, and whose role has been relegated to news and music broadcasts only) must continue to play as the central role. In a situation such as the one that exists in Thailand at present, with 80% of the population living in rural areas, with the vast majority of rural schools (85%) not electrified, and with existing television transmission centering around the larger towns, whatever advantages television may have over radio, inevitably for some time to come Thailand will have to place greater emphasis on radio.

6. **Children and Youth Activities**

**Concept** Useful and creative activities for children and young people are encouraged and supported by the government. The basic aims are to help young people to be able to spend leisure time wisely, and to use their surplus
energy positively for their own benefit as well as for the benefit of the society. At present, children and young people under twenty-five years of age constitute more than 60% of the total population of Thailand, and the government has been accelerating its efforts to assist this large proportion of its people to be able to take more positive part in the national development process.

**Strategies** The Ministry of Education and the local municipalities with the co-operation of special organizations, both governmental and non-governmental, have been trying to provide recreation facilities and arrange creative programmes of activities for children and youth. These include the establishment and improvement of school and public playgrounds as local centres of sports and games; the creation of youth clubs in school; the activities of the Thai Youth Hostel Association; the Children’s Sala Information Service, and the establishment of a planetarium in Bangkok.

Recently, the National Youth Bureau has been established to act as a central planning and co-ordinating body. This Bureau is now under the Ministry of Education with the status equivalent to that of a department, and has been mobilizing its efforts in establishing youth centres in the rural communities, especially at the Tambon level. This programme is being launched with active co-operation of the Adult Education Division, the Educational Techniques Department and the Vocational Education Department, as well as the Ministry of Interior. These youth centres are to provide vocational training and life-long education for the majority of the young people in rural areas who do not have the opportunity to continue their studies after completing compulsory education. At present, there are about 5,000 Tambon in Thailand, and though it is desirable that a youth centre be established in every Tambon, currently only 400 centres are being established each year, beginning in 1975.

7. **Co-operation with International Organizations**

**Aims** Thailand is a member of many international and regional organizations concerning education, science and culture, such as UNESCO, UNICEF, SEAMEO, ASEAN, ICOM etc., and actively participates in the activities of these organizations.
Strategies  The External Relations Division, within the Office of the Under-Secretary of State for Education, has been designated to closely liaise with the various departments in the Ministry as well as other governmental and non-governmental offices outside the Ministry in matters relating to foreign assistance and cooperation. In particular, the External Relations Division acts as the Secretariat for the National Commission for UNESCO, and as SEAMEO affairs office. It also serves as the co-ordinating body for UNICEF, IBE, NIER, FAO, and some aspects of ASEAN programmes concerning educational and cultural activities.

There are, however, some agencies and some foreign countries which provide technical assistance directly to the various departments of the Ministry and to the various universities in Thailand. Such assistance has to be negotiated through the Department of Economic and Technical Co-operation (DTEC) of the Office of the Prime Minister.
viii) Educational Administration

The responsibility for the administration of education in Thailand is divided among four governmental authorities: the Bureau of State Universities, the Office of the Prime Minister, the Ministry of Education, and the Ministry of Interior. In general, the Bureau of State Universities is responsible for higher education; the Office of the Prime Minister is responsible for overall policy making for education; the responsibilities of the Ministry of Education centre on secondary education and pedagogic aspects of the whole system, while the Ministry of Interior is responsible for the administration of primary education.

As the functions of the Bureau of State Universities are described elsewhere, discussion here will be confined to those of the Office of the Prime Minister, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Interior.

1. The Office of the Prime Minister

Within the Office of the Prime Minister, there are two commissions involved in the educational development:

The National Education Commission (NEC) was established in 1959. At the present time the NEC is responsible for the overall co-ordination of planning, and for ensuring that the activities in different parts of the educational system are consistent with each other. It also carries out research of general interest, usually at the request of other agencies. Approving foreign aid requests for education is also one of the NEC's responsibilities. It has to report to the Cabinet on serious educational problems and make recommendations on the reorganization of the educational system or on the development of new policies to solve these problems.

The National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), was established in 1959 as part of the Office of the Prime Minister to be responsible for proposing overall development policy and targets for providing revenue estimate and manpower projection figures and for checking consistency among the plans of all government sectors including education. The
NESDB has two divisions directly involved in education: the Manpower Division, responsible for making population, labour force and manpower projections, as well as carrying out in depth research into all the above fields; and the Social Projects Division, which has an educational section responsible for participating with other organizations in preparing educational plans, integrating those plans with the overall national plan, evaluating educational projects, and other general aspects of co-ordination between educational and economic development.

2. The Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education has nine departments including the Office of the Under-Secretary of State and the Private Education Commission. The Ministry is headed by a member of the Cabinet who is designated as Minister of Education. The Minister is assisted by the Secretariat, the Under-Secretary of State and the Director-General of each department. (The Private Education Commission, equivalent in status to a department, is headed by the Secretary-General). The following is a brief outline of the work of the Ministry's departments:

The Department of General Education is responsible for pre-primary, primary, secondary and adult education and education for the handicapped.

The Department of Vocational Education operates all full-time and part-time public vocational schools, technical institutes and vocational teacher training.

The Department of Teacher Training is responsible for producing qualified teachers for various types of schools.

The Department of Fine Arts operates special schools for students particularly interested in music, drama, dance and fine arts. In addition, it is responsible for maintaining historical monuments, the National Archives the National Library and for the conservation of national arts and culture.

The Department of Physical Education is responsible for training physical education teachers, for giving advice and preparing curricula on physical education, and for assisting in organizing school sports activities,
The Department of Religious Affairs is charged primarily with the support of Buddhism, the giving of assistance to other religious organizations and the improving of the moral and spiritual concepts of the nation.

The Department of Educational Techniques is charged with developing and disseminating new curricula, carrying out research in teaching methods and related aspects of tests and measurement, as well as approving new texts. In addition it is responsible for educational broadcasting and providing guidance services.

The Private Education Commission is responsible for private primary, secondary, and vocational educational institutions.

The Office of the Under-Secretary of State is charged with co-ordinating activities of various departments of the Ministry, serving as the link between the Ministry and other government departments and as the centre of administration in the Ministry.

The National Youth Bureau is responsible for the planning and co-ordinating of youth activities.

Local Educational Administration

In the previous chapters, different aspects of education which are the functions of the various departments listed above have already been discussed. There remain certain administrative authorities under the Office of the Under-Secretary of State, which need to be elaborated here. These are the work of the 71 Changwad Education Offices and the 12 Regional Education Offices.

For the purposes of local education administration, the country is divided into 12 regions. In each region there is a Regional Education Office, headed by a Regional Education Office. In addition, each of the 71 Changwads has a Changwad Education Office, headed by a Changwad Education Officer; and each of the 574 amphoeas has an Amphoe Education Office, headed by an Amphoe Education Officer. All Education Officers, whether at the regional, changwad or amphoe levels, are appointed by the Office of the Under-Secretary of State for Education,
In each region, besides the Regional Education Office, there are also a number of educational supervisors, both at the primary and secondary levels. These educational supervisors are officials of the Supervisory Unit of the Department of General Education.

**Regional Education Officer**

Regional Education Officers are charged with giving leadership to the improvement of education in their regions, particularly in adapting education to the special needs and opportunities found locally. They are not "line" officers, but staff personnel, communicating and working in cooperation with Changwad Education Officers.

**Changwad Education Officer**

The Changwad Education Officer is the representative of the Ministry of Education assigned to his changwad. He handles work in his changwad for every department of the Ministry. At meetings of the Changwad Administrative Organization, he presents the views of his Ministry concerning compulsory education schools. For all other government schools the Changwad Education Officer has responsibility as the chief administrative official in the changwad. He is also responsible for supervising the private schools in his changwad.

In 1966 most public elementary schools were transferred from the Ministry of Education to the Department of Local Administration of the Ministry of Interior. As a result, the administration of compulsory education rests now with the governor of each changwad, although the Ministry of Education remains responsible for all pedagogical aspects of education. The Changwad Education Officer, who represents the Ministry of Education, must therefore have the active support of the governor and the Changwad Administrative Organization if he were to be effective.

In summary, the Changwad Education Officer is charged with two duties: assisting the Governor in carrying out and supervising in the changwad the work of all departments of the Ministry of Education and acting as a
member of the Changwad Administrative Organization as it advises and assists the governor in administering the changwad government. He is expected to be both an educator and an administrator.

Amphoe Education Officer

The Amphoe Education Officer is the local representative of the Ministry of Education. His duties are to assist and advise the Nai Amphoe as directed, and to carry out all work of the Ministry of Education and of the Changwad Education Officer in the amphoe. Usually the Amphoe Education Officer assists the Nai Amphoe in establishing schools, building and expanding schools, preparing school budgets, allocating funds, personnel administration and so forth. He inspects and supervises the work of the schools, works to improve education by providing in-service training for teachers, and he controls academic standards by administering a Changwad-wide examination to all students completing elementary grade four.

3. The Ministry of Interior

Formerly, the Ministry of Education had the responsibility for all education below the university level. In 1959 the government adopted a policy of decentralization. In conformity with this policy, the administration of public primary schools in municipal areas was transferred to the municipalities. In 1966, almost all the public primary schools in rural areas were transferred to the provincial administrative authority, called the Changwad Administrative Organization. As both the municipalities and the Changwad Administrative Organization fall under the responsibility of the Department of Local Administration in the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Interior can be considered as being responsible for most of the public primary schools in the country. This was a decentralization move designed to increase authority and initiative for education at the local level.

After this transfer the Ministry of Education has continued to assist the authorities and municipalities in teaching techniques and curriculum matters, as well as being a full sponsor of a small number of pilot and experimental schools under its responsibilities. Specific delineation of the division of re-
Responsibilities between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Interior can be outlined as follows:

The Ministry of Interior is responsible for:

1. Determination of support funds, allocation and control of expenditure.

2. Supervising construction of buildings and furnishings.

3. Personnel administration in the areas of recruiting, appointment, promotion, salary increases, discipline, personnel records and pensions.

4. Inspecting school statistics and records and making arrangements to have children attend schools.

5. Approving the establishment and abolition of elementary schools.

6. Providing extension of compulsory education.

7. Establishing a community school programme.

8. Giving different types of assistance to school children such as providing textbooks and educational equipment.

9. Coordinating with the Ministry of Education and Changwad Administrative Authorities especially in the following:
   a) Provide training to teachers at Changwad level; and
   b) Dealing with various projects concerning the elementary educational system.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for:

1. Supervising the:
   a) Preparation of syllabi and curriculum development (through the Department of Educational Techniques and the Department of General Education)
   b) Preparation of textbooks (through the Department of Educational Techniques)
   c) Inspection and supervision of education (through the Department of General Education)
2. Rendering services on:
   
a) Pre-service preparation of teachers and certification of teachers for service in local and municipal schools (through the Department of Teacher Training).

b) In-service training of teachers (through the Department of Teacher Training and the Teachers' Council, with the cooperation of the Training Division of the Department of Local Administration in the Ministry of Interior).

3. Conducting educational research, experimentation, demonstration and evaluation (through the Department of Educational Techniques and the Department of General Education).

4. Co-ordinating with each Changwad Administrative Organisation and with each municipality, especially in the following matters:
   
a. Laying plans for developing education in accordance with the economic development plans.

b. Determining and maintaining educational standards.

c. Determining and supervising the standard and number of teachers in line with the principles of educational administration.

d. Advising and propagating educational techniques.

The General Education Department of the Ministry of Education still retains control over some primary schools. These include approximately 342 school designated as "model" or "experimental" schools throughout the country, including at least one in each district; and twelve boarding schools for children in remote areas.

Local education administration

In education, the governor has authority to administer and control all types and levels of schools in his changwad. All education officers and teachers in the changwad are under his power and authority.

The governor legally has authority in education for such crucial decisions, among others, as (1) the establishment, maintenance and discontinuance
of schools, (2) the adoption of textbooks, (3) the appointment and dismissal of teachers, (4) the increasing of teachers' salaries, (5) the planning for the development and maintenance of education in the changwad, (6) the inspection and supervision of all schools, (7) the allocation of monies to local schools, (8) the expansion of upper primary (grades 5,6,7) schools, and (9) the preparation of the changwad educational budget. With his controlling influence over all education officials and functions, the governor is in a position to be of great benefit for educational development within his changwad.
ix) Curriculum Development and Educational Reform

Curriculum Development

The existing school curriculum has been in use for 15 years since 1960. In response to the needs of the country for accelerating the pace of development through education, it is felt necessary to design a new curriculum that is relevant to the learners and the society. As is generally the case, the way in which school curriculum is developed is for the Ministry of Education to appoint ad hoc committees usually comprising educators, supervisors and teachers from the departments both within and outside the Ministry, for example from the Department of General Education and the Department of Vocational Education of the Ministry of Education, or from the university departments of education. An important ad hoc committee formally known as the Committee for Curriculum Revision was appointed in 1970 under the chairmanship of the Under-Secretary of State for Education with the Directors-General of all departments and Heads of the Supervisory Units of the Ministry of Education as members. Thereafter two sub-committees were appointed to examine and make an analysis of the existing primary and secondary curricula. In the report issued in 1972 it is pointed out that the existing school curriculum is subject-based, information-giving, certificate-oriented with rigid timetables and little consideration for individual differences. What is needed is a broader curriculum designed to provide general education that includes the development of employable skills and at the same time assists the learner to attain his potential, enhances individual research and group discussion and stimulates critical thinking. With regard to primary education, the emphasis is on the integration of subjects in order to give the child an idea of life as a whole.

Authorities responsible for curriculum development

Since there was no single unified body directly responsible for curriculum development, the Ministry therefore created the Curriculum Division in the Department of Educational Techniques to take care of the preparation of relevant school curriculum in all subject areas except science and mathematics
which are currently being developed by the Institute for the Promotion of the Teaching of Science and Technology. This institute was established in 1970 with the assistance of UNESCO and UNDP to initiate and promote the teaching of science, mathematics and technology in educational institutions under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, to develop science and mathematics curricula and to train teachers in teaching methods, using texts, equipment and evaluation instruments developed at the Institute. The plan for the future is for the Division of Curriculum Development and the Institute for the Promotion of the Teaching of Science and Technology to be amalgamated to form the National Curriculum Development Centre under the authority of the Department of Educational Techniques of the Ministry of Education.

A new phase in curriculum development

Curriculum development is a task that requires a great deal of time and resources. In the past it may appear as if the Ministry of Education was slow in its effort to bring about a new curriculum. After the political changes in October 1973, however, a major advance was made. Throughout 1974 members of the Curriculum Revision Committee met almost every week to discuss and recommend measures for improving the existing curriculum. At the beginning of 1974 another two sub-committees were appointed, one to be responsible for primary curriculum and another for secondary curriculum development.

Secondary curriculum development

The new upper secondary curriculum was implemented in the 1975 academic year. Before that, upper secondary education was divided into 3 sections – arts, science and general – each with its own specific subjects. The new curriculum is not divided as such. It has four core subjects which are compulsory for all students, namely Thai language, social studies, science and health education. At the same time there is a wide range of other subjects from which students can choose according to their own interest and ability.
The use of credit system makes it more flexible for the teaching-learning process. Since credits are transferable, students can take up a course which is not available in their own school and transfer the credits to their own schools.

With regard to lower secondary curriculum, its structure will be much the same as that designed for upper secondary curriculum. The implementation of lower secondary curriculum is scheduled for the 1977 academic year.

The new structure of the school system

Following the 1960 National Education Scheme, the present school system is 4-3-3-2; namely 4 years for lower primary, 3 years for upper primary, 3 years for lower secondary and 2 years for upper secondary education. It is recommended that the new structure be 6-3-3, with the length of upper secondary education being increased from two to three years and the length of primary education being reduced from seven to six years. That there should be six years of primary education is mainly because it is felt that at present only about 50% of children proceed beyond the four years of compulsory schooling and, if the structure remains unchanged, it would be 20 years or more before universal primary education of seven years could be achieved. Since four years of schooling seems insufficient to enable children in more remote rural areas to become functionally literate, it is recommended that primary education cover six years and be available to all children. Meanwhile it is hoped that, with the expansion of upper secondary education from two to three years, students will have greater opportunity to study in more details.

Primary curriculum development

It should be noted that if the new structure is implemented, primary education will not be divided into upper and lower, but will be a continuous process with an integrated curriculum covering four subject areas—basic skills, life experience, work experience and character education. It is proposed that learning and working be combined in such proportions as would prepare the learner for his life in the community.
Educational Reform

On June 25, 1974, the Cabinet appointed a Committee for Establishing the Framework for Educational Reform. Its duty is "to consider, with the view to making recommendations, the preparation of a framework for educational reform for both formal and non-formal education, as well as other systems of education, to suit the times and to comply with the social and economic development in a democratic society". The Committee has therefore made a study of education both as a system and a process, beginning with the relationships between the physical environment, Thai society and education, and their causes and effects.

The Committee finally made the following recommendations:-

1) That there be equality in education to promote social justice in a democratic society.

2) That the education system be more flexible and open, thereby making closer the relationship between formal and non-formal education in order to comply with social conditions and the socio-economic development of the country.

3) That the content and learning process be improved and changed to meet the objectives of education at each level and for each type. This can be accomplished by making the content and learning process comply with the desired educational objectives.

4) That the role and status of teachers be improved and changed, as well as those of associated non-teaching personnel that they serve as agents for educational reform.

5) That the system and structure of higher education be improved and changed to bring about unity at this level and in the educational administrative system as a whole. The aim is to increase both the efficiency and effectiveness of the institutions of higher learning so that their operation can better meet the needs of society.

6) That the Government shall be solely responsible for compulsory education, as stated in the Constitution. The private sector, with good intentions and ability, may share the responsibility of organizing non-compulsory education - under the condition that their aim is not the making of profit, and that they shall remain under the supervision of the Government.
7) That there be unity at the policy-making level and in the administration at both the central and regional levels. That both power and authority shall be decentralized so that the local people can share the responsibility of organizing education suitable for the local level, thereby creating more effectiveness and more efficiency in the system.

8) That all resources shall be mobilized from both the government and private sectors, as well as from those who benefit from education. Efforts shall be made to utilize with maximum efficiency these resources for education in order that it be expanded as widely, equally, and justly as possible.

9) That there be a unified legislative structure in education so that all legal aspects of education are related and directed towards a single defined purpose in the direction outlined by the Reform.

10) That there be other social reforms which are related to education in order to help attain a meaningful life and a better society.

The success of the above-stated recommendations depends on two conditions: the principles, system, and process must all be reformed; also, other social systems and institutions must be reformed at the same time.

The educational reform in accordance with the recommendations made by the Committee will undoubtedly bring about greater efficiency and effectiveness in education and in national development. Especially, the people of Thailand will directly profit from it.
CONCLUSION

Being under no colonial rule at any time in its long history, Thailand has developed a kind of education that is peculiar to its own situations reflecting the spirit of freedom, self-reliance, and flexibility.

Earlier in the process of nation-building, the Buddhist temples were the pillars in education, playing the most significant role in providing educational experiences, moral, vocational, intellectual, art, as well as self-defence to Thai youth. We often read of a young nobleman in ancient times seeking knowledge in military affairs from venerable abbots of the temples.

Through the wisdom of their kings, ever since the times of King Ramkamhaeng the Great (1279–1300) as mentioned in Chapter 1 of this book, the Thai people have always had some form of learning from the temples, and later on from the schools. During the long reign of King Rama V (King Chulalongkorn the Great), close associations with foreign countries and foreign people were developed. King Chulalongkorn visited Europe twice. Consequently, of their own free will, the Thai people adopted many new concepts in education from western countries, particularly Europe. Schools in a modern sense were established at that time; and from that time on, Thai scholars, students and officials have travelled to the West, and brought home with them foreign educational thoughts and practices. Many of these ideas were adapted for use in the Thai education system. It is noteworthy that flexibility characterizes the Thai way of life since the very beginning, even at the time when King Ramkamhaeng created the Thai alphabet in 1283 through adaptation of the Mon and the Khmer scripts. Furthermore, learning of foreign languages, especially English, came to be recognized as an important element in education, starting from the reign of King Chulalongkorn. Looking back, it is realized that it has been a great adventure in education for the Thai people, and they have done rather well. As a consequence, directly or indirectly, their freedom and independence have been preserved.

It has been said on many occasions that we must look back in order to look forward. Now that we have looked back or rather way back to the
very beginning, what can we see into the future? With our fundamental attitudes of freedom and flexibility, we certainly can see a lot of room for improvement and reform. Perhaps, we may identify four major areas for further development.

Firstly, it is desirable to increase considerably the opportunities in education for the people, especial, for the so-called adults, who leave schools rather early in their lives without sufficient training. Again, for the students in regular schools, steps must be taken to see that offerings in each school are comprehensive enough to meet most of their needs, or most of their aptitudes, interests and skills, as well as to suit the situations in the rural localities.

Secondly, it is generally felt that to be effective, educational administration should be widely decentralized. The district or provincial authorities, elected or otherwise, should be in control of educational affairs in their own communities.

Thirdly, curriculum development in the broadest sense of the word must be intensified. There are great needs for many areas of study to be modified, strengthened, or re-vitalized. Free democratic ideals must be emphasized throughout the educational system. Military education in schools and colleges needs to be introduced. Learning in the fields of co-operatives, distributive education, and vocational education must be vastly expanded. Moral education can definitely be strengthened.

Fourthly, the school system itself needs to be re-examined. At this point of development, how many years should the elementary school have? Should we have a six-year elementary school, and also a six-year secondary school, or what are the alternatives in order for our education to be most effective?

In the same manner and spirit as our forefathers have developed, changed, and modified, so must we of the present generation reform, change and grow.
APPENDICES

Appendix I: The National Education Scheme of 1933

I. The aim of national education is to allow all citizens, regardless of their sex, race, or religion, to be provided with education suited to their talents and economic situations in order that everyone may make his contribution to society by pursuing a career that most suits him.

II. For their future careers, children should receive education both in general and vocational subjects which will be arranged according to their talents and economic situations.

III. For the benefit of all people, education is divided into 3 kinds:
   1. Chariyasueksa or moral education to encourage good behaviour and a high standard of morality.
   2. Puttisueksa or general education to give wisdom and knowledge.
   3. Palasueksa or physical education to promote good health.

IV. The State has the right and power to control government schools, Prachabarn schools and private schools.

V. Within the limits of Article 4 and any other Acts, any private citizen or Prachabarn may be allowed by the State to set up schools to educate children.

VI. Samansueksa and Wisamansueksa

   Samansueksa is the study of the fundamentals of various subjects. It includes the courses in Pratom 1–4 and Mattayom 1–8.

   Wisamansueksa is the study of vocational subjects provided to meet the demands of each region: Husbandry, Handicraft, and Commerce, all of which form the basic principles of agriculture and various industries.

VII. Children should be given sufficient general knowledge as a preparation for further studies in vocational education,
VIII. There should be enough vocational schools for students to continue their studies after completing any of the set courses in the curricula of Samansueksa.

IX. Any student wishing to continue his study in secondary education can do so as soon as he has passed Pratom 4. However if there is any doubt about his ability to study in the first part of secondary education (Mattayom 1-4), he should continue in Pratom 5 and 6 of the vocational branch in order to complete his education.

X. Compulsory Education

According to the Act on Elementary Education of 1921, compulsory education requires that children of all races and religions study until they complete their elementary education courses 4 years of Samansueksa and 2 years of Wisamansueksa.

XI. Compulsory education is free of charge; there are no tuition fees.

XII. Classification of Academic Ability

Those who have completed the set course of compulsory education can be regarded as citizens sufficiently trained to serve society by working in their particular fields, using their rights and carrying out their duties as members of society.

Those who have completed the first part of secondary education in the vocational branch are regarded as more highly trained citizens capable of forming useful ideas and serving the country in different capacities.

Those who have completed the courses at university level are regarded as specialists capable of assuming higher responsibilities.

XIV. Study of Foreign Languages

Those who graduate from universities or colleges should know at least two foreign languages. The foreign languages offered to students are:

Modern Languages: English, Mandarin, French, German, etc.
Ancient Languages: Pali, Sanskrit, etc.
XV. The two foreign languages should be taught at the beginning of
the first and second part of secondary education respectively.
Those who can only finish the vocational courses of the first part of
secondary education should study Mandarin.

XVI. Girls' Education
Girls and boys should have equal opportunities in education. However,
since women have by nature special duties to perform, the curricula for girls
are slightly different from those for boys, but the quantity and the quality of
their education are not inferior to those of boy.

XVII. Categories of Schools
There are three kinds of schools with regard to the owners:
1. Government Schools which are established and subsidized by the
government.
2. Prachabarn Schools which are established and subsidized by Pra-
chabarn in compliance with the Act on Elementary Education of 1921.
3. Private Schools which are set up and maintained by private citi-
zens according to the Act on Private Schools of 1918.

XVIII. In setting up schools of all kinds both for Samansueksa and
Wisamansueksa to meet the demands of the public, the State allows some citi-
zens to set up private schools in order to relieve the government of its finan-
cial burden as well as the management.

XIX. Financial Support
According to the Elementary Education Act of 1921, the State under-
takes to give financial aid to Prachabarn schools. The State can also subsid-
dize private schools according to the regulations to be laid down by the Tamakarn Ministry.

XX. The State grants scholarships to distinguished students to
encourage their further studies and makes regulations concerning partic-
cular scholarships, for example, state scholarships and the Tamakarn

XXI. The State takes charge of the funds donated by
private citizens and carries out the wishes of the donors with regard to
the expenditure of the money.

XXII. Teacher Education
For Samansueksa, each class is to have teachers with appropriate
qualifications.
XXIII. For Wisamansueksa teachers with appropriate qualifications will be employed.

Any new branch of vocational education is to have teachers experienced in that particular field.

XXIV. If it is still not feasible to have only teachers with diplomas in every kind of school, at least there should be as many of them as possible.

XXV. For university education, appropriate professors, assistant professors, and lecturers should be employed.

XXVI. School Inspection

There are to be inspections of every school in every district, town, and province in order to make sure that the management of the school complies with the Tamakarn Ministry's regulations.

XXVII. An inspector is entitled to advise and reprimand the teachers in the districts he visits.

XXVIII. Health Survey

There should be constant medical examinations of schoolchildren to prevent and cure diseases that may interfere with their studies.

XXIX. Examinations

The State arranges examinations for scholarships and teachers' diplomas and final examinations of all courses that will lead to further studies in a higher level, i.e. final examinations of Pratom 4 for those who wish to continue in the first part of secondary education.

XXX. Any school is entitled to set entrance examinations for candidates who have already acquired certificates signifying their ability to continue their studies in the school.

XXXI. When the examinations of any school or group of examiners are considered as reliable as those of the State, the government will cancel the state examinations and recognize those private examinations as equivalent to those of the government.

XXXII. Report

The Tamakarn Ministry is to submit to the government an annual report on education.
Appendix II: The National Education Scheme of 1936

The government deems it appropriate to improve and modernize education planning as follows:

**General Objectives**

I. It is the wish of this government to educate every citizen so that he may fulfil his duties under the constitutional regime, serve his country and support himself as a good member of society.

II. For the full benefit of education, children will be given both Samansueksa (General Education) and Archewasueksa (Vocational Education).

III. To obtain the best results, education is to be divided into three kinds:

1. Puttisueksa: to give wisdom and knowledge.
2. Chariyasueksa: to instil morality.
3. Palasueksa: to promote good health.

IV. **Regulations**

   Education is to be divided into:

   1. General Education which is the studies of basic principles of various subjects. There are four years of study in the elementary education, three years in the first part of secondary education, and another three in the second part of secondary education.

   2. Vocational Education which is the studies of vocational subjects that can be obtained by students who have completed any of the set courses of the General Education.

V. Those who wish to study at the university level must complete their pre-university education first.

VI. The chart of the National Education Plan with standard age for various grades is shown below.
VII. Compulsory Education

The State requires that every child be given elementary education according to the Elementary Education Act.

VIII. In the provision of education, the State allows the municipal authorities and private citizens to help the government set up schools.

IX. The State may subsidize any private schools in accordance with the regulations to be laid down.

X. The State may assist students in their studies by granting scholarships according to the rules to be made later on.

XI. All educational establishments must employ instructors, equipped with diplomas or degrees, or specialists suited to the subjects and classes they teach.

XII. The State is entitled to control instruction in all schools and is in charge of holding examinations for teachers who wish to obtain diplomas, as well as examinations at the crucial stages of Samansueksa, i.e. final examinations of elementary education and both parts of secondary education.

The State may also hold final examinations for pre-university students.

When the examination results of any school are held to be trustworthy and reliable, the State should cancel its own examinations and consider the school's examinations equivalent to those of the State.
The National Education Plan
1936

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Age</th>
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<th>Vocational School</th>
<th>Second Part of Secondary Education</th>
<th>Vocational School</th>
<th>First Part of Secondary Education</th>
<th>Vocational School</th>
<th>Compulsory Education</th>
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Pre-Elementary Education
Appendix III: The National Education Scheme of 1951

I. Objectives

The State wishes that every child should, to the best of ability, receive as much education as possible so that he may become a good democratic member of society endowed with good health and sufficient knowledge and ability to earn his own living.

II. To become a good citizen each boy and girl should remain at school at least until the age of fifteen.

III. Every boy and girl should seek knowledge and skill which will become useful to his or her career latter on.

IV. In the organization of education, four kinds of knowledge should be taught:

1. Charivasueksa, to cultivate culture and public spirit.
2. Palasueksa, to promote physical strength and good health as well as good sportsmanship.
3. Puttisueksa, to give wisdom and general knowledge.
4. Hattasueksa, to instil industriousness and skill in the use of one's hands as a basic training for work.

V. Regulations

There are five levels of education:
1. Pre-Elementary Education
2. Elementary Education
3. Secondary Education
4. Pre-University or advanced Vocational Education
5. University Education

VI. Pre-Elementary Education is the training of children before the period of compulsory education with the emphasis on preparing children for Elementary Education.

VII. Elementary Education is the study of basic general knowledge divided into 4 grades: Pratom 1 to Pratom 4.

VIII. Secondary Education is divided into 3 branches:

1. General Education (Samansueksa) is the continuation of Elementary Education plus practical training. It is regarded as the foundation of knowledge and ability and has 3 grades: Mattayom 1 to Mattayom 3.
2. Special Education (Wisamansueksa) is the study of subjects relevant to further studies in pre-university or vocational courses. It is divided into 2 parts each of which has 3 grades.

3. Vocational Education (Archewasueksa) is the study of special subjects that are fundamental to the earning of one’s living. It can be pursued by students who have completed certain courses of elementary education or either of the other two branches of secondary education. It is divided into 2 parts: "Elementary Vocational Education" and "Advanced Vocational Education". Each part is designed to take not more than 3 years of study.

IX. Pre-University Education is the study of subjects that prepare students for higher studies in colleges or universities. It provides a two-year course.

Advanced Vocational Education is the study of vocational subjects preparing students for work or further studies in colleges or universities.

X. University Education is the advanced study of various subjects and research work.

XI. The chart of national education with the standard age of a child for each stage of education is given below.

XII. Compulsory Education

According to the law, every child has to attend school until he reaches the school-leaving age.

XIII. Compulsory Education in government schools must be given free of charge, and the State should assist with such educational equipment as it thinks fit.

XIV. Additional Education and Adult Education

Additional Education is an occasional course of study provided for children who have left school.

XV. Adult Education is an occasional course of study provided for adults who did not have the opportunity of studying in their childhood, or are incapable of following the normal course of study, or wish to improve the efficiency of their work by furthering their studies.
XVI. General Policy

The government holds education as the most important state affair.

XVII. The State promotes and supports education.

The organization of education is the responsibility of the State only; all educational establishments are under the control of the State.

University education is permitted to be managed by the responsible party within the limits of law.

XVIII. The State lays special emphasis on vocational education.

XIX. The State encourages research on arts and sciences.

XX. The State allows private citizens to participate in the provision of education lower than the university level.

XXI. The State subsidizes private schools according to Regulations set by the Ministry of Education.

XXII. The State allots scholarships to students according to the regulations in order to help them in their studies.

XXIII. The State promotes and directs the training of teachers in order that there may be enough qualified teachers for various schools to fulfill the aims of the National Education Scheme.

XIV. All educational establishments must employ instructors, equipped with diplomas or degrees, or specialists suited to the subjects and classes they teach.

XXV. The State is entitled to control and inspect instruction in schools and hold examinations according to the Ministry of Education's regulations.
The National Education Plan

1951

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<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Pre-University Education</th>
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<th>Advanced Vocational Education</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

- Elementary Education

- Pre-Elementary Education
Appendix IV: The National Education Scheme of 1960

I. Objectives

The State aims to educate every child as much as his aptitude would allow so that he would become a good citizen who, with a high standard of morality and a good knowledge of culture, would have a sense of discipline and responsibility as well as good health. Every citizen should be instructed to have faith in democracy and trained to have the ability to earn his own living and serve his country.

II. All children are to remain at school at least until they reach the age of fifteen.

III. Children should seek knowledge and experience that may be useful to their future careers.

IV. In the organization of education, it should be taken into account that education should be provided to serve society and individuals and meet the demands of the national economy and government of the country. There should be 4 kinds of education:

1. Chariyasuek: to teach students to have morality, culture, and social responsibility.

2. Palasuek: to train students to be good sportsmen and acquire both strength and perseverance.

3. Puttisuek: to give knowledge and wisdom for general purposes.

4. Hattsuek: to train students to be familiar with working with their hands.

V. Level of Education

There are 4 levels:

1. Pre-Elementary Education
2. Elementary Education
3. Secondary Education
4. University Education
VI. Pre-Elementary Education is the preparatory training of children for further studies in Elementary Education.

VII. Elementary Education is aimed to develop children's minds by giving basic training. It is divided into 2 parts; the first part consists of 4 grades and the second 3 grades.

VIII. Secondary Education is based on Elementary Education and aimed at surveying and promoting children's interest and aptitude in order that they will be qualified enough to earn their livings or continue their studies. Secondary Education is divided into 2 parts, each of which contains not more than 3 grades.

IX. University Education is the higher studies and research work or vocational courses taken in universities or other educational institutes.

X. School System

Pre-Elementary Education precedes compulsory education and is provided in kindergartens which may have 2 or 3 grades. A primary school can also offer one year of Pre-Elementary Education.

XI. Elementary Education in one school or complete the first part in one school and begin the second part in another school.

XII. Secondary Education is to be given according to a child's aptitude. It is divided into two branches: General Education (Samsueka) which is responsible for general knowledge and Vocational Education (Archewasueksa) which gives knowledge and skill necessary for earning one's living. Both parts of Secondary Education can be studied together in one school or separately in two different schools.

XIII. In the General Education, there are 3 grades in the first part and 2 in the second. Upon completion of each part, students should acquire enough knowledge and skill to be able to earn their living. When they have finished the second part, they should be equipped with enough knowledge to continue in universities or their equivalents.
XIV. In the vocational branch, both in the first and second part of Secondary Education, there may be one, two or three grades depending upon the nature of each particular course.

XV. The classification of grades and standard ages for children is given below.

XVI. Compulsory Education is enforced by the law that demands all children be at school until they reach a certain age. The State should extend the period of Compulsory Education as far as its financial condition would allow in order to give the general public a higher standard of general knowledge.

XVII. Compulsory Education in state schools must be given free of charge. The State should help provide educational equipment.

XVIII. Bearing in mind that education is the most important state affair, the State should promote and subsidize it.

XIX. **Management and Organization**

The State should promote and support education which should be considered the most important affair of the State.

XX. The organization of education is the responsibility of the State only; all educational establishments are under the control of the State.

XXI. University education is permitted to be managed by the responsible party under the government's regulations.

XXII. The State promotes and directs the training of teachers so that there may be enough qualified teachers for various educational institutes to fulfil the aims of the National Education Scheme.

XXIII. The State allows private citizens to participate in the provision of education lower than the university level.

XXIV. The State should subsidize private schools according to the regulations.

XXV. The State should give extensive support to vocational education which will be arranged to suit the national economy.
XXVI. The State promotes adult education for the benefit of those who did not have the opportunity of studying in their childhood, or are incapable of following the normal courses of education, or wish to improve the efficiency of their work by furthering their studies.

XXVII. The State encourages research on various branches of knowledge.

XVIII. The State grants scholarships to students according to the regulations in order to allow them to continue their studies to the limit of their aptitude.

XXIX. All educational establishments should employ qualified instructors or specialists suited to the grades and subjects they teach.

XXX. The State is entitled to supervise and inspect educational establishments.
Appendix V:

A. Class Hours per Week, Academic Stream (M.S. I-III)

<table>
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<th>Subject</th>
<th>Class Hours per Week</th>
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<td>Mathematics</td>
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<td>Practical Arts</td>
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Total 30

Class Hours per Week, Vocational Stream (M.S. I-III)

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Note:

1. Science Course

Each student is to take courses in 4 of the following 5 subjects: Mechanics; Heat, Light and Sound; Electricity and Magnetism; Chemistry; Biology.

2. Arts Course

Subjects marked with "±" can be interchanged.

3. General Course

a. A student may select as many as 12 hours per week for elective subjects. In place of General Science, the student who takes vocational subjects may study any two of the five courses in Science (Mechanics; Heat, Light and Sound; Electricity and Magnetism; Chemistry; Biology).

b. Any school which offers the general courses may ask for permission from the Ministry of Education to teach vocational subjects in place of one or more elective academic subjects.
## C. Class Hours per Week, Vocational Stream (M.S. IV-VI)

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