



CASE STUDY

School-Based Educational Administration and Leadership: *Theories and Case studies*

Yan Ye



Stamford International University of Thailand



**School-Based Educational
Administration and Leadership:
Theories and Case studies**

**(PED702 Educational Administration &
Leadership)**

Asst. Prof. Dr. Yan Ye

December, 2025

**Graduate School
Stamford International University of Thailand**



**GLOBAL
ACADEMY**

Published by: Global Academy Publishing House

ISBN Number: 978-625-6276-69-7

Publishing Date: December 20, 2025

All rights of this book belong to Yan Ye and Global Academy Publishing House. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored, retrieved system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, without the written permission of the Global Academy Publishing House. Any person who does any unauthorized act in relation to this publication may be liable for criminal prosecution and civil claims for damages. All texts published in this book have been double blind peer reviewed.

©Copyright December, 2025

Certificate No: 64419

Adress: Konutkent 2955. St. Oyak 1 Number: 8/6 Cankaya / Ankara / TÜRKİYE The individual essays remain the intellectual properties of the contributors.

e-mail: globalyayinlari@gmail.com

<https://www.globalacademy.com.tr/>



**GLOBAL
ACADEMY**

Chapter 1

Educational Administration Theories

This chapter introduces the main administrative theories on education management. Educational Administrators and leaders in schools focused on the goals of cultivating the younger generation to have higher achievement through effective and efficient management behaviors with the available inputs and resources. Administrative theories in education management originate from the real school-based management practices of administrators, which are concerned with the utilization of adequate resources into the school environment, in order to better facilitate the process of teaching and learning, as well as to promote the learning achievements. These theories are always focusing on the management of school-based issues, such as the human relationships, the school climate, vision and mission, and human resources management and so on.

FUNCTIONS

Education administration and leadership are characterized by planning, organization, motivation, direction, control, coordination, decision-making, and reporting. These are a series of specialized educational activities that are conducted by school administrators within a specific educational program. They have educational purposes and are for Educational organizations in an environment of dynamic change. The process of continuous improvements thrives when stakeholders are geared toward constant monitoring, problem identification, and research. To ensure efficiency, Educational Administration has to perform three jobs. These jobs include: Stating the purpose, Mission for education and Mission for institutions. Educational Administration is concerned with the optimal functioning and development of the institution through the development of the human personality (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2013).

BASIC THEORIES

Basic administrative theories in this chapter are introduced according to the historical framework of each theory, which contains the following: Classical

organizational theory, which includes scientific management theory and administrative management theory, critical educational administration theory, the human relations approach, the behavioral science approach and the last is post-behavioral Science era (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2013).

Classical Organizational Theories

Scientific management theory

This theory focused on the management of workers and work. In its simplest form the theory is based on the idea that the best way to perform a task is to use the scientific method. According to him, if a job is managed scientifically, it will increase productivity by increasing the efficiency and wages of employees. Scientific management, in terms of time study standard, separation of administrative duties and employee duties, and incentive systems will correct the performance of workers.

This theory is characterized by its ability to determine the best way to perform each task.

- It selects its employees using scientific selection procedures.
- It believes in a close relationship between management and employees.
- It uses divisions of labor.
- It tries for maximum output by fixing performance standard for each job, and by having a different piece rate system for payment of wages for each job.

This theory is based upon certain principles. Taylor (1911), had earlier given four principles for scientific managerial management:

- Scientific Job Analysis: The job should be analyzed by observation, data collection, careful measurement, and management. This new method of job analysis will replace old rule-of thumb methods.
- Selection of Personnel : After analyzing the job, the next step involves selecting, training, teaching and producing workers in a scientific manner. Workers used to choose their own jobs and train themselves.
- Management Cooperation: Managers must work with workers to ensure all work is done in accordance with the principles of Science, i.e. Scientific method.
- Functional Supervision: Managers take on the planning, organizing and decision-making tasks, while workers do their jobs. In the past, workers were responsible for almost all the work and most of the responsibilities.

Taylor (1911), in addition to the principles above, has also provided two other Principles of Scientific Management.

- Taylor introduced time-and motion studies to fix standards of performance. He set performance standards for quality and time cost to bring uniformity to the work. The efficiency of workers was compared as a result.
- Differential piece rate system: In differential piece rate, an output standard is first fixed. Taylor found that workers were doing as little work as they could. He believed that an efficient worker would not gain anything extra under the existing wage system. Then, two wage rates were set.

Administrative Management Theory

Administrative management theory focuses on the administration of an entire organization, while scientific management focuses on the jobs of individual employees. This theory is concerned with the structure and management of an organization. The administrative management theory acknowledged the importance of these elements.

Gulick (1937), coined the term POSDCORB to describe seven functions of management. These functions include planning, organizing staffing, directing coordinating reporting and budgeting.

- Planning: This involves defining the tasks to be performed and determining the best way to accomplish them.
- Organizing: It establishes a formal structure by which work divisions can be arranged and coordinated in order to implement the plan.
- Staffing: It involves the functions of selecting and training staff, maintaining favorable and congenial circumstances for the enhancement of professional effectiveness of staff.
- Directing: includes the continuous task of making decisions, communicating them and implementing them.
- Coordinating: includes all the efforts needed to bind an organization together to achieve a shared goal.
- Reporting: includes verification of progress via records, research, and inspection. It ensures that everything happens according to the plan.
- Budgeting: includes all activities that are associated with budgeting, such as fiscal planning, accounting, and control.

Critical Educational Administration Theory

This theory assumes that both objective and subjective knowledge exists of an objective, unordered reality. It incorporates both the subjective and objective perspectives. This theory proposes the existence of objective and subjective knowledge of truth. The view is that reality is in a constant change. The critical theorist does not seek laws because of this constant change. Critical educational administration theory is a way for school leaders to understand and disentangle themselves with the external and inner forces that impose on educational practice. Hoy, in 1996, clarified that "Critical Theory attempts to raise people's consciousness about their working and living conditions through logic and debate but, in the process, it relies on generation and analysis ideologies". The critical theorists explain the values and practices in schools that maintain the school's ideological perspective. The social values of the schooling process are displayed in topics such as curriculum, student issues and teaching.

Human Relations Approach

Hawthorne Studies, a series studies that influenced administrative theory, are credited with the beginning of the human relations approach. They concluded that democratic groups in which members actively participate are more productive both in terms of human satisfaction and achievement than authoritarian groups. Jacob Moreno's writings made a significant contribution to the human relationship's movement. Like Lewin Moreno was also interested in interpersonal relationships within groups. He developed a technique called sociometric, which he used to measure the performance of groups. In cases where people have selective affinity for others, groups made up of people with similar affective preferences will perform better than those without such preferences. In a similar way, the human relations approach made the relationships between employees and their supervisors the most important aspect of management. It promotes the training of people with behavioral sciences such as clinical and socio-psychology to emphasize building collaborative, cooperative relationships between supervisors. Employee motivation and leadership style are two key aspects of the human relations approach. Human relations approach is based on the following assumptions.:

- Employees are motivated both by economic incentives and by psychological and social needs.
- These needs are more important than the physical conditions in the workplace for determining morale and productivity. This includes but is not limited to belongingness, recognition and security.
- A person's perceptions and beliefs, motivations, cognitions, responses

to frustration, value, and similar factors can affect their behavior in the workplace.

- People in all type's organizations tend to form informal social groups that work alongside the formal organization, and can either help or hinder management.
- Informal social networks within the workplace establish and enforce their own codes of conduct and norms. Teamwork, conflict between groups and group loyalty, communication patterns and emergent leaders are all important concepts that determine individual and group behavior.
- Employees are more motivated and productive when they receive support from their managers.
- Communication, power and influence, motivation, authority, and manipulation are important relationships within an organisation. This approach used both field study methods and laboratory experiments to study the workplace and understand employee behavior.

Behavioral Science Approach

Behavioral scientists believed that both the classical rational-economic and the human relations social models were incomplete representations of employees at work. Barnard (1938), one of the earliest authors to adopt the behavioral science approach, was one of the pioneers. He is most famous for his cooperative system, which integrates human relations and classic management principles into a single framework. Barnard stressed two conditions for financial and cooperative success. First, the executive should emphasize the importance that effectiveness has in achieving the common goal of the organization. Second, the executive should be aware of the importance of efficiency, which is the satisfaction "individual motives" for employees. According to him, an organization cannot survive and operate unless both the goals of the organization and those working for it remain in balance. It means that managers must possess both the human and technical skills required for goal attainment.

In the year 1970, Maslow (1970) advanced a theory of human motivation that was later adopted by many managers. Theory of Maslow was based on motivation and he considered three viewpoints:

- Human beings have needs that are never completely satisfied.
- Human action is aimed at fulfilling the needs that are unsatisfied.
- These needs can be classified in a hierarchy from the lowest to highest.

These needs are:

- Physiological
- Safety
- Social belonging
- Esteem needs
- Self-actualization

Later on, McGregor (1967) brought a new perspective to management and challenged managers to think of subordinates as responsible, capable, and creative. He developed 2 theories: theory X and theory Y

The theory X managers tend to be autocratic and control-oriented. They are also distrustful. Theory Y managers, on the other hand, view subordinates as individuals who are optimistic and want to be challenged in their work environments. They also prefer self-control, and they can make independent judgments. The Theory X and Theory Y made assumptions.

Theory X Assumptions

- The average person dislikes work and will avoid doing it if possible.
- Most people are unwilling to work and must be forced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment in order to make them put in the effort necessary for the achievement of the goals.
- The average person prefers to be directed. They want to avoid responsibility and have little ambition. They also want security.

Theory Y Assumptions:

- The average person does not dislike work.
- Self-direction and self-control are essential for people to achieve their goals.
- The reward that is associated with achieving an objective influences the commitment to it.
- In the right conditions, the average person learns to accept and seek responsibility.
- The ability to use a high level of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solving organizational problems is not a rare trait.
- The intellectual potentialities of average humans are only partially used in the modern industrial world.

Post-behavioral Science Era

In the view of Murphy (2002), three interrelated concepts—that are school improvement, democratic community and social justice form the development of the next era of the profession—that is the post-behavioral science era. The behavioral science approach influenced the preparation and practice of school administrators.

School Improvement: State policies are centered on accountability for school improvement. The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 imposes strict accountability standards on schools, school districts and states. It also includes new state testing requirements aimed at improving education. Clarifying the purpose of school improvement is essential. The school district, its administrators and teachers are responsible for the student's learning. What teachers teach and what students learn are open to public scrutiny and can be directly measured.

Encouraging collective learning: Setting state standards should be the collective mission of both the school and district. It does not mean it should be a one-man show.

Aligning with state standards: State-run tests should be aligned with their standards. Providing Support: To ensure that all students achieve high standards, it is important to provide teachers with training, teaching materials and support.

Democratic Community: It is based upon the free flow of ideas, which allows people to be as informed as possible. It involves using critical reflection and analytical analysis to evaluate ideas and problems. Individuals are expected to engage in open inquiry and collective decisions in the interests of the common good. Social Justice: It's the core of democracy, where every citizen is treated equally on all levels, including social, economic, political and educational. Social justice is related to excellence and equity.

The development of administrative thinking can be categorized into four loose historical frameworks: the classical organizational theory; the human relations approach; the behavioral science approach; and the post-behavioral era. The classical "rational model" evolved around ideas of scientific and managerial management. The "social" human relations model includes the analysis and experimentation of the social and psychology aspects of people at work and the study of groups behavior. The behavioral science approach was a way to reconcile the disagreement between the rational economic model and the social models. In the more recent post-behavioral science era, there are concepts such as school improvement, democratic communities, and social justice.

CASE STUDY 1

The School:

It is a small international school located at Bangkok, Thailand, there are students coming from different countries. Among them, about 50 percent of students are from Asian countries, such as Korea, China, Singapore and Japan; 20 percent of them are from western countries, such as Australia, America and England, and the rest are Thai. The school is not very big, the education it offers only from Kindergarten to Primary school level. The Principal of this small international school, Mr. John currently has one difficulty.

The Case:

The difficulty is concerned with the Mid-year and Final-term for the Students' Assessment. Since the students are from different countries, their parents have different beliefs in terms of the younger children's assessment. Parents coming from Korea, China, Singapore and Japan, they always have very higher expectation on their students; and they are very demanding, also wishing they kids can achieve the best scores in the class, as they regard any test as a kind of competition. Thus, they always would like to know what kind of school assessment will be, so that they could be able to supervise their children to work, or even help them prepare for the tests, in order to assist their children to get good scores in the assessment.

However, the other western parents, they have different educational philosophy and beliefs in terms of early childhood and primary school education. They don't think the primary school students need to do very hard tests, and they usually won't help their children prepare or keep an eye on their study. As for the Thai parents are depending on the individual; some are the same with the demanding Asian parents, and some are with the Westerners.

So now the difficulty comes to the school principal, if he asks the subject teachers make an assessment as expected by the Asian parents, the others

parents will complain, because their kids can't get very high scores, and the same happens if the assessment is quite easy, the Asian parents will say this kind of assessment doesn't test students real level. So, he feels very hard to meet all parents' satisfaction, especially in Student Assessment time, but since his school is a small school, he doesn't want to lose any parents in Principal.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Administrative Management Theory*
2. *Human Relation Approach*
3. *Authentic Assessment*
4. *Standard for Curriculum Design*
5. *Parent Involvement and Education*
6. *Changing Values and Beliefs*
7. *Intercultural Leadership*
8. *School Climate and Learning Environment*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are Principal, Mr. John, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your action plan for this issue, including for the current state and future state.

2. Based on evidence provided in the case, describe the roots of the related issues that take place in this small international school at Bangkok, Thailand.

Questions for reflection:

1. According to your understanding about Human relations, or

Behavioral Science approach, why and how this problem can happen? Can the school avoid this? Why or why not?

2. To solve this problem, what are your suggestions for the school Principal? And what kind of solution that you can recommend the Principal to take for this situation?

3. What actions could Principal John can take to cultivate the parents' educational beliefs? How about the parental involvement?

4. What should the Principal explain to the parents, if the complaints still happen?

5. What the school should require the teachers to do or train the teachers to do for this issue?

Chapter 2

Organizational Structure and Culture Theories

This chapter describes the main theories on organizational structure and culture in relation to the school situation. It is generally agreed that at least three variables influence the behavior of organizations. The three levels are organizational, such as culture, structure, and strategy; group, or interpersonal, such as group dynamics and the process of leading, and other dynamics related to human relations, such as conflict, power, and negotiation.

At the individual level of analysis, intrapersonal variables such as perception, attitudes, personality, learning and ability, job satisfaction and motivation (Robbins, 2008) are relevant. The organizational structure refers to the specialization of members of a project team, furthermore, the rapid growth of an organization calls for the formulation of a structure as pointed by Meredith and Mantel (2009:175). The organizational structure has a direct impact on the behavior of employees and hence performance of the organization (Brooks, 1997:190). The organizational culture as an analytical strategy, also plays an important role in achieving a presentable environment and standard (Brooks, 1997:260).

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Organization structure is a formal term, although it is easily represented by organization charts. It refers to the official or formal way that the work or tasks of the organization are divided, grouped and controlled as well as the designated linkages between the tasks of individuals and groups, all designed to achieve the organization's objectives (Robbins, 2008). Another formal definition is "the configuration of hierarchical levels and specialized units and positions within an organization, and the formal rules governing these arrangements" (Rainey 2003:183).

In the public sector, 'architecture' is a term that may be more familiar than structure. As an example, newly-elected officials often change the "architecture" or machinery of government. We have seen this happen with the election and Rudd government. Structure changes occur when sections are moved from one agency to another, and so on. The Rudd government initiated many changes in department

structure. Administrative orders create or abolish departments, and changes in central and other agencies reflect the government's priorities, or even the personal philosophy or beliefs of prime ministers or premiers (Althaus Bridgman & Davis 2007). Further, initiatives like customer focus are also a part of government reorganization and require a 'considerable shift in the understanding of the nature of public sector work (Anderson Griffin & Teicher, 2002:9).

Elements of Organization Structure

Recent literature searches revealed few references to organization structure. This suggests that either the elements have not changed over the years, or that academics and theory have focused their attention on other aspects of organizations that are more important. The structure of an organization is made up of a number of dimensions and elements. Combining the elements of structure in different ways can produce a variety of organizational designs, ranging from mechanistic and organic. The complexity of an organization structure is determined by the number of sections or subunits combined with the number and level of hierarchy, as well as the degree of specialization (Rainey, 2003).

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Culture is the second key element that defines and describes organizations. Culture is intangible, informal, unofficial and more difficult to control than structure. It cannot be mapped out on a chart of organization. It has a strong influence on the behavior of individuals. Humans, for example, want to value and believe in something better. They also want a higher purpose.

Culture that is contrary to this is draining (Grazier, 2005:4). In recent years, culture has been given more attention as organizations have gradually realized that changing culture is more important (and difficult) than changing the structure. It is easy to change the organization chart, but it's difficult to change the hearts, mind and values of the people who fit into it. Culture is an important topic because it has a huge impact on many aspects of organizational life, including the success or failure of change initiatives.

According to Jacques, (1952:251) culture is the traditional thought process used to perform work. Kanter (1983), proposes two types of organizational culture, the segmentalize and the integrative. Jacques (1952), identifies an organizational culture's customs, attitudes and behaviors, beliefs, morals, values and norms. These

include dress codes, communication standards, hierarchy, religious beliefs, and moral standards. These elements are designed to create a comfortable work environment for employees, fostering a sense self-respect. Brooks (1997:262-272), proposes stories and rituals as the key components to culture. These elements support existing as well as established operational patterns. Wilson (1992:78), suggests that language and the interpretation of symbols can also impact culture.

Elements of Organization Culture

Routines, rituals and systems are operational procedures that have been adopted over time by employees of an organisation and which they feel comfortable using. These systems allow the organization to achieve its goals in the most efficient way possible. Rituals are social gatherings and organizational events that are held to celebrate an event, reward the best performing employee, or go on an outing. It could be dinner or an adventure. These events not only strengthen bonds between employees, but also develop loyalty to the company.

SCHOOL CULTURE

School culture is a complex and important concept in education. It has been neglected in relation to school improvement. Schein (1985, p. 87) defines the essence of a company's culture as "the deeper level assumptions and beliefs shared by all members, that operate unconsciously and define an organization's basic 'taken for granted' view of itself and its surroundings". This is the essence of school culture and why it's so difficult to understand and change.

Culture is a way of describing how things are. It acts as a screen, or lens, through which the world can be viewed. It is a way of defining reality for people within a social group, giving them support and identity, and creating a framework for occupational education. Each school has its own reality or mindset about school life. This is often captured by the simple phrase, "the way we do it around here" (Deal & Kennedy 1983: 140). It also has a unique mindset in relation to its external environment. Culture is, therefore, "situationally-unique" (Beare, Caldwell, & Millikan, 1988), as can be seen by the example of two ostensibly identical primary schools, located within the same area, and attracting the same population, both with the same number pupils. The two schools have very different views of the pupils, their work, and the external constraints they faced. The culture of a school is shaped by the history, context, and people who work there.

The age of the school can have an impact on cultural change. Schein (1985), identifies three important developmental phases in the life of a business organisation. Schools can be compared. In the early years of a school, its "founders", or leaders, will set its dominant values and the school will make its culture explicit. It clarifies values, finds a unique identity, and shares it with newcomers - whether they are teachers, students, or parents. Culture is "glue" which holds everyone together and can be viewed as a positive force for development. The school has a good foundation, but it needs to grow and renew itself. It is possible that the school's external and internal contexts have changed, affecting its strengths and weaknesses. The most important elements of culture are now embedded in the culture and are taken for granted. Culture is becoming more implicit. Subcultures are also on the rise. Change is more difficult to achieve because there is less awareness of culture. It's also harder to articulate or understand. From a cultural change perspective, the most problematic is maturity and/or stagnation or decline. This stage is reached when the school has stopped growing and responding to its surroundings. The school has become dysfunctional and the challenge of old assumptions is not welcomed (Fink, 1998).

The external context of a school influences its culture. Locally, the school community, including parents of pupils, may have its own conceptions about what a "real" school is. Influences include political and economic forces, or changes to national or local education policies. For example, focusing on the external assessment system at primary level only on core subjects influences what is valued within schools. Teaching unions can also have an impact on school culture, and thus its orientation towards improvement.

School cultures vary between primary and secondary schools. In primary schools' care and control influence their culture when pupils leave primary schools there is a feeling that they have left a family (Rudduck, Chaplain, & Wallace, 1996). In contrast, secondary school culture is influenced not only by larger size and department structures, but by the very fundamental nature of teachers' academic orientation¹³—the difference between being, for example, an art teacher and a science teacher—and the fragmented individualism that pupils experience in moving from one subject and teacher to another (Hargreaves, 1996).

The social class of the students and the school culture are influenced by each other. Thrupp (1997) argues the social mix in the school has a major impact on how it functions. This is largely due to the cumulative effect that occurs when pupils interact with each other. The pupils who attend the school's flavor it in their own way. This is especially important when the students reach adolescence, and their

values and identities are changing.

The rapid technological advances, changing roles of women, or changes in the learning environment can all pose challenges to the culture of a school. While culture can change as participants change, this can also be a stabilizing factor, especially for those who have been a part of it for a long time. It can be a problem for those who are looking for quick fixes because it appears to be an immovable force. Culture is paradoxically both static and dynamic, (Rossman Corbett & Firestone 1988), but in reality, it is constantly evolving (Hopkins, Ainscow, & West, 1994) and being reconstructed (Angus, 1996).

Culture can come in many forms. This paper focuses on school culture as a holistic concept. There are several types of cultures within this concept: pupil culture (or teacher culture), leadership culture (or non-teaching staff) culture, parent culture. In relation to school improvement, teacher cultures have received the most attention. Andy Hargreaves (1994) highlights four existing teaching culture (see Panel 1).

Panel 1. Four Teaching Cultures

- Individualism - classrooms as "egg crates" or castles. Blame and support are avoided, and instead, autonomy, isolation and isolation prevail.
- Collaboration - Teachers choose to work together spontaneously and voluntarily without external control agenda. The forms include "comfortable activities" - sharing ideas and materials - and rigorous forms such as mutual observation and focused reflection enquiry.
- Contrived Collegiality - Teachers' collaborative working relationships must be imposed by law, with specific times and places for collaboration. For example, planning meetings are held during preparation time.
- Balkanization - Teachers are not isolated and do not work as a school. In secondary schools, smaller collaborative groups are formed, such as between junior and infant teachers, class teachers and resource support staff.

Stoll and Fink (1996) stated that norms are interconnected, feed off one another, and are often unspoken. Catchphrases articulate the core messages. They are not just a snapshot of a successful school. They are based on the fundamentals of how people value and relate to each other. Norms influence how people react to internal or externally imposed or proposed improvements. It is important that those who

work in schools, and those who support them, understand their norms, because the acceptance of improvement projects depends on the fit between norms embedded in changes and those in the school's culture. Stoll and Fink identified cultural norms which influence school improvement. (See summary in Panel 2).

Panel 2 Norms of Improving Schools

- Shared goals — “we know where we’re going”.
- Responsibility for success — “we must succeed”.
- Collegiality — “we’re working on this together”.
- Continuous improvement — “we can get better”.
- Lifelong learning — “learning is for everyone”.
- Risk taking — “we learn by trying something new”.
- Support — “there’s always someone there to help”.
- Mutual respect — “everyone has something to offer”.
- Openness — “we can discuss our differences”.
- Celebration and humor — “we feel good about ourselves”.

CASE STUDY 2

The School:

A small international School in Thailand, which is similar to the case study 1. The students are coming from different countries, but study at the kindergarten and primary level at this international school of Bangkok, Thailand. About 50% students' parents are from Korea, China, Singapore, Philippines and Japan, also 20% of them are from western countries such as Australia, America and England, and the rest are Thai.

The school offers education only for Nursery to Y6. Right now, Nursery class has 12 students, Prep class has 10 students, kindergarten has 10 students, Y1 has 8 students, Y2 has 4 students, Y3 has 4 students, Y4 has 5 students, Y5 has 6 students, and Y6 has 3 students.

The school has 2 English teachers, 1 Chinese teacher, 4 Thai teachers, 6 Philippines teachers, 2 office staff, 1 librarian, 1 driver, 4-5 maids, 1 school manager and principal- Mr. John.

The Case:

There are some phenomena as Mr. John found out in the course of school administration and management work, including as the following issues:

1. Usually the school principal will be in the school every day, but sometimes, Mr. John need to go out for meeting or some important event, then in the time that John is outside, some teachers will not teach as he is in the school, maybe just let the kids watch some film or ask them to go to library do whatever reading. They just do a kind of relaxing.
2. The staff complains the school foods are too little and not delicious, so many of them would like to go to eat outside, but then sometimes they're coming back late, or during lunch time, they won't have enough teachers to keep an eye on the kids.
3. In the past, the school usually gave staff only 2 personal leaves for a term, and if anyone wants to take more days, the school will cut some

money from their salary, so many teachers will not inform the school principal if they have some urgent things that need to do, for example, may need to leave a half day (but they've used the 2 days personal leaves already), then they just talk with the other teachers, swap or change some class secretly, so that they won't lose money.

4. Because the school is not that big, so the previous principal always wants to save some money. So, the school always but the cheapest pen, pencils, and other stuff. And also, the teachers' salary is quite low; therefore, teacher quits every term and changes very often. As the result, the parents also just put the kids in the school for 2-4 years; they will put their children into big schools when the kids grow up a bit.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Organizational Structure*
2. *Organizational Culture (School Culture)*
3. *School Norms, Value and Routine*
4. *Interpersonal Relationship*
5. *Communication*
6. *Teachers' Satisfaction*
7. *Decision Making and Leadership*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are Principal, Mr. John, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your action plan for this issue, including for the current state and future state.

2. Based on evidence provided in the case, describe the roots of each issue that take place in this small international school at Bangkok, Thailand.

Questions:

1. Use your knowledge of School administration and the learnt theories; please explain why these phenomena could happen?

Chapter 3

Educational Motivation Theories

This chapter explores major educational theories on motivation in the school setting. Motivation is a concept that helps to explain human behavior. The motivation is what drives humans to react and fulfill their needs. Motivation can be defined as the path that leads to a behavior or as the construct which triggers someone to want to repeat a behavior (Cook & Artino, 2016, 2016). Motivation is the process of starting, guiding, and maintaining goal-oriented behavior. It is a process that encourages people to take action in order to achieve a specific goal or to meet a certain need or expectation. Motivation drives students to improve their learning and to improve their achievement. It also inspires teachers to improve their work and to improve their satisfaction at work.

MOTIVATION IN EDUCATION

Previously, there is no standard definition for motivation in education. Up to now, the motivation definition starts to refer to the behavior behind the strength (Serio, Ibáñez, and Kloos, 2013), and it is associated with physical, emotional and logical. Furthermore, it is a factor which leads to behavior and determine the directions, the force and insistence of it (Sevinc, Ozmen, and Yigit, 2011).

Based on several researchers, motivation is considered as the reason underlying behavior (Guay, Chanal, Ratelle, Marsh, Larose, and Boivin, 2010). Brophy (2004) defined motivation as a theoretical concept that is used to explain the beginning, direction, force and insistence of goal-oriented behavior.

Motivation is an attribute that instigate movements, an energy, direction, the reason for our behavior and “what” and “why” we do something, as others believe (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Broussard & Garrison, 2004; Ainley & Ainley, 2011). The working definition of motivation is a persuasive feeling that always provides positivism to students to accomplish a task or activity to the end and succeed in it no matter how hard and tough it is. Motivation is a kind of feeling that always finds ways to go down and cultivate anxiety and tension in human mind and thoughts indeed, with the positive motivation; we can revive the positivism energy and apply it in performing tasks (Cook and Artino, 2016). Apart from that, individual with

self-motivation always can find a motive and intensity without expecting external encouragements to complete a task even though the task is challenging (Ross, Perkins, and Bodey, 2016).

THEORIES OF LEARNING MOTIVATION

There are many motivation theories, for example the instinct theory, which is the root of all motivation and motivation is survival. The theory states that genetic or biological programming is the cause of motivation and all humans share the same motivation because we all share the same biological programming (Cherry 2016). The incentive theory is one of the major theories. This theory illustrates a desire to motivate behaviors to enrichment or incentives. The arousal model also shows the maximum level or eagerness. People with high levels of arousal are more likely to engage in high-energy behaviors such as bungee jump, scuba dive, etc. While the rest of us feel content with less exciting and safer activities. The theory describes the ability to do whatever needs to be done without being influenced by others or circumstances).

Basically, motivation can be categorized as intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Moreover, there are several theories that could be implemented, especially in the education domain. They are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000), self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan and Deci, 2000), the ARCS model (Keller, 1987), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1989) and expectancy theory (Van Eerde, and Thierry, 1996). These theories are able to stand alone to contribute to the outcome in the learning process without being dependent on any other theories in the education domain.

THEORIES FOR TEACHERS' MOTIVATION

Maslow's Hierarchy of Need for Motivation

Maslow (1970), developed a theory that starts with low-level needs and must be met before higher-level needs to follow the hierarchy model in the organization. There is no evidence that supports this, but the existence of five steps will likely operate in a more flexible manner than a strict step-by-step unless the lower needs (physiological and safety) are essentially satisfied. Motivations create job satisfaction, which includes autonomy, recognition, and achievement when they are met. He also identified the hygiene factors that will increase dissatisfaction if they are not met. Motivators are factors that provide a sense of job satisfaction. These factors affect the way of working in a company. For example, giving

someone the responsibility to carry out a large task within an organisation and providing them with the necessary conditions leads to growth and advancement.

Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Herzbergs' Two Factors Theories)

Herzberg (1959), developed the theories based on existing theories such as Maslow's Need for Hierarchy, and Alderfer Existence Relatedness Theory. The Motivation-Hygiene Theory has been well received and accepted at the workplace. The theory was able differentiate between factors that satisfied employees and factors that dissatisfied them. Herzberg's research was based on the accountants and engineers employed in different companies. He concluded that managers should ensure the adequacy and set up the hygiene factors for the employees to avoid dissatisfaction).

Motivators are the factors that create job satisfaction by satisfying an individual's need for psychological growth. These factors include achievement, recognition, personal growth, responsibility, work itself, and all other intrinsic factors. These factors are what motivated employees to high levels of work performance, which is a measure of job satisfaction. According to Herzberg, these factors lead to positive satisfaction.

Motivation can be a desire or a behavior that drives a person towards achieving his/her goals. It can also be something inside or outside of the person that motivates behavior. Maslow (1970), suggested that some needs are more important than others. Physiological needs such as thirst, hunger, and breathing come before psychological needs like achievement, self-esteem and the need for recognition. It cannot deny the importance of all types of motivation, especially for increasing optimum levels of arousal and not to eliminate them. Every leader wants to lead a team that is engaged, productive, and satisfied.

These factors are also known as dissatisfiers, or hygiene factors. They are related to the surrounding environment, are adequate/reasonable for a job and do not cause employees to be dissatisfied. These factors are external to the workplace. For example, salary and working conditions, relationship, policy, administration, and security.

CASE STUDY 3

The School:

A small international primary school in Thailand, whose principal is Mr. John, now opens after-class extra curriculum activities including Chinese language class, Spanish language class. The teacher who is hired to teach these classes are part-time teachers, and their payment rate is different, as Chinese teachers are easier to be found in Thailand, but Spanish teachers are a bit harder to be found as the number of Chinese teachers are more than Spanish teachers. The Chinese teacher receives 400Baht/hour, while Spanish teacher receives 500Baht/hour for their teaching.

Most parents feel that Chinese has become as important as the English language at present. This is because China is fast becoming an economic powerhouse rivaling the US and Europe, and it's the biggest market particularly for Thai people. Many Thai parents wish their children can learn Chinese well, so that in the future the younger generation may help them in their family business, thus, many parents decide to let their children to study Chinese. Thus, the Chinese teacher got a lot of kids in the class, Spanish teacher got a few kids only.

The Case:

As a result, the Chinese class is a bit crowded and the Spanish class is not. The Chinese teacher has to teach kids three times more than the Spanish teacher, but they receive different payment. As there are some Chinese language tests such as YCT or HSK test in Thailand, the school principal also hopes the Chinese teacher can teach the Chinese language and guide the students more in the way to pass the YCT or HSK test. While, the Spanish class teacher teaches more in her own way. So, the consequence is, kids feel the Chinese class is tired and not fun, Spanish class seems simple and fun. Moreover, the kids are young, they don't understand why their parents want them to study Chinese, for them, it is not easy, crowded and a bit boring since they are trained to pass the tests. For the Chinese teacher, he has to teach more kids, do more classroom management and guide the

kids for YCT test, but at the end of month, he receives almost the same as the Spanish teacher, or sometimes even less pay, thus, the Chinese teacher quits often, but the school seems “don’t care”, as they can always find new Chinese teacher to replace and the situation may be continued.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Motivation for Students’ Learning*
2. *Motivation for Teachers’ Work*
3. *School Extra-Curriculum Management*
4. *Teaching Styles*
5. *Communication*
6. *School Planning for Budget and Finance*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are Principal, Mr. John, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your action plan for this issue, including for the current state and future state.

2. Based on evidence provided in the case, describe the roots of each issue that take place in this small international school at Bangkok, Thailand.

Questions:

1. Based on what we learnt from theories of Education administration, please analyze why this could happen, and what’re the contradictions in this case, is there anything wrong in term of the school administration

towards the extra curriculum activities?

2. To solve this problem, what are your suggestions for the school Principal?

3. Please consider your suggestions based on the Education Administration and motivation theories, including the following three parts

:

(1) How to improve the Chinese teacher's motivation?

(2) How to improve the students' motivation of learning Chinese language?

(3) How to improve the students' motivation of taking extra-curriculum activities, or in other words, how to make or design the extra curriculum classes well in this school?

Chapter 4

Educational Leadership Theories

This chapter examines the major theories of educational leadership in a school setting. In an administrative setting the educational leader is someone who guides and influences other educators. In some cases, it could be a team of educational leaders. These executive leaders are responsible for improving student learning and education in different educational institutions. These leaders are employed either as the sole educational leader or in small groups.

The principles of management in business are the basis of educational leadership theories. In the United States and other developed nations, leadership models from the business world were adapted to educational settings. As schools and communities continue to change and grow, theories about educational leaders' roles and functions have also been reformed.

Researchers continue to study the leadership in different educational settings (Northouse, 2007). There is no superior style of leadership. Each style is more or lesser efficient depending on the context where the leader works. The most appropriate style of leadership is determined by factors such as school culture, size, staff, and personalities.

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Scholars have challenged the literature on leadership theories relating to educational leadership. The contributions on leadership styles in education are a great starting point for a more detailed examination of theories of educational leadership. It is important that students, aspiring teachers, practitioners, and academics interested in the field understand how theories are developed, expressed, and sometimes contested. The following sections will introduce popular educational theories for school-based leadership.

THE POPULAR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES IN SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT

Administrative Leadership

Administrative leadership is a leadership theory that focuses on administrative policies, bureaucracy, and accountability as well as school procedures. (Margaret Lay Dopyera John Dopyera, 1985). These leaders, unlike those who are transformational, are more concerned with following rules and maintaining order than they are with building personal relationships. It's all about orchestrating tasks and mobilizing people to build and sustain an early childhood organization. Successful administrative leaders are able to establish systems that protect and sustain essential operational functions required to meet the needs of children and families. There are at least two important aspects of administrative leadership--operational leadership and strategic leadership. Operational leadership includes activities such as hiring, supporting, and monitoring staff, budget monitoring, and maintaining a positive workplace climate. Strategic leadership is about leading an early childhood organization to the right direction. Strategic leaders clarify their goals, inspire others to follow a common vision and ensure that outcomes are achieved. (Mary & Margaret 2016).

Situational Leadership

Situational Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) is one of the two-factor theories that are related. These two-factor theories state that leadership styles are a combination of two main variables, task behavior and relational behavior. These two concepts are described in a variety of ways, including initiating structure or direction with task behavior and consideration or social-emotional support with relationship behavior. The situational leadership model's fundamental principle is that there is not one "best" leadership style. Effective leadership is task-relevant. The most successful leaders are those that adapt their leadership style according to the performance readiness of the individual or group to be led or influenced. Effective leadership depends not only on the person or group being influenced but also on the task, function, or job that needs to be completed.

Instructional Leadership

Hallinger & Heck (2000) developed the instructional leadership theory. They believe that instructional educational leader are concerned with improving the curriculum, monitoring student behavior in the classroom, evaluating test scores, improving teachers' work and closely supervising the school academic progress goals. These leaders work closely together with teachers to identify areas that require improvement and to develop classroom standards for student behavior and academic standing. This type of leadership is used in schools with behavioral issues or academic problems. Marsh (1992), argued that instructional leadership develops

in three stages: 1) Getting started; 2) Doing the parts of instructional leadership; and 3) Understanding the entire instructional leadership. In the first phase, principals learn to take on the role of site administrator. They also develop their routine management skills. They are not yet focused on instructional leadership. In the second phase, principals can improve their management skills. Principals still view management and instructional leaderships in isolation at this stage. They have a fragmented knowledge of instructional leadership. In the third phase, principals have a full understanding of the relationship between management and instructional leaders. They can now integrate management and instructional leaders, activities and functions. They finally understand and reflect instructional leadership in an integrated view.

Servant Leadership

Greenleaf (2002) and Spears (originally published 1977) are the most comprehensive presentations of this type. A servant-leader is primarily concerned with the growth and wellbeing of individuals and the communities in which they live. The servant-leader is a leader who shares power and puts others' needs first. He helps people to develop and perform at their best. Servant leadership is the philosophy of leadership in which an individual interacts in a management capacity or with fellow employees with the goal of achieving authority, rather than power. The authority figure aims to promote the wellbeing of those around them. Servant leadership is a person who demonstrates empathy, listening, stewardship, and commitment to personal development toward others. (Greenleaf Robert and Larry, 2002).

Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership can also be called team leadership, democratic leadership, or shared leadership (Harris and Alma, 2004). In some cases, a school may have multiple leaders. In some situations, leadership isn't a position but rather an attribute that is displayed by different individuals within the organization. Distributed leadership is more about leadership practices than specific leadership roles. These leadership practices are exhibited when people in authority and subordinate positions interact. Distributed leadership involves the distribution of responsibilities amongst multiple staff members. An upper-level administrator could visit an organization periodically to provide feedback and evaluate a teacher. Other administrators may not consider this period of evaluation sufficient to develop the staff under review. They might ask a lower-level administrator evaluate the staff more frequently).

Authentic leadership

Avolio (2005) and Gardner (2005) present the concept of authentic leadership in

schools. Authentic leadership is an approach to management in which people behave in a genuine, sincere and honest way, true to their individuality. Authentic leadership advocates say that this type of leader can inspire employees to trust, loyalty, and perform well. Since at least two decades, the belief that leaders who are genuine produce good and sometimes even the best results have been documented in modern management studies. This leadership philosophy was not always identified using the term authentic leader. Leadership theorists claim that an authentic leader rejects adopting a persona that is different from their own. Authentic leaders don't think their professional self is separate from their personal or even private self. Authentic leaders are aware of themselves and their strengths and weakness.

Moral Leadership.

Moral Leadership is an entirely different type of leadership (Frick & William, 2009). Moral Leaders do not aspire to be followed; they aim to serve. Moral Leaders are more likely to develop others' abilities than to showcase their own. Moral Leadership does not depend on rank. Anyone can be a Moral leader. However, such individuals must possess a strong sense of ethics and core ideals, like justice, as well as be motivated by a higher purpose. Moral Leadership also involves specific skills and abilities. Moral Leaders are first and foremost able to manage themselves (Fehr, Ryan, Kai, and Carolyn, 2015). They know how to control their egos, and how to act with dignity and rectitude. They are visionary, and they can affect personal change. Moral leaders also have a high level of emotional intelligence, and are able to master social skills. They are able to overcome obstacles, and they are also skilled in the art of consulting. They navigate diversity, establish unity and build consensus. Moral leaders are the conscience of an organization. Moral leaders are the conscience (i.e. moral compass).

Participative Leadership

The Democratic Leadership Style, also known as participatory leadership, is a style of leadership in which all team members are involved in identifying important goals and developing strategies and procedures for achieving the goals. This view of participative leadership is that it is a style of leadership that relies on the facilitator to give orders, make assignments or simply issue commands. This type of leadership style can be used in a volunteer setting, a business setting or even at home. The ideal leadership style, according to participative leadership, is one that incorporates the input of others. Participative leaders encourage group members to contribute and participate in the decision-making process. They also help them feel important and committed. A manager who uses participatory leadership seeks to involve others in the decision-making process, rather than make all of the decisions.

This improves commitment and collaboration, leading to better decisions and a successful business (Lamb 2013).

Facilitative Leadership

The facilitative leader does away with the traditional top-down hierarchy, where all decisions are made at the highest levels. A facilitative leader takes a collective approach in making decisions, soliciting the input and opinions from others to make the best improvements. Facilitative leaders want to involve others. This is a positive trait for education because it encourages independence and innovation from teachers and other administrators. This collective decision-making method used by facilitative leaders allows the educational system to progress, because the group input helps leaders understand the needs and wants of students, classrooms, and communities (Rob, 2013).

Transactional Leadership

Also known as management theory, it focuses on the role of supervision and organization, group performance, and the exchanges between leaders and their followers. These theories base leadership around a system of rewards (Charry,2012). This is based on the idea that a leader must create structures which make it clear to followers what is expected and the consequences of not meeting those expectations (rewards or punishments). When employees succeed, they are rewarded, and when they fail, reprimanded, or punished (Charry 2012). The concept and practice of managing is often compared to managerial theory or transactional leadership. This continues to be a common component in many leadership models and organization structures.

Transformational Leadership

Bass and Bernard (1999), in their book, assert the benefits of transformative leadership. This leadership theory focuses primarily on the connections that are formed between leaders, and their followers. According to these theories, leadership is the act of engaging with others and being able "to create a connection" which results in increased morality and motivation in both leaders and followers (Leithwood Ken, Doris J. and Rosanne 2009). Relationship theories are often compared with charismatic leadership theories, in which leaders who possess certain qualities such as confidence and extroversion as well as clearly stated values are best able motivate followers (Lamb 2013). Transformational leaders inspire and motivate people by helping them see the importance of the task and the greater good. These leaders are not only focused on the group's performance, but also each individual's potential. Leaders with this style have high moral and ethical standards (Charry 2012).

Trait Theory

The trait theory is similar in some ways to the great man theory. It assumes that certain traits or qualities are inherited by people, which make them more suited for leadership. Trait theories identify certain personality or behaviour characteristics that leaders share. This theory has led many to ask, however, how we can explain people who possess these traits but are not leaders. Scholars began to question the inconsistent relationship between leadership characteristics and leadership effectiveness.

Leadership is the ability of a leader to create a united vision among followers, to set goals, to develop strategies to achieve desired accomplishments, and to motivate, encourage, and serve as an ethical and positive example to others. A good educational leader knows what to do to improve academic conditions and student experience (West Burnham, John, 2013,). Other leadership theories may be applicable in educational institutions besides those mentioned in this section. This general introduction to each leadership theory is designed only to set the scene for conceptual framing through a deeper examination of the theme. They are not in conflict with each other because they are used by different leaders to manage schools in different situations.

CASE STUDY 4

The School:

A small international primary school in Thailand, the old principal changed from a man to be a woman. Since this female principal, Ms. Ann came, the teachers and staff felt that the top management style changed a lot. Before the male principal always sits in his office, trying to solve the managerial problem, and make decision quickly based on the challenges. He always encouraged the teachers to work hard for the school to gain more customers. Meanwhile, he will guide and lead the school marketing team often in many educational exhibitions and shows. However, since Ms. Ann came, it seemed her leadership was very different to the previous male leader. According to her, she didn't think of "doing things right, but of doing right things". She didn't sit in her office always, but went to many classes, observing teaching, discussing the curriculum with the subject teachers, talking to parents and students about their expectation. And she collected data from each subject and asked every teacher set up high expectations for the kids, she checked the teachers' ability of using ICT in the class and provided suggestions for subject teacher in the assessment time.

The Case:

Compared with the previous principal, all the teachers felt the female principal focused on instruction and teaching more than administration work. Someone said, since she was a lady, she may not know too much about the importance of the marketing, recruiting, advertising work, which the last male principal usually did a lot. Someone thought she did the teach-checking and supervising work too much, especially for the curriculum and assessment parts, they wished she could let the teachers do by themselves, as they thought as for her position, she just needed to do the office work and talk to the parents.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Instructional Leadership*
2. *Female Leadership*
3. *Managerial Theories*
4. *Leadership Styles*
5. *Communication*
6. *School Climate*
7. *Teacher Professional Development*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are Principal, Ms. Ann, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your action plan for this issue, including for the current state and future state.

2. Based on evidence provided in the case, describe the roots of each issue that take place in this small international school at Bangkok, Thailand.

3. Discussed the gender influence on the leadership styles, compare the male and female school leadership in terms of school-based management on the basis of literature reviews.

Questions:

1. Based on what we learnt from theories of Education administration and

leadership, please determine the challenges that the female principal faced in this case, and analyze the factors behind.

2. What is your point of view in terms of the new principal's leadership?
 - (1) Is it really because she was a lady, so she focused too much on instruction?

 - (2) Do you agree or disagree that as a principal "think of doing right things is more important than doing things right"? What is the difference between leader and manager?

 - (3) If you were the principal, how do you do with the situation that some teachers compare you with the last principal and disagree you in terms of your leadership focus?

Chapter 5

Decision-making Theories

This chapter introduces major theories of decision-making in the school setting. Making decisions involves identifying a choice, gathering information and evaluating alternative solutions. By organizing relevant information and defining alternative solutions, a step-by-step decision-making approach can help you to make more deliberate and thoughtful decisions. This method increases your chances of choosing the best alternative.

The decision-making theory is a theory that explains how rational people should behave in the face of risk and uncertainty. It is based on a set axiom that describe how rational people behave. These axioms have been challenged both theoretically and empirically. It is important that educational organizations take decisions carefully and promptly. If they do not, it could ruin the educational organization's goal. Both taking and implementing decisions are important (Courtney 2001).

The formulation of general policies for the management of a company is called decision-making. It is important to note that while the nature and implementation may differ in both cases, the importance of the decision-making process remains the same. To summarize, decision-making is the application of rational choices for the efficient management of private and governmental educational institutions (Nitisha 2019).

STEPS OF THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

The decision-making process is a way for school managers and principals to solve problems. They do this by examining alternatives and deciding which route to take. A step-by-step process is an effective way to make informed, thoughtful decisions that will have a positive effect on your organization's goals in the short and long term. The decision-making procedure is usually divided into seven steps. Many school managers and principals use these steps without realizing, but understanding best practices can help improve the effectiveness of their decisions. Here are seven key steps in the decision-making processes (Tricia, 2017):

1. **Identify the decision.** Recognizing the problem or the opportunity and deciding how to solve it is the first step in making a good decision. Decide why this decision is important to your customers or co-workers.

2. **Gather information.** Gather information. This requires a value judgement, determining which information is relevant for the decision you are making, and how to get it. Ask yourself what information you need to make a good decision. Then, actively seek out those who can help.

3. **Identify alternatives.** Once you've figured out the problem, it's important to look at the different solutions available. You may have many options to choose from when making a decision. It is important to consider a variety of options. This will help you decide which action is best to achieve your goal.

4. **Weigh your evidence.** You'll need "to evaluate for feasibility, acceptability, and desirability", in order to determine which alternative is the best. Managers and leaders must be able weigh pros and cons and then choose the option with the best chance of success. You may find it helpful to get a second opinion from a trusted person to gain a fresh perspective on the problem.

5. **Choose between alternatives.** When you're ready to make a decision, make sure you know the risks associated with your chosen path. You can also combine different options now that you have all the information and risks.

6. **Take action.** You'll then need to create an implementation plan. This includes identifying the resources required and gaining the support of employees and stakeholders. To execute your plan successfully, you must get others on board with your decision. Be prepared to answer any questions or concerns.

7. **Review your decision.** It is important to evaluate the effectiveness of your decision. This step is often overlooked, but it's crucial. Ask yourself what went well and how you can improve next time.

VARIOUS MODELS OF DECISION-MAKING

Literature contains a variety of views and theories on decision-making. The following list of views and supporting theories and models are based on categorizations by Keen and Morton, Huber and Das and Teng. Das and Teng's list is a meta-classification. The two last items in the list, namely the naturalistic decision-making approach and the multiple perspective approach, are relatively

recent and did not appear within the categorizations mentioned.

The Rational Model

The rational manager view assumes a fully informed and rational decision-maker (an "economic man"), as described by neoclassical theory of microeconomics around the middle part of the previous century. The process of rational decision making is composed of a number steps, as described by Simon (1977):

- Intelligence: finding occasions for making a decision;
- Design: inventing, developing and analyzing possible courses of action;
- Choice: selecting a particular course of action from those available; and
- Review: assessing past choices.

During the "choice phase", methods of decision analysis are applied to assign numerical values or utilities to the alternatives. The alternative with the greatest utility (or maximum expected subjective utility) is chosen (Kreitner and Kinicki 2001).

The Model of Bounded Rationality

The "satisficing" process-oriented view is based on Simon's (1979), work on bounded reasoning, which admits that the rational manager may not always have all of the information and that optimal decisions are not always needed. Simon (1979) argues that "human rational behavior can be shaped by scissors whose blades are the task environment and the computational abilities of the actor." The scissors reduce the problem space to a smaller area where it is possible to search. The activities of searching and satisfying are the hallmarks of bounded rationality. Searching and evaluating alternatives are done sequentially. If an alternative meets certain implicitly or explicit minimum criteria, the search is ended. Identification of regularities within the task environment may make the process of searching easier. Simon's theory of bounded reason is highly regarded, but it still describes rational behavior (even if constrained). In order to avoid confusion, Huber (1981), Das and Teng (1998), and other researchers do not distinguish between perfect rationality and bounded reasoning when they classify decision-making models.

The Incrementalism View

The logical incrementalism view involves a step-by-step process of incremental actions and keeps the strategy open to adjustment. Under Lindblom's (1959)

disjointed incrementalism (“muddling through”) marginal, feasible changes are made, working from the status quo to solve existing problems rather than towards goals. Other researchers describe a process of “muddling with a purpose” (Das & Teng, 1999).

The Organizational Procedures View

The organizational procedures view aims to understand decisions in terms of the standard operating procedures that organizational subunits invoke. March (1988), a contributor to this theory, also contributed. Huber [7] calls this view the "program-model," indicating that decisions are preprogrammed into existing procedures and the routinised thoughts of the people involved. Das and Teng (1998) refer to this view as the "avoidance model" which views the decision-making process as a systemic process aimed at maintaining status quo, at the expense of innovation. Krabuanrat & Phelps (1998), on the other hand, see this view as a positive one, namely the use of codified organization experience.

The Garbage Can Model

The garbage can view is based on Cohen, March, and Olsen's (1972) work and describes decision-making as "organized anarchy". It assumes, like the political view does, a pluralist context with multiple actors and goals. The garbage can model emphasizes fragmented and chaotic decision-making within organizations, as opposed to the deliberate manipulations implied in the political view. In the garbage-can model, "a choice is an outcome or an interpretation of several independent streams within an organization" (Cohen March & Olsen 1972). The streams of participants, who are divided in their attention and move around a lot and are looking for answers to issues they may be able to solve and solutions to problems that need to be addressed, and the streams of solutions (looking to find issues and solutions to air), meet at a choice point symbolized by a garbage bin. The garbage can is removed when a decision has been made. The garbage can may be removed without all or some of its problems being solved. The decision is based on the composition of the team.

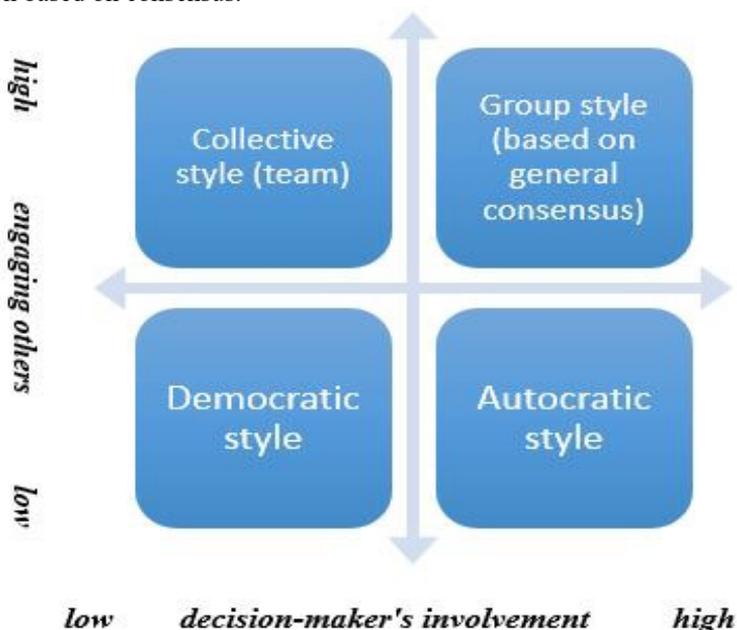
The Individual Differences Perspective

The individual differences perspective focuses on the problem solving behavior of an individual manager as influenced by their decision-making style and background. It explains how managers may use different methods or reach different conclusions due to differences in personalities. For example, apart from Keen &

Scott Morton (1978), this perspective has received little attention. This is likely because the focus elsewhere has been on group (or organizational) decision-making rather than individual decisions.

DECISION-MAKING STYLES

The decision-making style depends on how much the subordinates are involved and can "talk" in the process. We call it an autocratic or authoritative decision-making style if the decision-maker makes the decision alone and is therefore responsible for the entire decision. A democratic decision-making approach allows the decision-maker to delegate some authority, but they still make the final decision. In collective (team), the decision-making is done by the team, but the final decisions are made by the leader (decision-maker). When subordinates are included in both the preparation and decision-making processes, then it is a group decision based on consensus.



Source: *Theory of Decision-Making* (April 5, 2019). Retrieve from <https://moodle.isq.pt/mod/book/view.php?id=592&chapterid=562>

Vroom–Yetton Contingency Model

This is a situational leadership theory of industrial and organizational psychology developed by Vroom(2002), in collaboration with Yetton (1973) and

later with Jago (1988). The situational theory argues the best style of leadership is contingent to the situation. This model suggests the selection of a leadership style of groups decision-making. The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Normative Decision Model helps to answer above questions. This model identifies five different styles (ranging from autocratic to consultative to group-based decisions) on the situation and level of involvement. They are:

Autocratic Type 1 (AI)

Leader makes own decision using information that is readily available to him or her at the time, which is completely autocratic.

Autocratic Type 2 (AII)

Leader collects required information from followers, then makes decision alone. Problem or decision may or may not be informed to followers. Here, followers' involvement is just providing information.

Consultative Type 1 (CI)

Leader shares problem to relevant followers individually and seeks their ideas and suggestions and makes decision alone. Here followers do not meet each other and the leader's decision may or may not reflect his followers' influence. So, here followers' involvement is at the level of providing alternatives individually.

Consultative Type 2 (CII)

Leader shares problem to relevant followers as a group and seeks their ideas and suggestions and makes decision alone. Here followers meet each other, and through discussions they understand other alternatives. But the leader's decision may or may not reflect the followers' influence. So, here followers' involvement is at the level of helping as a group in decision-making.

Group-based Type 2 (GII)

Leader discuss problem and situation with followers as a group and seeks their ideas and suggestions through brainstorming. Leader accepts any decision and does not try to force his or her idea. Decision accepted by the group is the final one.

Common Challenges of Decision Making

There are some pitfalls you should be aware of, even though following the steps above will help make better decisions. Here are some common challenges that you may encounter, along with tips to help you avoid these.

Information overload or information deficit

When making decisions, it is important to gather relevant information. However, you should also determine how much information is needed. Relying on a single source of information may also lead to bias or misinformation. This can have devastating effects in the future.

Misidentification of the problem

In many cases, your decision's issues will be clear. There will be times where the decision is complex, and you're not sure what the main issue is. To mitigate this, conduct thorough research and speak to internal experts who have experienced the problem first-hand. You will save time and money in the end.

Overconfidence in the result

Even if you carefully follow the steps in the decision-making procedure, the outcome may not be what you expected. It's important to choose a viable option that's plausible and achievable. Overconfidence in an unlikely outcome may lead to negative results. Making decisions is an essential skill for business, especially for managers and leaders. By following a logical process, such as the one described here, and being aware of common problems, you can ensure that your decisions are thoughtful and result in positive outcomes.

CASE STUDY 5***Decision-making Cases*****Beginning of the Year**

You are Dr. Smith, and you are beginning the first day of your first year as principal of a big international School in Thailand. The school belongs to the TISA (Thailand's International School Association), which is the association for all the big and reputed international schools in Thailand. It is Monday morning, August 16, less than one week before the students return. Your faculty, all of whom were hired by your predecessor, Mr. Wells, will be coming back over the next two days to ready their rooms for the start of school and in preparation for their three days of preplanning meeting. You are about to check your email, memos, mail, and telephone messages. You have been out of town since Wednesday evening as the result for a family emergency.

Instructions

1. You will be given 20 minutes to read and take action on the in-basket items presented following the instructions. You are expected merely to describe what you would do—and what you will do firstly (identify the order for dealing with each item).
2. Each of the in-basket items requires action, which you should write a brief guidance for what action will be taken for it.

Item -1**Telephone message-While you were out**

To: Dr. Smith

From: Elsie, Secretary

Re: Lead article, Mr. Robert Sadler, Editor, Journal of Bangkok View Point Newspaper

Date: August 10

Since I knew you'd be getting in Monday morning. I scheduled your interview with my brother for Tuesday afternoon at 1.00pm. I thought it would really be a good idea to have him do an article on you as you begin your first year as our educational leader.

Item -2

To: All Administrators in the School System

From: Dr. Robert, chair of TISA

Re: weekly administrative meetings

Date: August 10

As we prepare for another fantastic year at the school, I would like all of you to circle Tuesday mornings beginning the week of Aug 16 at 8.30 for our weekly administrative sessions. I am asking Dr. Smith, the new principal at the international School, to serve as our host for our first meeting so we all get an opportunity to visit in the newly refurbished school. The remaining meeting for his month will rotate as before.

I look forward to seeing all of you on Aug 17. Please be prepared to share your career goals for the coming year.

Item -3**MEMO**

To: All building Principal
From: hazel Forney, Transportation
Re: change of bus routes
Date: August 11

*As I am sure your all know by now the new bus schedule has been mailed to each student's home and has been printed once in **the Journal of Bangkok Viewpoint**. Pretty much, the routes are the same as last year's with one exception. The first run in the afternoon leaves the Hill Top School 5 minutes earlier than last year, so we can be sure to have enough time to be back for the athletic practice run. This should not be any big deal since the School already exceeds the state minimum for education time in all of your schools by 28 minutes per week.*

If you have any questions, please give me a call or see me at the boss's meeting before pre-planning.

Item -4

To: Dr. Smith
From: Elsie, Secretary
Re: faculty room price increase
Date: August 11

The Pepsi man just told me that with the increase in the price of Pepsi, we would have to raise the price per can in the lounge from .60 to .75. This will still leave us with six cents per can profit for the slush fund. Since you were not available last week, I told him to go ahead and make the change on the machine, I hope you agree.

Item- 5

Dr. Smith,

I know you are extremely busy; however, I am just letting you know that all the principals get together for lunch every Wed at noon at Bigelow's in central Bangkok. There are no APs, central office types, or secretaries—just 6 of us. I'll stop by pick you up at 11.30 Wed morning –the first lunch is on me.

Bill

Item -6

To: Dr. Smith

From: Elsie, Secretary

Re: Speaker for preplanning meeting

Date: August 12, 3.15pm

Just got a call from Jonathan. He has been rushed to the hospital with an emergency appendectomy and will not be able to keynote on the preplanning workshop. Scheduled by Mr. Wells, on Wed morning, I didn't want to disturb your last week weekend at home before the "rat race" begins so I waited to tell you. Perhaps you could do one of those talks that the interview committee heard you give.

Item-7

Dr. Smith,

I'm sure that you have heard several stories by now about Mr. Wells and his style of leadership or lack thereof. For the past five years, I have been trying to convince him that this school is getting soft on discipline—for students as well as staff. Many of the staff members leave the school during the day to “go to the bank” or “run errands”. Meanwhile, those of us who remain behind are left with two classes to watch, phones to answer, or messages to take. As a teacher, I am not paid to take messages or answer the office phone, I'm paid to teach! My classes—one at a time!

From what we have heard about you, the behavior that existed previously will not be tolerated. Let me say, “Thanks goodness for that”. I look forward to working closely with you so that we can bring some respect back to the teaching profession and to reputation of Hill Top School.

Sincerely,

*Joseph P. Chair
Science Department.*

Key areas for reflection

1. *Decision-Making Steps and Theories*
2. *Decision-Making Styles*
3. *Managerial Theories*
4. *Leadership Styles*
5. *Communication*
6. *School Climate*
7. *Strategic Planning for School Management*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are Principal, Dr. Smith, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your general ideas of this school management that reflected from each issue.

2. Based on the information of email and memo provided in the case, describe your decision-making plan for this international school, Thailand.

Questions:

1. Based on what we learnt from theories of decision-making and leadership, please determine the information that the principal gets is adequate or not, if not what else is needed?

2. What will be your action plan based on each issue that happened in this case, what kind of follow-up decision or plan will be designed?

Chapter 6

Communication Theories

This chapter presents major theories of communication within the school environment. Communication is a process that involves both parties. Participants not only exchange information, feelings, and ideas, but also create meaning and share it to reach mutual understanding. It is the exchange of thoughts, messages or the like by speech, signals, or writing. It is the ability to communicate in a manner that is easily and clearly understood. It is the process of transmitting information from the sender and receiver using the media that is understood. Communication is the exchange of information through speech, writings, gestures, conduct, or electronic media. It is the process of exchanging information, ideas or facts between two or more people. It is a process that brings an idea to the attention of another. Communication is the process of expressing or exchanging information. It is a dynamic and complex process that allows organisms exchange information in a variety of ways (Anderson & Baym 2004).

COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication Theory is based on 8 major components. They are interdependent, and they are considered to be basic elements in any communication process. They include:

- Source - "produces an e-mail or sequence of e-mails to be sent to the receiving terminal."
- Sender - refers to the transmitter, which "operates the message in a certain way to produce a suitable signal for transmission over the channels".
- Channel - "simply the medium used to transmit a signal from transmitter to receive"
- Receiver - "performs inverse operations of those performed by the transmitter in reconstructing the message."
- Destination - is the "person (or thing), for whom the message was intended". It refers to a concept, information, communication or statement that is sent in a oral/graphic/ written/audio/visual/audio-visual form to the recipient.

- Feedback - is a loop that creates a two-way process of communication in relation to the response to a message. It is the direct or indirect reaction of the Destination to the Source.
- Context - is a very important component, as it determines the communication process and fixes the 7 components above. It is the immediate and distant environment and background. A communication is more affected by space and time. A good communication can mean different things to different people (or the same person) at different times.

COMMUNICATION THEORIES

In a field such as Communication, it is important to understand theories because they have a direct impact on our daily lives. (Littlejohn 2002). Communication theories have two functions. They help us understand and organize our communication experiences. They also help us to choose which communicative behaviors we want to study. Thirdly, they help us to broaden our understanding human communication. The fourth function is to help us predict and control communication. The fifth function of theories comes from their ability to challenge social and cultural realities, and offer new ways of living and thinking. Theories serve many useful purposes, but these functions are not important if we don't have well-developed models that show how the world works. Littlejohn defines a communication theory as "any conceptual representation or description of the communication process". (Bakhtin 1986; Bandura 1986).

Rhetorical Theory

The theory of rhetoric is said to have originated on the Island of Sicily, when a dictator overthrew himself. Landowners argued in court about who owned the land rightfully - the original owner or those who were given the land under the tyrant? The Greek legal system at the time required individuals to present their cases in court, which led to the need to learn the art of rhetoric.

This includes studying everything from the intrapersonal, interpersonal, public discourse and social movements to mediated discourse. Rhetorical theories examine what makes something public, such as personal diaries, television, the Internet and Web sites, as well as artifacts of rhetoric. Rhetorical theory is a study of visual elements and nonverbal elements. For example, it includes the study and analysis of art, architecture, buildings, design elements in cities, dress, appearance, sports, etc. It is hard to find a part of human experience that can't be viewed from

a rhetorical point of view. The focus of rhetorical theory has shifted away from persuasion. Some rhetorical theorists believe that all human symbolism is inherently persuasive. No matter what our intention, whatever we say or write affects others, whether it's intentional or not. Other rhetorical theorists (Handa 2004) continue to focus their attention on how persuasion functions in new areas of theorizing. Others question the persuasive act. The focus on persuasion has led to a continuing interest among rhetorical theory in the relationship between rhetoric and social change.

Semiotic Theory

The Greek term Σημειωτική, “semeiotics”, to name that branch of medical science concerned with the study of symptoms of disease or σημεια -‘natural signs’ in today’s language (Blumer, 1969). In the West, many writers and scholars studied the different processes that produce signification. Semiotics has been studied in many areas of the modern world, including literature, visual and plastic art, environmental and social structures and myth. Semiotics is a very interdisciplinary science. Semiotics is a science that studies communication and sign systems. It also examines how people organize and understand phenomena, and how they communicate their understanding to others. Semiotics is not limited to natural and artificial language, but also includes non-verbal signals and domains where the communicative aspect is only perceived unconsciously. Knowledge, meaning, intent and action are therefore fundamental concepts in the semiotic analysis of phenomena (Blumler 1974).

Phenomenological Theory

Theorists of phenomenology emphasize that every person actively constructs their own world. According to the Phenomenological Approach to Personality, the way each person interprets and perceives the world is what makes up their personality and guides their behavior. The way people perceive reality/perspective influences their behavior. This is shaped by expectations. These expectations are personal constructs that are generalized ways to anticipate the world. Rogers (1994), distinguished between the ideal self and the actual self. When the two self-concepts are not in sync or when expectations or ideals do match reality, problems can arise. Maslow (1943), believed that self actualization is more than a human capability, but also a need. Maslow believed that humans have a hierarchy of human needs. Each need must be met, starting at the bottom, before moving to the next level. According to the Evaluation of Phenomenological Theory, this is a positive approach that puts faith in an individual's ability. The Phenomenological Approach

is also viewed by critics as naive and romantic. They also criticize the lack of importance placed on inherited characteristics, biological process, learning, situations, and unconscious motivations in shaping personality. Many Phenomenological Concepts are too vague to be tested in an empirical way (Miller 2005).

Socio-Psychological Theory

Social Psychology is the branch of Psychology which studies individuals within a social context. It is a branch of Psychology that focuses on individuals and relies on scientific research for the development of theories about social behavior. Social Psychology provides a wealth of insight into society and the individual, as well as the human condition. (Littlejohn 2002). This theory relies on the concept of "comparison levels of alternatives", or the actor's perception of the best alternative (i.e. the choice that offers the most benefits in relation to costs). Social exchange theories are different from economic theories in that they predict the relationships between people, not just the evaluations of goods (Anderson & Baym 2004).

Socio-Cultural Theory

The socio-cultural theory examines the contribution that society makes to an individual's development. This theory emphasizes the interaction between developing individuals and the culture in their lives. The socio-cultural theory developed from seminal psychologism. The socio-cultural theory does not just focus on how adults and peers affect individual learning. It also focuses on how cultural beliefs, attitudes and values impact how instruction and education take place. The zone of proximal growth is an important concept in sociocultural theory. The zone of proximal development "is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers"(Gudykunst,2005:15). It is essentially all the knowledge and skills a child can learn with guidance, but cannot do on their own (Chen, 2001).

Critical Theory

Critical theory challenges the belief that what appears to exist, what is commonly understood to exist, or even what is dominantly communicated as being, is at the same time true and right, good and just and necessary and inevitable. It does not accept this, at least automatically. Critical theory is concerned with examining the

limitations and problems, the contradictions, the incoherence and injustices, as well as the injustices in the way that human beings, operating within certain kinds of hierarchies and structures of relations, facilitated and regulated through particular kinds institutions, engaged in specific kinds of processes and practice, have formed, transformed, and reformed themselves, each other and the communities, cultures and societies in which we live (Craig, 2006).

COMMUNICATION MODELS

A communication model is chiefly a process in which information is enclosed in form of a package and is channeled then imparted by the sender to the receiver through a medium (Craig, 1999). When the receiver gets the information, he or she decodes the message and gives the sender a certain feedback. Models of communication refer to the conceptual model used to explain the human communication process (Chandler, 2008).

Evolution

This model is more geared towards public speaking than interpersonal communications. The Aristotelian communication model is still widely accepted and used today. In this model, the sender attempts to influence the receiver to respond in a certain way. The message must be convincing and impressive. The sender should know and understand his audience. In this model, both the sender and the receiver are active participants. This concept is used for public speaking, seminars and lectures. This model of communication is composed of three basic elements: (i) Speaker, (ii) Speech, (iii) Audience (Craig 2006).

Linear Model

The linear model sees communication as a linear or one-way process, in which the speaker speaks while the listener is listening. It is a model that only allows one-way communication (Shannon and Weaver 1949). It involves the sender encoding and channeling a message to the receiver while there is noise. Its main drawback is the assumption that communication has a clear beginning and an end. It also does not show any feedback from the receiver, e.g. Mass communication - television, radio, newspapers. It is any form of communication that does not allow for feedback, even nonverbally. You can respond to letters, text messages and e-mails. This model would not work with a lecture because listeners could still give feedback nonverbally (Reinhard & Dervin, 2009).

Interactive Model

The interactive model, where the speaker or sender receives feedback from the receiver or listener. The speaker or sender also listens to feedback from the receiver or listener. Both the speaker, and the listener, take turns speaking and listening to each other. Feedback can be verbal, nonverbal, or both. This model indicates that both the speaker and listener will communicate better if their fields of expertise overlap or are similar (Schramm 1997).

Transactional Model

The interactive model has a major drawback: it does not show that communicators are able to send and receive messages at the same time. This model fails to demonstrate that communication is dynamic and changes over time. The transactional model demonstrates that communication is a dynamic process. Each person involved in the communication act can simultaneously send and receive messages (Griffin, 1997; Sandra, 2009).

This chapter traces communication theories' evolution and outlines the major theories. It also describes and explains different communication models. It is important to remember that the complexity of the communication models can make it difficult to understand the communication. Models are the foundation of theory. In addition to what is explained in this section, there are other communication models that students should study and explore.

CASE STUDY 6

The School:

It is a small international school in Bangkok. Students' parents are mostly from Korea, China, Singapore and Japan, very limited are from western countries such as Australia, America and England, and the rest are Thai. The school is not very big, and students are at primary level. The class size is also small.

The Case:

Miss Jenny, the school Chinese teacher got a problem. In the middle of teaching, one of the kids-Cindy (year1 student), who came from China, told her that she had a headache and felt sick and uncomfortable. Cindy said she told this to the other teachers as well, but they still let her work on her study. Jenny touched Cindy's forehead, and felt she was hot, probably she had a fever. So she asked the class to do some writing for a while, and took the kid to the school nurse. Yes, she was about 38.8° and the fever continued for three days.

It was the last period of the day, when the parents came and picked up the kid and they knew Cindy was sick from Jenny. As the parents asked the little girl, Cindy said that she had told the other teachers who taught her that she was feeling sick before the Chinese class, but only Jenny touched her forehead and let her go to see the school nurse. It turned out that Cindy was really sick, had a three-day fever then. So the parents complained to the school leaders, why when the first time, Cindy said uncomfortable, the teachers didn't pay attention and let her study until the last period, the Chinese teacher found out her sickness and send her to school nurse, they believed if she could be sent to the school nurse earlier or if the school could call them to pick up her earlier a bit, she wouldn't be sick seriously like this.

The school manager tried to explain to the parents, maybe it was because the little girl was young and couldn't speak Thai and English well, so when

she told the other teachers, the teachers didn't understand her, or thought she was just lazy to avoid doing the work. Jenny was the Chinese teacher, so she surely understood her language. The parents felt this couldn't be a reason and still very angry. On the other hand, the school manager went to Miss Jenny and told her that she shouldn't let the parents know that the girl said to the other teachers before, because Jenny, the other teachers seemed all bad for this case. The school manager said, though Jenny and the girl's parents are Chinese, Jenny should not tell them everything about the school, and issues like these, should report to the school manager firstly.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Communication Theories*
2. *Communication model*
3. *Decision-making Styles*
4. *Managerial Theories*
5. *Leadership Capacity*
6. *School Climate*
7. *Teachers' Professional Development*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are Principal, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your ideas reflected from this issue.

2. Assume you are Miss Jenny, what will be your concerns when you communicate with the school principal and parents in this international school, Thailand.

Questions:

1. According to what you've learnt about the communication and its theory, are there any communication barriers in this case, why and why not?

2. Do you think Miss Jenny dealt with this case correctly? What about the other teachers?

3. Do you think the school manager had the right to ask Jenny to report to him firstly? Can or can't she tell the parents about the truth?

4. From this case, what kinds of school improvement need to be done in this school, please explain what the necessary changes?

Chapter 7

Organizational Change Theories

This chapter describes the major theories of educational organization's change. Why does a school, or any other organization, need to change its organizational structure? Organizational change is a major issue for organizations, and it is also a very important issue for schools. The education environment is always changing and the school organization needs to adapt to these changes to remain relevant and efficient. If an organization like a school wants to adapt to the changing environment, it must also be able to accept the changes that occur.

This chapter aims to explain the importance of organizational change in school management. It also aims to give a realistic picture of what organizational change is, and what it involves for a school. This will include the types of organizational changes, theories for organizational change, and processes for organizational change.

CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

For Fred (2010), organizational change is a movement of an organisation away from its current state and towards a desired future state in order to increase its effectiveness. Jones (2004) defines organizational change as a process where an organization strives to achieve its ideal state. We can see from the definition that both wanted to say that organizational change should be geared toward something positive, whether it is to achieve more results, or to increase effectiveness.

Organizational Change examines both the process by which an organization changes its operational methods and technologies, as well as its organizational structure or whole structure. It also looks at what effects these changes may have on it. Organizational changes are often a response to or a result from external or internal pressures. It's all about reviewing and changing structures, especially management structures, and business processes. Some small businesses must adapt to survive against bigger competitors. They must also learn how to thrive in this environment. When a smaller, more innovative competitor enters the market, large rivals must adapt quickly. A business must find ways to be more efficient to avoid falling behind or to stay ahead of its competitors. It must also strive for cost-

effectiveness. Change is something to be welcomed, not feared. Only through change can an organization achieve long-term success.

Changes will affect staff, regardless of the theory or changes proposed. Bueker (2005) stated that "one of the most challenging aspects of implementing whole school reforms is striking a balanced between proper program implementation, and individual teacher flexibility." (p. 411). Bueker stated that by empowering teachers, treating them with respect and providing structured, ongoing support for staff, the negative effects of a school change could be minimized. National trends such as the accountability movement or federal mandates, like the No Child Left Behind Act can prescribe change. H. K. Meyer (2006) and Rowan (2006) describe the impact that trends can have on the education system when they state, "we could apply new institutional constructions that can account both for an evolving theory and their application to changing policy situations, including the "tightening of control of the government over the core technologies of schooling", linked to standards reforms and accountability reforms." (as cited by Huerta & Zuckerman (2009), page 417). The choice of school reform may be beyond the control and influence of the school district administration, or the teachers who will be affected.

TYPES of ORGNIZATIONAL CHANGE

There are several types of change that managers can adopt to help their organizations achieve desired future status and there might be as many types of organizational change as possible, however, here in this chapter will adopt the types presented by George, & Jones (2007) and that of Anderson & Anderson (2010), including evolutionary change and revolutionary change(Ndibalema,2016).

Evolutionary change: According to George, & Jones (2007), is gradual, intermittent, and narrowly-focused. Its main purpose is to make continuous improvement in order to adjust to the environment changes (Weick, & Quinn, 1999).

Revolutionary change: On the other hand, a revolution is rapid, dramatic and broad-based. It happens when the existing operation method cannot meet the demands of the external environment and a significant shift must be made within a short time period to keep the organization working. There is also another category of types of change that has been discussed by Anderson & Anderson (2011).

According to them there are three types of organizational changes. Each type of change requires different leadership and effort, and each has different risks. These

types of change include the following (Ndibalema 2016). :

Developmental Change: This is the improvement, refinement, or enhancement of existing products.

Transitional Change: This is the process of moving from one state to another, with activities that are geared towards creating the new while “switching off” the old. This type of change lends well to a project-based approach.

Transformational Change: This involves fundamental changes to strategy, identity, worldviews, mindsets, culture, and the way we think. It is about changing "who we are" and "what we do". This type of change is also known as discontinuous, disruptive or disruptive change. This type of change has a clear beginning, but the end and the full impact are less obvious. Clarity is only a by-product of the activities that will lead to change, which are themselves non-linear. Transformational change can be the most difficult to achieve, as it requires employees to change certain aspects of their personalities. It also requires that leaders change their identity, worldview, and mindset.

Many people, including leaders of organizations, are not willing (or motivated) to adopt radical new ways of interacting and making sense of the world around them. This is exactly what's needed during transformational changes (Anderson & Anderson 2011, p.51).

THEORIES OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

Different theories approach systemic education change from varying philosophy, strategies, models, methods, and methods (Gabriele 2000), searching for a theory that will create the conditions necessary for a systemic change. Gabriele stated that these conditions include "idea-based, holistic and continuing, participatory. easy to adjust/improve. and emancipatory". Three theories of change are used by school districts: the institutional theory, the free market theory and the round table theory (Chris, 2010, 2010).

Institutional Change Theory

The Institutional Change Theory is a framework that focuses on the relationship between schools, their cultural environments and other factors. The cultural norms of society influence organizational structure, encouraging schools to follow the rules and rituals that are accepted by an institution. Scott (2003) defined

institutional theory as "[emphasizing] how an organization's culture influences its organizational structure and behavior. It seeks to understand how cultural rules from the surrounding environment shape or constrain the organizational action." (as cited by Huerta & Zuckerman, p. 415)

Other institutions that are seeking legitimacy can learn from established institutions. They have rules and rituals which are now considered to be legitimate. Not all institutions are interested in maintaining the status quo, and they are constrained by social and institutional norms. Huerta & Zuckerman (2009:176), cited charter schools as an example of a school that wanted to break from "long-standing institutionalized teaching and learning patterns."

Free market theory

According to the free market theory, educational change occurs when schools compete for excellence. (Marion 2002). Proponents of school selection are attracted to the assumption that all schools start with equal opportunities to achieve excellence. This justifies moving their children from failing schools to ones with greater success. According to the free-market theory, failure is the fault of the school district.

Adnett and Davies (2000 and Lubienski, 2006) declared that federal regulations made it impossible for educational institutions be true free markets. This resulted in the failure of free market theory to produce educational change (as quoted in Eyal 2008). Eyal concluded that a free-market system in the school system would fail to produce any significant changes because its characteristics would not create a conducive environment for change.

Roundtable Theory

The roundtable is a shared-leadership theory for school improvement. Gabriele (2002) defined RT as distributing learning and leadership equally among participants. Shared leadership can increase commitment by involving stakeholders in the decision making process. Gabriele described an ideal RT practice that is run by a Leader's Guide, developed by consensus and reviewed periodically.

A positive change theory that focuses on strengths rather than problems is the best choice for school change. Gabriele described RT as a model that is based on achieving a state of ideality, involving all stakeholders, and taking place within the normal school day. RT is a continuous process that allows schools to move towards

excellence. Gabriele said that RT was a research-based, proven model to lead organizations towards "self-transformation and goal achievement".

School change is constant. Eyal (2008) suggested that "despite the widespread image of public institutions being highly conservative and stagnant it might be interesting investigate their potential as a source of innovations that are not less radical than the alternative proposals proposed by free market ideologues." (p. 487). School reform is a challenge for all stakeholders, and requires careful consideration to the theoretical framework.

Prior to deciding on a course of action, it is important to analyze change theories. The RT model described Gabriele is a research-based theory that has been proven to be effective in changing schools. The effectiveness of the RT Model in practice during the call for Reform to meet the skills of 21st Century warrants further research into the applicability RT in meeting future educational needs. The school structure will continue evolving, and reform theories that have been proven to be effective by research will be refined (Chris 2010).

CAS STUDY 7**The School:**

Mr. John was the Principal of a middle-sized international school in Thailand, the school is run over 20 years and quite well-known in the local region. There was a rumor that all the experienced teachers in this international school knew, they said the school had a hidden rule, which was “if anyone’s salary is over 100,000B; then this guy will be leaving the school soon”. Mr. Andrew was the school’s Mathematics Department Head, he worked in this school more than 10 years and his salary reached 100,000B by the end of this year. Andrew worried that rumor was true, so he asked the principal if he would get fired, John said that the hidden rule didn’t exist, let him not worry!

The Case:

The other day, the school board had a meeting, after the meeting, one board member Dr. Richard, talked to Mr. John about the school’s intention for hiring 1 more teacher-assistant to co-teach the students for their Olympic Mathematics Competition. The school recently encouraged the students to attend the Olympic Mathematics Competition in different grades. Hiring 1 more teacher-assistants of course will help the students’ performance to some degree, but the school may not have the enough budget to ensure the new teacher-assistants’ pay. So, Dr. Richard said to John and let Andrew solve this problem, according to Richard’s implication, he hinted if Mr. Andrew could help teach more, then let him teach for the kids’ Olympic Mathematics as well, but if he refused, then let Andrew gone. The school could then find 2 younger Mathematics teachers with 50,000B salary for each. At this moment, John suddenly realized the hidden rule that some teachers mentioned may be true.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Educational Change Theories*
2. *Decision-making Styles*
3. *Managerial Theories*
4. *School-based management*
5. *Communication*
6. *School Climate*
7. *Human Resources Management*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are the school Principal, Mr. John, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your ideas reflected from this issue.

2. Assume you are Mr. Andrew, what will be your concerns when you communicate with the school principal in terms of this issue in this international school, Thailand.

Questions:

1. Based on what we learnt from theories of Education administration and leadership, please determine the main issue in this case, and analyze the factors behind.

2. What will you do if you were the principal in this case, will you allow this hidden rule function still?

3. If you were the Mr. John, how do you do with the situation that if your school board member hints you like this case?

4. If you were the Mr. Andrew, how do you do with the situation that if your principal talk to you to teach more or solve this problem?

Chapter 8

Curriculum Development Theories

This chapter introduces theories of curriculum design and curriculum development approaches for school-based management. Curriculum development is a crucial part of the educational process. It ensures that all classes are taught at every level in every school. Teachers and administrators must know how to create and implement curriculums to ensure that students are able to learn the material and gain the skills they need to continue to progress. Professionals in the field can create anything from textbooks to tests and lectures with the right background.

DEFINITION AND CONCEPT OF CURRICULUM

Curriculum development is the process of improving the courses that are offered by a college, university or school. Curriculum design is also the way we arrange the components of the curriculum. All curriculum designs, regardless of the underlying curriculum model, aim to address four core curriculum components. The world is constantly changing and new discoveries must be incorporated into education curricula. Innovative teaching strategies and techniques (such as blended learning or active learning) are constantly being developed to improve student learning. In order to adapt to these changes, a school must have a plan to do so (Amanda 2018).

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The Curriculum Development process (CD) includes the design and implementation of learning plans, as well as the evaluation of these plans, their implementation, and the learning outcomes (Veness 2010). Curriculum design is an iterative process of critical questions that frames learning and teaching. The process' main purpose is to translate general statements of intent into concrete plans and actions. The goal is to align the three states of the curriculum as closely as possible: the planned curriculum; the delivered curriculum; and the experienced curriculum.

The context for each learning activity is set by the curriculum design process at the course level. Topics must be designed in a way that they can be grouped together

to form coherent major and secondary sequences and courses. The process is overlapping, especially at the topic and course levels.

The purpose of curriculum design is to provide students with integrated, coherent learning experiences which contribute to their personal, academic, and professional development (Chevallard 2008).

Types of Curriculum Design

There are three basic types of curriculum design--subject-centered, learner-centered, and problem-centered design. The subject-centered curriculum design focuses on a specific subject or discipline such as mathematics or literature. This type of curriculum design focuses more on the subject than the student. This is the most common form of standardized curriculum found in K-12 school. Teachers create lists of subjects and provide specific examples of how to study them. This method is used in large university or colleges classes where teachers concentrate on a specific subject or discipline (Veness, 2010).

Subject-centered Curriculum Design

The model is not student-centered and is less concerned about individual learning styles than other forms of curriculum. This can cause problems with motivation and engagement of students, and may lead to students who are not responsive falling behind.

Learner-centered Curriculum Design

It is centered around the needs, goals, and interests of students. It recognizes that students are individuals and not uniforms, and should not be subjected to a standard curriculum in all cases. This approach is designed to empower students to make choices that will shape their education. Differentiated instruction plans give students the opportunity to choose assignments, teaching and/or learning experiences, or even activities. This form of curriculum has been shown by research to motivate and engage students. This form of curriculum design can be a drawback because it puts pressure on educators to find materials that are specific to the learning needs of each student. Due to time constraints, this can be a challenge. It can be difficult to balance the needs of individual students with those of the institution.

Problem-centered Curriculum Design

This model teaches students to analyze a problem, and then formulate a solution. This model is considered an authentic form of education because students are exposed real-life problems. It helps students develop transferable skills to the real

world. The design of a curriculum that is problem-centered has been shown to be more relevant and encourage creativity, innovation, and collaboration in the classroom. This format has a drawback in that it doesn't always take into account individual learning styles. Instructors can choose the best curriculum design for their students and course by considering all three types before planning.

FIVE APPROACHES ON CURRICULUM

There are many approaches for school administrators and teachers to study in order to successfully design, develop, and implement curricula in the school teaching process. These approaches are based upon assumptions we've made about our education, experiences, and other factors. This chapter analyzes five curriculum approaches, including the main proponents and tenets for each (Emil 2004).

Traditional Approach

The traditional approach was developed to address a problem that was prevalent in the nineteenth century (Posner 2004). The schooling system did not change with the diversity of society. The focus is on preserving the cultural heritage. It is a position that the primary goal of educational curricula is to transmit accumulated knowledge from society. E.D. was a professor of humanities at the University of Virginia who was one of its most prominent proponents. Hirsch, Jr. suggested that the primary purpose of education was to acculturate kids (Hirsch 1987). The main critics of this approach are progressive educators and those who adhere to another perspective, experiential, who claim that it does not take "...theories for learning, motivation, knowledge, or school and society into consideration" (Posner 2004). They also suggest that the approach promotes democratic values, as it takes an authoritative position on what general knowledge is in a society.

Experiential Approach

The traditional approach dates back to the nineteenth century. The experiential approach is a product of the twentieth century. The experiential approach assumes curricula take a holistic view of students by taking into account all their experiences. Dewey, an American philosopher and psychologist, was its main proponent (1963). He believed that traditional views were "...inadequate because they viewed the world as external to individuals" (Posner 2004). The social reform movement in the early 20th century coincided with progressive education and an experiential perspective (Posner 2004).

In 1918, the National Education Association published its principles of education, which stated that schooling should be aimed at promoting health, preparing

students for vocations and promoting citizenship, among other things (Commission on the Reorganization Secondary Education, 1918). In America, the experiential approach is still being used as part of a movement called Culturally Responsive Education. This is primarily to support English learners. Critics of this approach claim that it "...imposes huge demands on anyone trying to make practical curriculum choices, as it assumes the curriculum is similar to the process of living ..." (Posner, p. 48).

Structure of the Disciplines

In response to Cold War criticisms, the disciplines perspective gained in popularity in the middle of 20th century, especially among university professors and math and science educators in secondary settings. This perspective's main tenet is that if students can understand a discipline's structure, they can learn the knowledge of that discipline on their own. This perspective encourages learners to develop extrapolation skills. Arthur was one of the major proponents of this perspective. He was a critic of America's inability to gain a competitive edge over the Russians in the 1950s. He believed that the progressive education movement in America had led to a decline in American education's ability to teach students to think systematically. The perspective led to a deeper relationship between educators, subject matter experts, and content specialists in order to better comprehend and, in turn teach how to think about given content areas.

This approach is still alive in a number educational innovations today. It is exemplified by the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, (Chamot & O'Malley 2009), where students are taught to approach language learning as they learn the English language rather than simply learning discrete skills. The behavioral psychology field was the main critic of this perspective. They argued that a wealth knowledge about how people learn and act was being ignored, and that providing science and math instructional materials that reflect the thought structures of disciplines did not effectively teach either subject (Posner 2004).

Behavioral Approach

The behavioral approach suggests that educators should focus less on the content and more on the behaviors students learn in school (Posner). Edward Thorndike was widely regarded as the founder of behavior psychology. Franklin Bobbitt was a professor at the University of Chicago in the early 1900s. Thorndike's work in behavioral objectives laid the foundation for this perspective, and Bobbitt's life-activity analyses (Bobbitt 1952) provided the technology to develop the theory. Bobbitt's argument that curriculum should be based upon actual life events rather than subjects of learning was consistent with the resurgence in the progressive

movement of America at the time.

Teachers themselves became critics of behavioral perspectives, primarily because they realized the rapid growth and change in social structures. The curriculum would be obsolete by the time it was developed. Noam Chomsky also criticizes the behavioral perspective. In 1968, Chomsky argued that behavioralists' explanations of the complexity of language acquisition are insufficient (Posner 2004).

Constructivist Approach

The constructivist method suggests that curriculum be developed to allow students to make personal sense of newly acquired knowledge. Indirectly, the constructivist approach was primarily promoted by Jean Piaget, a renowned psychologist who asserted students assimilate rather than acquire information. They then adapt new knowledge by reorganizing the information to fit into their existing thought structures. In the United States, the constructivist approach is under attack because it promotes inquiry-based education which can be time-consuming (Mayer 2004). Science and math teachers are avoiding the constructivist perspective when building their curricula in an age of accountability. The Montessori Method is used in elementary schools, where the perspective is still alive. The constructivist method is ideal for creating curricula that are adapted to the child's developmental stage.

The school system is expected to promote healthy, socially-responsible behavior in young people on the way to adulthood. (Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1918)). Modern school systems are expected to prepare students in all areas of life: for citizenship, work, and everyday life. They also encourage universal literacy, and encourage the development of individual interests and talents. A lot is expected from a curriculum. In addition, there are design considerations for schools - custodial and medical, safety and economic - that have only a marginal relationship to the curriculum itself (Ornstein Allan Hunkins 2009). It is not an easy task to develop, design and implement an education curriculum (Shawer 2010). Instructors have a lot of work to do with the increasing use of educational technology, and the diversity of students who attend higher education institutions today (Craig 2006). By studying the framework and guidelines for curriculum development, educators can set themselves and their students up for long-term successes (McKimm 2003).

CASE STUDY 8**The School:**

A middle-sized international school with IB curriculum in Thailand, the school is quite popular in Thailand. The school usually offers summer program for their own students and even the students from other schools or region to experience the school study. It attracts quite many Chinese students to join the school in the last few summer terms. Recently, the school board starts a new idea to “open intensive English Program for Chinese students from China”, it is not only a summer school program, but to recruit Chinese students to join the school for a short term IB studying experience. According to the school, this is also a trying for curriculum development and cultural exchange for the students who come from different nations.

The Case:

The program opens in the summer, which is the summer vacation time for many Chinese students in China. This is a big market now, as many Chinese parents are looking for school for their kids to experience different ways of study, and maybe they will transfer their kids into the trying school if they're satisfied with the learning experiences. Many international schools in Thailand are starting this programs for getting new students in a hidden marketing way.

The recruited Chinese students will placed in the ELL for Language Arts, learning with the mainstream students for specialist classes, such as Music, PE, Dance, etc. They will be treated as the regular students in the same classroom. So the regular classroom if it's about 15 students, in the summer term, it may be changed to 20. The school charged quite a lot money from each new joiner, but the teachers and local parents have different points of view.

The teachers feels it is hard to handle the new joined Chinese students, as their English is weak, and their traditional learning and thinking limit their learning achievement, which may even influence the regular class students.

And as the number of students just come and study in their school for only 2-3 months, it's hard to help them improve in long-term way. But since most teachers got extra pay for teaching those new comers, many of them are quite in terms of this issue.

The regular class parents are unhappy, as they think they are the major customers for this school. Though these short-term customers bring benefits to the school, but they stay only 2-3 month, but now their kids must share the school facilities and resources with the new comers (though they paid the school, and the classroom teach may get paid in this process), the parents think the school's action is just seeking for economic profits, no so-called *Curriculum Development Or Cultural Exchange* idea are really involved, so the parents wish the school stops this action right away.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Curriculum Design and Development*
2. *Decision-making Theories*
3. *Managerial Theories*
4. *School-based management*
5. *Communication*
6. *Parental Involvement*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are the school Principal, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your ideas reflected from this issue.

2. Assume you are the project director for this “intensive English program for Chinese students”, what will be your concerns when you communicate with the Chinese parents and the local parents in terms of this issue in this international school, Thailand?

Questions:

1.If you were the school principal, what will be your viewpoint at this issue?

2.Do you think this program is the school's trying of *Curriculum Development or Cultural Exchange*? Why or why not?

3.What action will you make to deal with different target groups?

(1) To the classroom teachers?

(2) To the local parents, whose children are in the regular class of this school?

(3) To the new joined Chinese students' parents?

4. Any action plan for this program if the school doesn't want to stop it right ways?

Chapter 9

Theories of Analyzing and Teaching

This chapter introduces theories of analyzing, teaching and school-based management. Teaching effectiveness was based on the belief that certain teaching conditions and acts would influence student outcomes. Teachers use a variety of types of knowledge to make decisions about what they teach and how. This knowledge base does not remain static but changes and expands over the course of a teacher's career. Teachers who are excellent are accomplished scholars and active researchers. They treat teaching as a serious intellectual undertaking, expect more from their students, create an "environment of natural critical learning, trust the students, and use systematic assessment of student learning. Teachers who are excellent have mastered the art of fostering learning. They do not blame their students for problems and have a strong commitment to academic communities. This chapter examines the most effective models of learning and teaching, as well as their key components.

ANALYZING AND TEACHING IN SCHOOLS

Teachers can be a valuable source of new knowledge when analyzing is tied to teaching practice. But gaining experience does not mean that you have learned from it. Prospective teachers who engage in classroom experience without analysis face a serious issue of making incorrect conclusions. "That will be reinforced by additional unanalyzed experience on-the-job" (Feiman Nemser & Buchmann 1985: 68). Field experience is often used by prospective teachers to reinforce rather than challenge their generic views about teaching that they developed as students in K-12. Teaching involves unpredictable, complex, and specific situations. Ball and Cohen (1999), argue that teachers must learn how to learn from and in practice, both before and during teaching. Professional education should therefore emphasize systematic study of practice, "emphasizing questions, investigations and analysis" (p.13). It is impossible for teacher training programs to prescribe strategies that are appropriate, given the fact that every classroom is unique. Teachers must have the skills and dispositions necessary to analyze teaching and learn in order to adapt to their practice.

Teacher educators have the same reasons for engaging in reflective practice as

teachers. Teacher educators must prepare teachers to become "reflective professionals" who are able to critically examine their teaching and students' learning (Shulman 1998: 515).

Dinkelman (2003) outlines five reasons why teacher educators should engage in self-study: (a), reflection is in line with the teaching activity, (b), self-study can produce knowledge that is valuable for both local contexts as well as the broader teacher-education research community, and (c), self-study can be used to model reflective practices, (d), self-study may involve students in the inquiry process, and (e), self-study could lead to programmatic changes. Self-study can be used to promote reflective teaching, but it is also a valuable end in teacher education.

Reflective practice is not just about reflection. It goes beyond that. Dinkelman points out that Schon's (1983) concept of "reflection-in-action" captures the thinking that teachers bring to their work in the moment of teaching" whereas self-study involves "intentional and systematic inquiry into one's own practice" (2003: 9). The NBPTS approach involves systematic critical inquiry by teachers and recognizes that analytic teachers reflect on the decisions they make during the teaching day. Reflective practice is based upon careful reasoning, which involves "considering purpose, marshaling of evidence, and balancing the outcomes" (NBPTS 1999b:29).

The key step to this reasoning process is gathering and analyzing evidence. Student work is a key source of evidence for a teacher's teaching practice. It can be in many forms, including writing, filming, music, art, oral discourse, three-dimensional project, or software. Teachers must ask themselves if their teaching is meeting its primary goal: the development of student understanding.

MODELS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

Traditional Models of Teaching and Learning consider the basic process. It was a product-model distinguished product, presage, context, and process variables (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974). Product variables were a range of student outcomes, such as student achievement and attitudes towards learning. The conditions of teaching that improve student outcomes (products) were defined as process variables. In this sense, different teaching approaches, such as direct teaching, reinforcement and time on task, served as process variables. Presage variables accounted for the characteristics and prior knowledge (age, ability, gender) of students. Context variables, such as parental involvement and instructional media, were considered factors that influence the effect of teaching on student outcome.

In Fraser et al.'s (1987), meta-analysis, the five teaching components that had the largest effect sizes were reinforcement, acceleration of reading training, cues, feedback and science mastery. Scheerens & Bosker (1997) found that variables such as feedback, reinforcement, cooperative learning and differentiation/adaptive instruction, as well time spent on task, had the greatest effect sizes. Fraser et al. (1987) used a detailed categorization to refer to specific instructional treatments, domain-specific approaches, and general teaching components, such as reinforcement, cues, and feedback. Scheerens' and Bosker's (1997) categorization is based on time and mastery models (Bloom 1976; Caroll 1963; Rosenshine 1979). To categorize the teaching components, components like time on task, structured instruction, opportunity to learn and feedback were used.

COMPONENTS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

In the last decade, there have been many changes in the models of teaching and education. It is therefore important to review and outline the framework for teaching and learning components. This is especially true for current students and educational researchers. In the past decade, most studies that examined teaching effects on student's learning focused on intentional learning within an organized setting (e.g. school instruction). The components of learning also referred to higher-order learning: the development and in-depth comprehension of learning content. These studies, therefore, viewed learning as follows:

Constructive: The learning process is a series of constructive processes whereby the student (alone or in a group) builds, activates and elaborates knowledge structures. This conception of learning suggests that teaching should encourage students to engage in activities which promote higher-order learning (Bransford et. al. 2000; Brown et. al. 1989; De Corte et. al. 2003; Donovan & Bransford 2005; Greeno et. al. 1996).

Domain specific: Intentional Learning (especially in a school context), is content-specific and depends on the knowledge domain. Teachers should create an environment where students can engage in domain-specific activities. Teachers must have a deep understanding of the content as well as the nature of the domain to be able to do this (pedagogical knowledge, e.g. American Association for the Advancement of Science 1993; Baumert Blum Neubrand 2004; Chi Feltovich Glaser 1981; Shulman 1987; Wayne & Youngs 2003; White & Frederiksen 1998).

Social: The construction and sharing of knowledge occurs within a community of

students. In different classroom settings, students have been encouraged to build their knowledge within a community of learners, to explain their knowledge, to regulate and monitor their own learning processes (Brown et. al. 1989; Collins et. al. 1989; Palincsar & Brown 1984; Slavin 1995).

Goal directed: Intentional knowledge building in school settings is goal-directed. Students can either set their own goals or incorporate externally provided goals (e.g. teaching goals) into individual learning goals. Students must also focus on these goals in order to engage in goal directed learning activities (Ausubel, 1960; Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliot, & Thrash, 2002; Rosenshine, 1979; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Evaluative: Students and teachers can evaluate the achievement of learning goals. The evaluation of learning can be multi-faceted and includes self-evaluation, as well as different types of formative and summary assessment (American Association for the Advancement of Science 1990a, 1990b, Black & Williams 2003, Donovan & Bransford 2005).

Regulative: Regulation is an important part of learning. Students should be able to internalize the processes of stimulating learning, monitoring it, and regulating it. By providing scaffolding, feedback and support, or by teaching strategies for self regulation, the teacher can guide and facilitate these regulative process (Alexander, 2000; Artelt, Baumert, McElvany, & Peschar, 2003; Boekaerts, 1999; Kardash & Amlund, 1991; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990).

THEORY OF TEACHING

Bowden (2008) creates a model which links instructional theory with teaching strategies. Bowden defines three theories of instruction: cognitivism, constructivism, and behaviorism. The behaviorism theory uses positive and negatively oriented feedback to reinforce certain behaviors in test subjects. The instructor rewards learning behaviors and punishes those that reduce learning. Cognitivism promotes learning by integrating new information into an existing network of knowledge. Constructivism holds that learning is a process that requires active participation from the learner. The learning process that implements all three approaches will involve the use of positive and negative feedback in order to encourage desired actions or curb undesired ones, present material as a continuation of existing knowledge, and create an environment of active education.

Discussion, lecture and collaboration are the three main teaching strategies.

Discussions are designed to encourage critical thinking, which validates information already in the student's knowledge base, creative thinking, to develop new information for the students, and dialogical thinking, designed to rationalize opposing viewpoints and data. The lecture model is designed to give students information from which they can learn more outside the classroom. Collaboration is designed for small group learning. The group learning process is mutually supportive, which increases student learning.

Bowden (2008) argues behavioralism and discussion have a link because behavioralism holds that behaviors can change and discussion changes behaviour. The lecture method is linked to cognitivism because it provides a large amount of knowledge for the learner to rationalize within their existing knowledge base. Constructivism is a learning process that is active and consistent with the collaborative method of teaching, which is a problem-solving activity. To optimize learning, the instructor must match the teaching style to the instructional theories. To maximize learning, the instructor should use the teaching style (discussions, lectures, or collaborations) that best matches the instructional theory (behaviorism, cognitivism or constructivism) of the student.

CASE STUDY 9**The School:**

Mr. John is an international school principal, his school is not very big, but offers a tri-lingual program where students are disciplined to master their speaking, reading and writing skills in English, Mandarin and Thai (school mission). John's grandparents are from China "Chaozhou" area, so he can speak good Chinese, he feels Chinese language is important, so every schools in Thailand offers Chinese curriculum nowadays. Chinese language for many Thai kids, it is not easy to learn, he remembered that he copied and memorized a lot times in the process of learning Chinese characters' strokes and writing sentences. So learning Chinese is not an easy and happy experiences in his childhood memory.

The Case:

Mr. John recently observed the Chinese classroom teacher's teaching, he found the young Chinese teacher didn't teach the students too much about the "strokes" now, instead, she taught a lot of pinyin, and conversation skills; and most of her homework, was just to read the textbook or practice pinyin at home. He realized this is very different from his time and experience of learning Chinese. He read the textbook, and found there were still quite many exercises in terms of practicing the strokes, but why the teacher seems "ignored" the "stroke" but focused on "pinyin". He talked with the teacher, the teacher said, now it's a digitalized world, many kids use computer and mobile a lot, and the Chinese character input method is related to "pinyin", so no need to practice the strokes a lot, talking and typing correctly are more important than handwriting. John disagreed with the young Chinese teachers' action, he told the Chinese teacher to give some homework for the kids to do writing, and let them make sentences every day and submit to the teacher to check. The teacher thought John was a principal, he could manage the school and suggest something, but shouldn't get involved into Chinese homework setting, as the time is different. The Chinese teacher believed that she knows more about the trend of Chinese language and principal shouldn't control the ways of teaching.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Analyzing and teaching*
2. *Teacher's Evaluation*
3. *Curriculum Development Theories*
4. *School-based Management*
5. *Authentic Teaching*
6. *Professional Development*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are the school Principal, Mr. John, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your ideas reflected from this issue.

2. Assume you are Chinese teacher for this international school, what will be your concerns when you communicate with the Principal in terms of this issue?

Questions:

1. What is the conflict really about? In this case, who is correct?

2. Who should design the homework? How homework design reflects a teacher's professionalism?

3. What you will do, if you were the principal? If you were the Chinese teacher?

4. What is your action plan to solve this problem and avoid the same conflict happens?

Chapter 10

Theories of Human Resource Management

This chapter focuses on the major theories of human resource management in relation to education. The process of hiring teachers and developing them to make them more valuable for the organization. Human Resource Management involves conducting job analyses, planning staff needs, recruiting and training the right people for the position, managing wages and salary, providing incentives and benefits, evaluating performance, solving disputes, and communicating at all levels.

OVERVIEW OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Human resource management, or human resource development (HRM), is the planning, implementation, and management of recruitment, selection, training, career development, and organizational development within an organization. HRM aims to maximize productivity by optimizing employee effectiveness, while simultaneously improving work life and treating employees like valuable resources. HRM is concerned with promoting employee satisfaction, personal development and compliance with employment laws (Johnason,2009).

HRM departments are focused on three general functions, or activities, to achieve balance between employer and employee needs and goals: planning, implementation, evaluation. The planning function is the development of policies and regulations for human resources. Human resource managers plan and implement HRM procedures in order to help companies achieve their goals (Collings & Wood, 2009).

Implementing HRM plans requires four main activities: acquisitions, development, compensation and maintenance. The hiring of employees who are most likely to achieve an organization's goals is called acquisition. The development function includes the training of employees to perform their duties in accordance with organizational strategy (Collings & Wood 2009). This activity involves the company's efforts to control and modify employee behavior through reviews, appraisals and incentives. Compensation is the payment made to employees for their work. Maintenance involves structuring labor relations, the interaction

between a company's management and its employees who are unionized, and ensuring compliance with federal or state employment laws. The evaluation function also includes a review of the HRM policies of a company to determine their effectiveness (Johnason 2009).

THE FOCUS OF HRM

All organizations depend on three main resources: physical resources such as materials and equipment, financial resources including cash, debt, and credit, and human resources. HRM is the management of people-related decisions within an organisation. In practice, HRM is used to maximize the use of human resource, encourage individual development, and comply with government mandates. In larger organizations, HRM departments are common. Their primary goal is to make company goals compatible with employee objectives as much as possible. For a company's goals to be achieved, it needs employees who can help it achieve them (Collings & Wood 2009).

Towards this end, Pace (1991) identified seven underlying assumptions that provide a foundation and direction for HRM, these assumptions are as follows:

- Recognizing the individual contribution, implying that organizations must value and recognize individual contributions.
- Consider employees as resources that can be trained and taught new skills, ideas, and occupy new positions within the organization.
- Employees have the right to a safe, clean and pleasant work environment.
- Concerning on continuous learning; talents and skills must be continually refined in the long-term interests of the organization.
- Supporting the existence of an organized HRM within a company or institution is that opportunities are constantly changing and companies need methods to facilitate continual worker adaptation.
- Focusing on employee happiness implies that people have the right to be satisfied with their work, and that employers are motivated by profit and have a duty to match the skills of a worker to his or her job.
- Encompassing a much broader scope than technical training—employees need to know more than the requirements of a specific task in order to make their maximum contribution.

HRM IMPLEMENTATION ACTIVITIES

To fulfill their basic role and achieve their goals, HRM professionals and departments engage in a variety of activities in schools, in order to execute their human resource plans. HRM implementation activities fall into four functional

groups, each of which includes related legal responsibilities: acquisition, development, compensation, and maintenance (Collings & Wood, 2009).

Acquisition

Human resource planning is the main task of acquisition duties. This includes analyzing employment requirements, determining necessary skills for positions and identifying trends in jobs and industries. It also includes forecasting future employment levels as well as skill requirements. (Johnason 2009). These tasks can be accomplished by using tools and techniques such as questionnaires, interviewing, statistical analysis and building skill inventories. Human resource planning has four specific goals:

- Maintaining a stable workforce level during ups and downs in output can reduce unnecessary employment costs, liabilities and increase employee motivation.
- Preventing high turnover among younger recruits.
- Reducing the problems associated with replacing key decisions makers in the event of unexpected absence.
- Making it easier for financial resource managers (FRMs) to plan departmental budgets.

The acquisition function includes activities related to hiring workers, such as designing evaluation tests and interviewing methods. The goal is to hire only the best-qualified candidates, without violating federal regulations or allowing stereotypes to influence decision makers. Some HR departments may administer personality or honesty tests or test for drug use. Recruitment duties also include ensuring the integrity of the people within the organization and that they adhere to strict government regulations regarding discrimination and privacy. Human resource managers document and establish detailed hiring and recruiting procedures to protect applicants and reduce the risk of lawsuits (Collings & Wood, 2009).

Development

Human resource development is the second major HRM function. It includes performance appraisals and training. The primary goal of appraisals is to provide employees with feedback about their performance. This feedback allows employees to evaluate their behavior and how it is perceived by their coworkers and their managers. They can also correct weaknesses and improve their contribution. HRM professionals are required to develop uniform appraisal standards, review techniques, train managers on how to administer appraisals, evaluate and follow-up on the effectiveness of the performance reviews. They must

also link the appraisal process to compensation and incentive strategies and work to ensure federal regulations are adhered to (Johnason 2009).

Training and development activities encompass the design, implementation, and analysis of educational programmes. Orientation programs are often necessary to acclimate newly hired employees to the company. HRM education and training can encompass a variety of tasks depending on the program type and scope. The HRM professional should be familiar with the basic principles of motivation and learning. They must also carefully design training and development programs which benefit both the organization and the individual. Training initiatives can include apprenticeships, internships, job rotations, mentoring, and programs to develop new skills (Collings & Wood 2009).

Compensation

Compensation is the third major HRM task. It includes all HRM duties relating to employee compensation and incentives. HRM professionals are usually charged with developing wage-and-salary systems that achieve specific organizational objectives such as employee retention and satisfaction. In the end, they aim to determine wage and salary levels which maximize investment for the company in relation to their goals. Often, this is achieved with performance-based rewards. HRM managers should learn to create compensation equity in the organization without affecting morale, and with enough financial motivation. Effective HRM managers design programs to reward employees in a way that meets their emotional needs (Johnason, 2009). For example, they can recognize good work and provide financial incentives.

Maintenance

Maintenance of Human Resources, the fourth principal HRM function encompasses HRM functions related to employee benefits, worker-management relationships, safety and health and other HRM activities. Employee benefits are non-incentive-oriented compensation, such as health insurance and free parking, and are often used to transfer nontaxed compensation to employees. HRM managers manage three main categories of benefits: employee services such as purchasing plans and recreational activities; vacations, holidays and other permitted absences; insurance, retirement and health benefits. To administer a benefit program successfully, HRM professionals must understand tax incentives, retirement plans, and the purchasing power derived by a large base employees (Collings & Wood 2009).

Human resource maintenance activities relating to safety and health are usually in

compliance with laws protecting teachers' benefits in schools. The laws are the source of regulations. HRM managers are responsible for implementing safety and training programs to reduce the school's risk exposure. They are also usually responsible for designing detailed procedures for documenting and handling injuries. Maintenance tasks relating to worker-management relationships include: working with unions, handling grievances relating to misconduct, such as theft or harassment, and devising system to foster cooperation. This area includes contract negotiations, developing policies for accepting and handling worker grievances, as well as administering programs that enhance communication and cooperation (Johnason, 2009).

Strategic Human Resource Management (HRM)

SHRM considered how the school, district, and individual each exerted influence on the recruitment, selection, and development stages of a principal human resource management (Klotz et al., 2013). Results from the SHRM recruitment and selection stages should aid districts in developing a collaborative instructional leadership growth plan, and inform the supervision and evaluation process (Chatzimouratidi, Theotokas, & Lagoudis, 2012; Copland, 2001).

Strategic human resource management (SHRM) has gained popularity over the past decade, specifically with respect to the debate on HRM and performance (Delery and Doty, 1996; Guest, 1997; Paauwe and Richardson, 1997).

According to Delery and Shaw (2001), there is general agreement that "(1) human capital can be a source of competitive advantage, (2) that HRM practices have the most direct influence on the human capital of a firm, and (3) that the complex nature of HRM systems of practice can enhance the inimitability of the system." In spite of the fact that Wright and McMahan (1992) give a broad overview of theories (e.g. transaction cost theory, agency theory, resource dependence theory, behavioral theory and institutional theory) that fit HRM issues we find that the resource-based view perspective is one of the dominating theories in the debate on SHRM. In the resource-based view emphasizes on gaining sustainable competitive advantage by means of effective and efficient utilization of the resources of an organization.

RESOURCE-BASED THEORY

This theory led to a shift in strategic management from an outside-in to an inside-out perspective. In this 'new stream' of thought, internal resources are the starting

point for determining organizational success. This is in contrast to the "old" paradigm of thinking outside-in.

Delery and Shaw (2001) claim that the resource-based perspective (RBV), which is the preferred method of examining the strategic nature HRM, offers the researcher a number of advantages. They also acknowledge criticisms about the approach, namely that the resource-based perspective does not meet standards for a theoretical perspective and contains many tautological elements. In retrospect, the RBV, based on administrative heritage and path dependency, is better suited to explain competitive advantage. It is less useful for predicting the circumstances under which a company's specific resources will generate a sustained competitive advantage.

Principal Human Resource Management (HRM)

Research literature identified recruiting, selecting, and developing an effective principal as critical to school success and student achievement (Ash, Hodge, & Connell, 2013; Clifford, 2010; Farr, 2004; Krasnoff, 2015; Rammer, 2007; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Waters & Marzano, 2006).

A principal's role requires responding to school and district contextual needs, managing systems and resources, and providing instructional leadership as evidenced in the evolving principal educational leadership standards (Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), 1996, 2008; National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA), 2009, 2015, Oregon Department of Education (ODE, n.d.).

Principal Human Resource Management (HRM) encompasses three phases: recruitment, selection, and development. Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) explicitly and intentionally systematizes the phases as a self-informing process based on organizational needs and applicant/candidate capacity (Bartling, Fehr, & Schmidt, 2012; Brymer, Molloy, & Gilbert, 2014; Clifford, 2010; Wright, Coff, & Moliterno, 2014). Although recruitment and selection practices could have exhibited SHRM attributes, the HRM stages seldom inform a strategically designed professional development plan from recruitment to evaluation (Hassenpflug, 2013).

Principal HRM and instructional leadership development bracketed the relationship between principal, school, and district to systematize typically discrete processes, even though both are founded on leadership standards and research-

based leadership characteristics (Cotton, 2003; Marzano et al., 2005; McEwan, 2003; Waters, Marzano, McNulty, 2003; Waters & Marzano, 2006; Whitaker, 2003).

The reforms have led to a significant change in the administrator roles (Farr 2004; Garofalo 2015; Hill 2009; Stone-Johnson 2014; Winter & Morgenthal 2002). The principal was responsible for all aspects of management and instruction as the leader of the institution. In a reform environment, the principal's effectiveness is critical to the school's success and student achievement. (Ash et. al., 2013, Clifford, 2010, Farr, 2004, Krasnoff 2015, Rammer, 2007, Schlueter & Walker 2008, Waters & Marzano 2006).

In order to meet districts' obligations to hire effective principals a variety of principal recruitment, selection, and HRM practices were used. These included both traditional and emerging strategies. Diverse and divergent strategies and practices reflected local needs and wants for a principal as well as the influence of policy and politics. They also created mercurial educational contexts. The increasing complexity of educational contexts increased the importance of hiring good principals. An effective instructional leader was second in importance only to a teacher's impact on student achievement.

Research on leadership standards and characteristics (Ash et. al., 2013; Cotton 2003; Fullan et. al., 2004, Hill, 2009; Honig 2012; Honig & Copland 2008; Leithwood & Poplin 1992; Waters & Marzano 2006; Whitaker 2003) defined and defended changing the role of the principal to instructional leader. This systematic support for the change of the principal's role from manager to instructor had implications for districts in establishing a framework to respond and adapt to contextual and staff variables (Schmuck, et al. 2012). Schmuck et al. According to a 2012 report, organizations must improve their systemic effectiveness and efficiency to respond to changes like the shift from manager to instructional leader. Organizational design strategies gave district leaders the tools they needed to respond to the increasingly complicated contexts of principal recruitment, selection and development.

REFERENCES

- Ash, R. C., Hodge, P. H., & Connell, P. H. (2013). The recruitment and selection of principals who increase student learning. *Education*, 134(1), 94-100.
- Bartling, B., Fehr, E., & Schmidt, K. M. (2012). Screening, competition, and job design: Economic origins of good jobs. *American Economic Review*, 102(2), 834-864
- Brymer, R. A., Molloy, J. C., & Gilbert, B. A. (2014). Human capital pipelines: Competitive implications of repeated interorganizational hiring. *Journal of Management*, 40(2), 483-508.
- Chatzimouratidi, A., Theotokas, I., & Lagoudis, I. (2012). Decision support systems for human resource training and development. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(4), 662-693.
- Clifford, M. (2010). *Hiring quality school leaders: Challenges and emerging practices*. Retrieved from http://www.air.org/sites/default/files/downloads/report/Hiring_Quality_School_Leaders_0.pdf
- Collings, D. G., & Wood, G. (2009). Human resource management: A critical approach. In D. G. Collings & G. Wood (Eds.), *Human resource management: A critical approach*. London: Routledge.
- Cotton, K. (2003). *Principals and student achievement: What the research says*. Alexandria, VA: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Copland, M. A. (2001). *The myth of the super principal*. Phi Delta Kappan, 82(7), 528-533.
- Delery, J. E. & Doty, D. H. (1996). Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency and configurational performance predictions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 802-835.
- Farr, D. T. (2004). *School principal recruitment and selection in Montana* (Doctoral dissertation, Montana State University). Retrieved from

ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Database. (305161266)

- Fullan, M., Bertani, A., & Quinn, J. (2004). New lessons for districtwide reform: Effective leadership for change at the district level has 10 crucial components. *Educational Leadership: Leading in Tough Times*, 61(7), 42-46
- Garofalo, F. R. (2015). *How district system leaders support principal capacity building in Ontario: A study of the leading student achievement initiative* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses database
- Hassenpflug, A. (2013). How to improve instructional leadership: High school principal selection process versus evaluation process. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 86(3), 90-92.
- Hill, S. D. (2009). *Leadership and sustainable change: The relationship between leadership practices of principals and reculturing schools as professional learning communities* (Doctoral dissertation, University of North Texas). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses database
- Honig, M. I., & Copland, M. A. (2008). *Reinventing district central offices to expand student learning*. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED502905.pdf>
- Honig, M. I., & Hatch, T. C. (2004). Crafting coherence: How schools strategically manage multiple, external demands. *Educational Researcher*, 33(8), 16-30
- Krasnoff, B. (2015). *Leadership qualities of effective principals*. Northwest Comprehensive Center at Education Northwest. Retrieved from <http://nwcc.educationnorthwest.org/filesnwrcc/research-brief-leadership-qualities-effective-principals.pdf>
- Leithwood, K. A., & Poplin, M. S. (1992). The move toward transformational leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 49(5), 5-18.
- Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B.A. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for

Supervision and Curriculum Development.

McEwan, E. K. (2003). *10 traits of highly effective principals: From good to great performance*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Johnason, P. (2009). HRM in changing organizational contexts. In D. G. Collings & G. Wood (Eds.), *Human resource management: A critical approach*. London: Routledge.

Paauwe, J., & Boon, C. (2009). Strategic HRM: A critical review. In D. G. Collings, G. Wood (Eds.) & M.A. Reid, *Human resource management: A critical approach*. London: Routledge.

Pace, R. W. (1991). *Human Resource Development: The Field*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Rammer, R. A. (2007). Call to action for superintendents: Change the way you hire principals. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 101(2), 67-76,128.

Schlueter, K., & Walker, J. (2008). Selection of school leaders: A critical component for change. *NAASP Bulletin*, 92(1), 5-18.

Schmuck, R. A., Bell, S. E., & Bell, W. E. (2012). *The handbook of organization development in schools and colleges* (5th ed., VitalSource bookshelf version). Santa Cruz, CA: Exchange Pointe International.

Waters, T. J., & Marzano, R. J. (2006). *School district leadership that works: The effect of superintendent leadership on student achievement*. Retrieved from http://www.ctc.ca.gov/educatorprep/ASC/4005RR_Superintendent_Leadership.pdf

Whitaker, K. S. (2003). Principal role changes and influence on principal recruitment and selection: An international perspective. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 41(1), 37-54.

CASE STUDY 10

The School:

It was a small international school in Bangkok. The school Principal is Mr. John. Students' parents are mostly from Korea, China, Singapore and Japan, very limited are from western countries such as Australia, America and England, and the rest are Thai. The school was not very big, and the students were all at the primary level. The class size was also small.

The Case:

The school usually had a short teachers' meeting every Monday, Wednesday and Friday afternoon at 3.30-4.00 pm, just to use that short time period to inform some important news or to check and confirm with all the teachers about the recent issues. Sometimes, the short meeting lasted only about a few minutes, if there were nothing big deal to talk or address in that week. All the teachers were required to attend.

But the school manager told the Chinese teacher Miss Jenny and Thai teacher Ms. Noi that starting from next week, they could be excused and no need to attend that 30-minutes short meeting. Why? The truth was some parents paid some extra after-class fees for asking the Chinese or Thai teacher to help their kids' homework, because those parents couldn't read Chinese or Thai, and they felt difficult to help their children by themselves at home. So the school manager decided to ask the Chinese teacher and Thai Teacher to teach those students as their parents requested, on every Monday, Wednesday and Friday afternoon at 3.30-4.00pm. Thus, He told Jenny and Noi that they won't need to go to the short meeting on those days' afternoon at 3.30-4.00pm, starting from next week.

Miss Jenny and Ms. Noi felt “since the students paid the fees for asking their help, then they can teach but why the school manager didn’t mention how to pay them?” So they asked the manager, and he said as the time period is “every Monday, Wednesday and Friday afternoon at 3.30-4.00pm”, at which they were supposed to attend the school meeting originally, but now they were allowed not to attend, but to do some teaching for only 30 minutes, so the school won’t pay them, as anyway, they must work during these 30 minutes of every Monday, Wednesday and Friday afternoon. And the manager also said, though the parents paid some extra fees, these fees are very limited, as the school tried to encourage the parents to learn Chinese or Thai language, and also because the students only study 1.5 hour per week, he said that the school didn’t charge a lot money.

Key areas for reflection

1. *Job Analyzing and Negotiation*
2. *Human Resource Management*
3. *Strategic HRM*
4. *School-based Management*
5. *Extra-curriculum Teaching*
6. *Professional Development*

Problem Framing:

1. Assume you are the school Principal, Mr. John, firstly determining the main issue (problem) in this case; then describes your ideas reflected from this issue.

2. Assume you are the Chinese teacher for this international school, what will you do when you communicate with the Principal in terms of this issue?

Questions:

1. Based on what you learned from Human Resource Management and Educational Administration theories; do you think the school manager had the right to do like that? Why and why not?

2. If you were Miss Jenny or Ms. Noi, what will be your plan for dealing with this issue? Will you just accept his decision or fight with it?

3. What do you plan to talk or negotiate with the school manager? Please use some theories to support your talk and plan.

Suggested Readings:

- Boselie, P., J. Paauwe and P.G.W. Jansen (2001) Human resource management and performance: lessons from the Netherlands, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7(12),
- Bossi, M. (2008). Six dimensions of leadership: ACSA has developed its leadership coaching model around six dimensions of leadership that will clarify, integrate and focus research and standards. *Leadership*, 37(3), 8-12.
- Boxall, P. and J. Purcell (2000) Strategic human resource management: where have we come from and where should we be going? *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 2(2), 183-203.
- Mirvis, P.H. (1997) Human resource management: leaders, laggards, and followers, *Academy of Management Executive*, 2(11), 43-56
- Brymer, R. A., Molloy, J. C., & Gilbert, B. A. (2014). Human capital pipelines: Competitive implications of repeated interorganizational hiring. *Journal of Management*, 40(2), 483-508.
- Byrne-Jiménez, M., & Orr, M. T. (2012). Thinking in three dimensions: Leadership for capacity building, sustainability, and succession. *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership*, 15(3),33-46.
- Chatzimouratidi, A., Theotokas, I., & Lagoudis, I. (2012). Decision support systems for human resource training and development. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(4), 662-693.
- Clifford, M. (2010). *Hiring quality school leaders: Challenges and emerging practices*. Retrieved from http://www.air.org/sites/default/files/downloads/report/Hiring_Quality_School_Leaders_0.pdf
- Fink, A. (2017). *How to conduct surveys: A step-by-step guide* (6th ed., Kindle edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Gill, J., & Hendee, R. (2010). Leading others into leadership. *Principal*, 89(5), 16-18.
- Gully, S. M., Phillips, J. M., & Kim, M. S. (2014). Strategic recruitment: A multilevel perspective. In K. Y. T. Yu & D. M. Cable (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of recruitment*. New York.
- Hancock, D. R., Black, T., & Bird, J. J. (2006). A study of factors that influence teachers to become administrators. *Journal of Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 6(1), 91-105.
- Hargreaves, A. (2009). Leadership succession and sustainable improvement. *School Administrator*, 66(11), 10-14. Retrieved from <http://www.aasa.org/SchoolAdministratorArticle.aspx?id=10134>
- Hassenpflug, A. (2013). How to improve instructional leadership: High school principal selection process versus evaluation process. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 86(3), 90-92.
- Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B.A. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
- Priem, R.L., and Butler, J.E. (2001). Is the resource-based view a useful perspective for strategic management research? *Academy of Management Review*, 26, 22-40
- Wright, P.M., McMahan, G.C. & McWilliams A. (1994) Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: a resource-based perspective, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5, 301-26
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed., Kindle edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

BIOGRAPHY

Asst. Prof. Dr. Yan Ye

Surname: YE

Given name: YAN

Nationality: China

Gender: Female

Email: yan.ye@stamford.edu



Education experiences:

1998-2002 School of English, Hangzhou Normal University, China
(**Bachelor of Art in English Language Education**)

2003-2005 Graduate School of Education, Assumption University,
Thailand (**Master of Educational Administration**)

2006-2008 Graduate School of Education, Assumption University,
Thailand (**Ph. D of Educational Leadership**)

Work experiences:

April, 2013-2019 Full-time Lecturer, for Master's and Ph. D program of Educational Administration and Leadership, Director of Educational Research, Statistics and Measurement Center, Chairperson in Research Committee at Graduate School of Human Sciences, Assumption University, Thailand

Jan, 2020-now Director of the PG Program in Education Administration, Graduate School, Stamford International University, Thailand