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FEMALE DISCRIMINAION AT JAPANESE WORKPLACES IN BANGKOK METROPOLITAN REGION, THAILAND

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This thesis is dedicated to

To my greatest hero, my dad, who passed away without knowing that I continue my study to the Master. He was the greatest inspiration for contributing this female discrimination thesis, since he was the guy who believed and encouraged women to have the equal human rights and equal treatment to men's.

To my mum and my lovely sisters who always support and stand by my when I need someone.

To My beloved grandpa, who wanted to come to Scandinavia but he never did.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to find female discrimination at Japanese workplaces in Bangkok metropolitan region because Japanese working system contain high female discrimination and gender inequality. Thus it was interesting to know the situation of female discrimination in Japanese firms in Thailand whether it exists or not. In this thesis, the feminist research approach was used as the main framework, and the quantitative method as the main research method. For the quantitative analysis, the 120 e-questionnaires were sent to the Thai female workers at Japanese firms in Bangkok metropolitan region. There were 77 answered respondents. In the questionnaire, the questions were divided into two parts which are general questions and female discrimination-related questions. SPSS was utilized as the main program for statistical analysis. In SPSS, descriptive statistics: frequency and tabulation, and correlation, were analyzed. The conclusions were that Thai female employees do not feel that they are discriminated, and high-salary women feel dissatisfied with their remuneration.

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Abbreviations

HDI Human Development Index

GEM Gender Empowerment Measure

FDI Foreign Direct Investment

MITI Ministry of International Trade and Industry (Japan)

BOI Board of Investment (Thailand)

ESCAP Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

HR Human Resource

TLSC Thai Labour Solidarity Committee

TLC Thai Labour Campaign

NGO Non-Government Organization

EEOL Equal Opportunity Law

NSO National Statistical Office (Thailand)

ONCWA Office of the National Commission on Women's Affairs (Thailand)

THB Thai Baht

1. Introduction

1.1 Research Background

The focus of this thesis is female discrimination at Japanese workplaces located in Bangkok metropolitan region in Thailand. In 2007, Human Development Index--HDI reported that Japan is one of the best countries of development, ranked in 10th among 182 countries and it is also the best country in Asia (Human Development Report 2009). While the HDI informed high rank of Japan's development, the human and social measurement organizations such as Gender Empowerment Measure—GEM reported the reversed statistics. The GEM showed spectacularly argument by observing women's political and business participation that Japanese women still have much less power than men compare to other developed countries'. Japan was ranked 54th out of 93 countries (ibid). Moreover, to calculate the score of GEM index is not only women's economical and political participation, but also the percentage of women in senior official and managerial positions (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 69). Hence, from the mentioned statistic, Japanese women still have to face with severe trouble in securing from companies where many of them remain in subordinate positions in the workplaces (Sugimoto 2002: 157).

From my working and studying experiences, I found that there are many interesting observations about the relationship between Japan and Thailand. Business relationship seems to be one of the most obvious examples when people talk about relationship between two countries. Especially Japan's Ministry of International Trade and Industry—MITI began its integration into the international economic scene in the 1970s. MITI emphasized to the industrial policy which liberalized import quotas, tariffs and capital control (World Bank 1993: 101). Not so long time after Japan' economic growth, Thailand experienced the transformation of government policy from the import substitution strategies to the export orientation during 1980s. The main of government policy was to input the machinery for balancing the Foreign Direct Investment—FDI, consequently, during 1980 to 1988, the foreign investment was tripled. Until today, more than half of Thailand's total exports are manufactures and most of the productions are produced by foreign firms and joint venture (ibid: 142).

In addition, today, Japan and Thailand's investments are firmly engaged to each other especially the direct investment in importation of capital goods and semi-finished products

from Japan (Embassy of Japan in Thailand 2011). According to the Board of Investment (Thai government agency looking after investment promotion)—BOI's report in 2000, Japanese firms invest directly to Thailand counted for more than 50 per cent of Thailand total foreign investment. As well as, in 2007, 24.7 per cent of Thai imports were from Japan firms, and 14.8 per cent of the exports were for Japan (Embassy of Japan in Thailand 2011). However, Embassy of Japan mentioned that the direct investments in Thailand are concentrated to Bangkok metropolitan region, and the Thai government is now trying to encourage more investment to rural areas.

The business relationship between Japan and Thailand continues to strengthen with the active economic Japanese investment which played a big role in Thailand (Embassy of Japan in Thailand 2011). As Japanese's business partner, Thailand now has many Japanese industries and firms around the country and even more overcrowded in Bangkok area as mention above. In general, Japanese people are easily found in Bangkok; some of them are tourists and some of them probably wear suits with neckties as they are business men.

From my personal experience from working in a Japanese company located in Bangkok Thailand, I found many and only Japanese men in the top managerial position. This working condition is not only in my previous workplace, but also in other companies that I had contacted to. I also normally found that there are Thai and Japanese male chiefs working together in the same companies, however Thai women (also Japanese) are less seen in the top positions. Thus, for what I have experienced I come up with a simple curiosity that if Japanese firms establish the companies in Thailand, they might also bring their working tradition or culture with them. Also, according to my reading experience, it has been assumed that presently, with women's increasing educational levels and the transforms in social acceptance of gender equality. On the one hand, more women move into management positions. On the other hand, there are some evidences arguing that the progress of women in managerial position has been still slower and difficult than of men. The gender gap becomes more apparent at senior levels, generally in the large firms (Yukongdi and Benson 2005: 139). Therefore, the discrimination against women in Japanese workplaces challenges me to find the gender inequality's incident in workplaces in Bangkok metropolitan region.

I chose Bangkok metropolitan region for my research because this area contains very densed firms and residences which established in and around Bangkok area since 1980s. Besides the experience of the high growth of the economy, Bangkok was also urbanized rapidly. While agricultural outputs have been shrinking, industrial outputs and industrial demands for labours have been increasing (McGee and Robinson 1995: 133-134). The 1980s economic growth provided multinationals and joint ventures to Bangkok, at the same time gave above-market levels of wages, and demanded high proportion of skilled labours (Phongpaichit and Baker 2002: 221).

Economic development took Bangkok to an urbanization era which extended to Bangkok's nearby provincial boundaries. The adjacent provinces are approximately 50 kilometers from the center of Bangkok, administrated into the provinces of Nonthaburi, Phathum Thani, Samut Prakan, Samut Sakhon and Nakhon Phathom (McGee and Robinson 1995: 134). Therefore, as mentioned above, in this industrialized area there are many Japanese firms established in the form of companies and factories.

The reasons I chose to study female discrimination at Japanese firms located in Bangkok metropolitan region are because firstly, according to Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan (2008 see appendix 1-2) Thailand, especially concentrated in Bangkok, has approximately 44,000 Japanese registered residents. Big firms, which have subordinated companies or branches in Thailand, are typically controlled by rotated Japanese chiefs. Thus, it is interesting to see whether Japanese working system provide female discrimination as mentioned or not.

Secondly, since there was high growth of Thai economy during these two decades, the demand for labour force also increased, and significant proportion of women turns to participate in labour marker e.g. government sectors and private firms (United Nations, ESCAP 1999: 121-122, Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 202). According to world economic forum 2005, across 48 countries, Thailand women's empowerment was ranked number one. However, in the term of economic participation, women are still lagged behind men in gender equality aspect (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 199). Thus, it is interesting to know whether Thai women still have their power when they work at Japanese firms or not.

1.2 Research Objective

The research objective of this thesis is to analyse the gender inequality in Japanese companies located in Bangkok metropolitan region, Thailand. The research would base on feminist standpoint theory which principally aims to use feminist point of view as research approach. Feminist approach particularly concern to the understanding why inequity between women and men exists, and also position women in the political and personal boundaries. The researchers often start their study from the political commitment that provides a political act to women's lives through social and individual transform (Letherby 2003: 4-5). Thus to study female discrimination in the workplaces, feminist empirical approach seems to be the most suitable method for this thesis.

To approach to the research, I utilize a questionnaire asking women's perspectives about gender discrimination in their workplaces to test my hypothesis. Questionnaire requires respondents to answer the female discrimination related question such as remuneration, Japanese working system in respondents' perspectives and the existence of female discrimination by their three authorities: Japanese chiefs, Thai chiefs and Human Resource Department (from now will be called HR). The questions firstly ask general information such as age, gender, education, income per month, length of working experiences and so on. In this thesis, I questioned about gender because, I can easily distinguish women and men, since I use only female respondents as my only one gender is the target group. (why ask gender if u know ur target group is female) The respondents are completed in a way of objectification. As for the questions in this survey, it contains female discrimination and gender inequality questions, for example, direct and indirect experiences of female discrimination in respondents' working life in Japanese firms, job satisfaction, and job satisfaction.

For research analysis, I use quantitative method to rearrange the data I received from the respondents. Quantitative method is the way to approach to the study based on numerical data analysed statistically (Muijs 2004: 3), thus it is suitable to my numeral data which is conceived in the numeral form of degree answers such as very much and medium stand for the number a 5, 4 and 3 respectively.

1.3 Research Problems

One of feminist researchers Kimoto (2003: 25) alleged in her book that it has been a rapid growth of women in Japanese labour market. However, although those women in Japanese labour market are skilled, unions always prevent those women from participants in skilled jobs giving a reason that 'Women are not supposed to do it'. With the excuse to remain men's power, companies place women in subsidiary positions or in the rigid remuneration system (ibid: 29). Hartmen (1976 in Kimoto 2003: 22) stated that job discrimination by gender is the main device securing the domination of men in the labour market. Same as Hartman, Beechey (1993 in Kimoto 2003: 24) also argued that men have not be regarded as 'gender subjects' and empower themselves in the workplaces separately against women. In general, Japanese female officers in high position are very few and far lower than male officers. According to Otake (2008), there were only 5.8 percent of Japanese women officers reaching to the section chiefs, and, just 3.7 percent could reach to department heads. The female discrimination in Japanese workplace remains unchanged even though Japanese laws give people gender equality and human right. Bishop (2005: 170) also add that discrimination in Japanese offices appear in the form of remuneration, working position and promotion. And, Japanese women still work under pressure from male chiefs and colleagues. Indeed, Japanese labour market tends to have a wider remuneration gap based on gender.

It is important to bear in mind that some of female workers might or might not face with the double standards or the gender inequality by their companies; thus the result of the thesis would depend on the answers of respondents. To look at the female discrimination in Japanese companies in Thailand, I chose Bangkok metropolitan region as my fieldwork because Japanese firms are highly concentrated in Bangkok and surrounding areas. In addition, the research questions and the answers evident the existence or none-existence of women discrimination in Japanese companies located in Thailand, especially, in term of remuneration and job positions, and how Thai female workers feel to Japanese firms.

1.4 Research Method

The thesis draws from the quantitative data and analyse data using quantitative methods. Most of the statistical information of the thesis comes from questionnaires. Thesis' questions focus on the perspective and satisfaction of Thai female workers in Japanese firms. To examine women's discriminated working experiences at Japanese workplaces located in

Bangkok metropolitan region, it is necessary to have an understanding of women experiences from in various questions about female discrimination. From the research focus, there is a material needed to be used which is:

• Questionnaire: This thesis is a contribution quantitative thesis which relies on the survey and answers from respondents. The questionnaires are sent out in the form of equestionnaire which is easy to collect the answers and is simple to access for office workers. Since the respondents are Thai, the questionnaire is also translated and written in Thai language. The questionnaire also enquires about general questions such as sex, age, education and so on. Additionally, I make the questionnaire as empirical evidence by asking female workers in Japanese companies about experiences in gender inequality in working environments. The questions also have the degree answers started from very much, much, medium, less and never for example. Finally, after gathering the questionnaire, I used SPSS as the main program for analyse this quantitative research.

1.5 Research Questions

In order to identify the research problems, this thesis provides two specific research questions about female discrimination in Japanese offices located in Bangkok metropolitan region, Thailand which are;

1. Is there female discrimination in Japanese companies located in Bangkok metropolitan region, Thailand?

I study 1.) What is happening in Japanese firms in Japan in term of female-discrimination and 2.) Is there female discrimination in Japanese firms in Thailand, and Is such discrimination the same kind and same degree in Japan?

The first question is answered by the literature review of female discrimination in Japanese firms in Japan. The second question is answered by both of literature review of female discrimination in Thailand, especially in Japanese firms, and the answers from Thai female employees in Japanese workplaces in Bangkok metropolitan region.

2. What are Thai female employees' perspectives about Japanese remuneration system?

The answers for this question are responds from questionnaires about perspectives toward Japanese working system and the remuneration system in their companies. The education factor is semi-controlled. The respondents of questionnaires are female workers holding at least two-year graduation certificate from colleges or bachelor degree from university as mentioned before. The reason of this control is that the high educated women tend to have more negotiating power than the low educated ones.

Additionally, the lower educated workers, regardless of gender factor, tend to get the low-wage, less-welfare, and low-profiled position in the office. Due to negotiation power of low educated people, discrimination in the workplaces might happen from educational factors and low-profile jobs. Finally, researcher attempts to summarize the significance of gender equalities in Japanese workplaces in Thailand by following the gender discrimination and feminism theories. The adoption of working system and payment system from Japan might provide something to Thai staff and workplaces which researcher need to find out more from the thesis questions.

1.6 Theoretical Framework

In this thesis, female discrimination in Japanese workplace located in Thailand is the main object inspired by the female discrimination problems in Japanese and Thai work places.

For the theoretical framework, I use the liberal feminist theory to look into the problems of Japanese and Thai female discrimination. The liberal feminist theory focuses on taking women into managements and breaking through the glass-ceiling to position of authority which also promotes women to equal-representation rules and financial support (Lorber 2010: 25). The differences between men's and women's jobs or the wage gap between men and women are also the source of this theory. However, I utilize liberal feminist only in the theories and literature review chapters, because it is clearer if we read literature review framed by the feminist perspective and liberal feminist theory. To use this theory in my work, I gathered the articles and books which have topics relevant to my research topic and feminist perspectives. Moreover, the liberal feminist theory also provides contribution in the same way of my thesis which requires making gender discrimination visible and encounter its effects by monitoring women's professional association (ibid: 26).

Furthermore, to make questionnaire and conclusion of this thesis, I utilized feminist standpoint perspective as the main framework in this thesis. In feminist standpoint perspective, it brings women to be in the center of study which matches to the focus of this thesis. In addition, feminist standpoint perspective's method also ask women's point of view from the interview or question which will be seen in the analysis chapter. In order to show women's social reality ignorance, feminist standpoint takes more critical view to gender gap (Lorber 2010: 189-190). As a result, within feminist standpoint, the study focuses on female discrimination at Japanese workplaces asking the target group about their perspectives toward the existence of gender discrimination in their workplaces.

1.7 Structure of Thesis

Chapter 1. Introduces the purpose of the research. In this chapter, researcher plans to provide the research objectives. As well as the research questions and the overall of the research plan.

Chapter 2. Presents the literature review and theories about feminist perspective in Thailand and Japan, gender discrimination in Thailand and Japan, summary of related research and article.

Chapter 3. Discusses research design methods.

Chapter 4. Analyses the received data using descriptive analysis of key variables as the main analysis. In this chapter, the results will be combined with theories from chapter 2 to see the correlation between various variables.

Chapter 5. Concludes and Suggests further Research

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction

Making use of the present literature on women and femininities, I use a gender inform perspectives to highlight on women working in Japanese firms and Thai firms in term of women participation in working places. The goal of this chapter is to contribute the discussion of hierarchy in Japanese and Thai working system according to the literatures, and the comparison of Japanese and Thai women in working places. Many feminist academics working on gender inequality and feminists' perspectives always mention about the findings of female discrimination in family and workplaces.

Main object of gender inequality in the workplaces mostly focuses on women's remuneration and job discriminatory behavior such as gender segregation in job description and position. Especially in Asia where believed to contain high gender inequality level, male preferences and the female discrimination are always issued among feminist activists (Debroux 2010: 27-28, Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 8-10). In general, men are more likely to gain the high skilled jobs or offered to higher pay than women even though they have equal qualification (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 8).

Thus, according to this thesis' topic and research questions, I narrowed down the studied location to Bangkok metropolitan region, I started the research by seeking for the context of female discrimination in Japan and Thailand as research-related literatures and theories. Related works that I use in this chapter contain the gender issues in Japan and Thailand. Then I focus in detail of gender inequality in those researches, and women's position in the societies.

2.2 Theoretical Departure

According to Fagenson (1993), to study gender-organization-system perspective, the opportunities for women [emphasis on] managerial position are the consequence from the interaction of number of action, not the isolate event. To see the gender inequality in the workplaces, it is not only the finding of how the differences between men and women experiences, but also of the organization and system which are the main factors of the female discrimination in the workplaces. The gender-centered and organization structure

perspectives are utilized to comprehend inappropriate characteristics of women who have underrepresented in top management positions (Fagenson, 1990). For this thesis not only feminism point of view will be adopted, but also the gender–organization–system perspective, a systems-oriented approach (Fagenson, 1993).

Fagenson's gender–organization–system perspective recognized the instantaneous interaction between the individual, organization and society. However, this perspective suggests that the limited advancement of women in organizations is not due to either their gender and gender-centered perspective or the organization structure and its perspective, but that both together influence and form women's behaviour at workplaces (Fagenson 1990, 1993 and Yukongdi and Benson 2005: 141-142). This perspective on its own is not adequate to clarify why there are few women in managerial positions (Yukongdi and Benson 2005: 142). Particularly, when research results have discovered women's development in organizations remained slow even in conditions which women provide the same qualification as men (Cleveland *et al.*, 2000).

However, there are some other perspective toward gender inequality in the workplaces that according to Kanter (1977), in every society, there are 'advantageous' and 'disadvantageous' job situations. Advantageous positions, which offer official power and opportunities, are controlled by individuals who are the majority (men). However, disadvantageous positions, which offer less power, smaller opportunities and limited advancement, are held by individuals whose social group is few in number (women). Individuals both in advantageous and disadvantageous positions develop attitudes and behaviour that reflect and justify their job situations which will be diverged by their attitudes and behaviour toward differences in the opportunity and power structures in organizations rather than to gender (Kanter: 1977).

Thus to look at the disadvantage and advantage of women in high position, the gender-organization-system perspective is the most useful theoretical framework for women in management research (Omar and Davidson, 2001). From gender-organization-system perspective argues that behaviour in organizations can be comprehended as relations between gender, situations, and the social-institutional system where these interactions take place (Martin *et al.*, 1983). In this perspective it contends that women's behaviour is a product of both their gender and the organization structure (Fagenson & Horowitz, 1985). The perspective also produces on the perception of organization structure to gather not only

power, job situations, and the number of individuals that form and characterize women's behaviour, but also consider organizational variables such as history, ideology, and policies (Martin *et al.*, 1983).

Many variables i.e. societal and institutional practices, expectations and stereotypes regarding roles of women and men in society can affect the structures and organizational progressions (Martin et al., 1983). These variables can also influence and be influenced by women's attitudes and behaviour at work (Fagenson, 1990). According to Yukongdi and Benson (2005: 146) the fundamental statement of a number of theories is that culture does not transform, but remains fixed. But societies have experienced shifts in values regarding the role of women and the concept of gender equality (Yukongdi and Benson 2005: 146).

Adopted the concept of Thai-Japanese gender inequality, female discrimination and Fagenson's gender-organization-system perspective, the thesis is ready to explore the result form Thai women in Japanese workplaces in Bangkok metropolitan. Since rapid economic change has transformed these economic spheres, it is important to know the attitude of working women today toward the issue of gender inequality in the workplaces.

2.3 Japanese Working System

In Japanese working society, Yoshio (2003) divided Japanese female workers into two categories which are Sōgō shoku and Ippan shoku literally mean all-around employees and ordinary employees respectively (ibid: 156-157). According to Yoshio's statement, the concept of sōgō shoku and ippan shoku contain two criteria that make women in Japanese society different which are education and working condition (ibid). Sōgō shoku is a small group of elite female employees who willing to work as the same condition of men such as working overtime or rotated another office where might far from their home (ibid: 156). The sōgō shoku has better position than the ippan shoku because they hold higher education at least bachelor degree from university. While the sōgō shoku is a group of high educated women, the ippan shoku is low wage workers who normally have lower education background such as two years junior college and also fewer roles in their firms (ibid: 157).

However, Bishop (2005) argued that in fact there are three types of female workers in Japan which also grant fairly different definition compare to Yoshio. Bishop's three types of female

workers are sōgō shoku, ippan shoku and senmon shoku (ibid: 123). Not similar to Yoshio's definition, Bishop defined that sōgō shoku is managerial track or career track (ibid), ippan shoku is general clerical track or co-worker track which provide only for women (ibid: 123, 127-129) and senmon shoku is specialist track (ibid: 123).

Like Bishop's division, Brinton (2001: 126) supported that the white-collar occupations in East Asia, including Japan, are mainly divided to three types: 'professional', 'technical' and 'clerical' occupations which led women to enroll to higher education since the WWII. Bishop also alleged that it does not matter what you are graduated from because finally high educated women have the same faith that they have to start working in low position as a ippan shoku or clerical jobs (ibid: 127). While women are distributed in clerical support jobs, men are allocated in the positions of higher responsibility (Hane and Perez 2009: 442). The huge differences between these two scholars are the definition of Japanese working tracks, especially the definition of sogo shoku.

General speaking, Yoshio might be right that sōgō shoku defines a group of high educated people. Nonetheless, in fact it happens just for men not for women. Meanwhile Yoshio stated that sōgō shoku is a group of people who hold at least four years in university level (Yoshio 2003:156); Bishop argued, according to his field work in Japan, that the education is necessary but insufficient condition. To be sōgō shoku, women have to work harder and longer period than men (Bishop 2005: 128-130). Sōgō shoku usually work overtime and have to accept working rotation from the companies (ibid: 123). Sometimes, there is also an exception for the sōgō shoku if they have extra qualification such as graduated from prestige oversea universities or have professionally working experiences abroad (ibid: 128-130). Bishop also affirmed that no matter how high the position of sōgō shoku women are holding, they are still subordinate to men in the same position (ibid: 130). However, Yoshio did not give much information about the process of becoming sōgō shoku and ippan shoku. He mostly informed the number of existence of sōgō shoku from 1999-2002 and the education of both group (Yoshio 2003: 158-159).

2.4 Thai Working System

On the one hand, according to Bishop's fieldwork, in Japan the educated women admitted gender inequality and female discrimination. On the other hand, in Thailand it is found that

Thai women are more likely to accept their faith of being lack of education or unskilled instead of the gender issue (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 206). Since Thailand experienced economic high growth in this past two decade, the countries need skilled and professional workers into the labour market. For this reason, gender inequality and education have been legitimated for women, and in the same time improve their social status (Yukongdi 2005: 267).

Not likely to men, women are always fewer than men in managerial positions, even when they have the same qualification as men; women are still underrepresented at the managerial level (Cleveland *et al.*, 2000 and Yukongdi 2005: 269). Women Thai employers in industry sectors often employ unskilled women and pay them very low wages because in industry sector, it is not necessary to have the high skill or high education. Women in industries are believed that they have less bargaining power which is unnecessary to the job descriptions (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 206). Unskilled women also have to confront with many problem e.g. low wages, repetitive tasks, limited career paths and the lack of opportunity for skilling and additional education and training (Brown and Chaytaweep 2008: 100). Women are taken into account as they are high patient because the industries' works are routine. After working for a while, the employers will found them less productivity when they are old; as a result, the employer usually laid them off (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 206).

Additionally, the female grass-roots class in Thailand is now suffering with their poverty; in contrast, the role of upper-class women is rising in corporate world. According to the 2011 Grant Thornton International Business Report (Bangkok Post, 08-03-2011), the percentage of women in senior positions is the highest at 45 percent in Thailand, followed by Georgia (40 percent), Russia (36 percent), Hong Kong and the Philippines (both 35 percent). At the same time, some other Asian countries still hold the world lowest percentages of female senior roles. India, the United Arab Emirates and Japan, for example, are holding the lowest senior position where the percentages of women in managerial positions are lower than 10 percent of the total senior position (Bangkok Post: 2011). Globally, the average of women employed in the senior managerial positions is just 8 percent. However, among Asian countries, Thai women in high executive position are still the most employed with 30 percent of firms employing female CEOs followed by mainland China, Taiwan and Vietnam 19, 18 and 16 percent respectively (ibid).

Besides the higher education of new generation of Thai women, one reason that contributes Thai women to the leadership is the strength of Thailand's labour movement such as the Thai Labour Solidarity Committee—TLSC, the Thai Labour Campaign—TLC, a labour-affiliated nongovernment organization—NGO established in early 2000 (Brown and Chaytaweep 2008: 101). With the more educated women together with operation of labour movement which provides organizational vehicles, Thai women are assuming important leadership roles (ibid: 112). Hence, for further studies, it is very interesting to investigate the factors and effects of poor or wealth people among female workers, or compare job divergence's effects in the term of gender inequality.

Although the role of Thai women are increasing in the high position in the labour market as mention above, their portion among female workers are still lower than women in other groups. From Fagenson's gender-centered perspective, it was argued that we should not look only how men can possess the suitability of high position, but also the influence of situational factors; for example organization structure and interaction between individual and organization (Fagenson: 1993 and Yukongdi 2005: 269). According to individual and organization interaction, it should not study separately because organization is also included many variables such as a number of individuals, opportunity structure, organizational policies and power structure which influence the individual behavior (Yukongdi 2005: 269).

2.5 A Comparison between female discrimination in Thailand and Japan

I found useful research of elite female workers in Thailand and Japan in an article in 1998. Appold, Siengthai and Kasarda (1998) gave the sample of female discrimination in Thailand among Thai, Japanese and US workplaces. The research points that the employment of professional women faced with gender inequality as an organizational practice which is similar to my thesis in many aspects. For example, the research locations are in Thai and Japanese workplace and research method is the quantitative research and statistical analysis.

Appold and his colleague highlight on high-skill task performed women at workplaces who believed that within cultural values, young women have been obtained less job participation than men with comparable education (Appold *et al.* 1998: 545). Some scholars hold that Japanese firms are the world's most related male-dominated labour market where often neglect the promotion policy against women (Lam 1992:5, in Appold *et al.* 1998: 544).

Frequently, Japan headquarter offices have been the target of sex discrimination law suits since Japanese young female workers are believed that they will impertinently work in the firms because they will quit job to raise their family someday. As a result, it no needs to promote women to the manager stage (Appold *et al.* 1998: 544-545). Appold and colleagues stated a hypothesis about culture values of women at workplaces that cultural values research base on the core national values and national differences behavior. Japanese and Thai firms will employ quite few women in high-skill positions while in the U.S. will employ many (ibid: 545). The culture value that Appold and his colleague see here is different between two continents: Asia and North America—The U.S.

The result found that in Thailand, among Japanese, US based firms and Thai local firms, Thai local firms contained higher proportions of women in upper management than other two. However, Japanese firms in Thailand behaved contrast to their home based firms that the proportions of high skill women are required higher than in US firms (Appold et al. 1998: 555). Therefore, there were no supports for the culturally established personnel practice on women requirement because human resources indicate an interaction between nationality and gender differences (ibid: 555). Furthermore, contrary to expectation, Japanese firms contain higher proportion of female workers than the U.S.'s (ibid: 554). Thai firms unexpectedly contain two and three times higher proportion of women in upper management than the foreign-based firm, The U.S. and Japan respectively (ibid: 555). It is very interesting that Appold and his colleague found Japanese firms in Thailand behave in contrast to their home country-based firms that they require Thai women to their firm even more than the proportion of female workers in the U.S. based firms (ibid: 555). Additionally, Yukongdi and Rowley (2009: 8-10, 12 and 15) found that women in Japan are still oppressed at workplace the same holds for Thailand. It is found that workplaces are still using male preference concept when it comes to remuneration or employment (ibid).

From Appold's research, there are no culture value affecting the employment in Japanese, Thai and the U.S firms. Especially in Thai firms, Appold found that in job employment in Thai firms there are not traditionally obstruct women to the work, but they open to both men and women (Appold *et al.* 1998: 561). Thai women are found both in top and bottom rank of working position that implied that gender is just a number of divisions contributing to social distance in organization (ibid). Japanese firms appear to be male dominance society where there is no shortage of male labor. Surprisingly, Lawler (1994 in Appold *et al.* 1998: 560)

monitored that Japanese firms established in Thailand were the group most likely to draw women into employment in their Thai operations.

The no solution of culture value to the employment in the research, yet, can refer to some scholars' study, which stated that what is matter in the job requirement and segregation is social "belief". Kimoto (2003: 35) argued that belief play powerful role in gendered job discrimination. The very pattern of job segregation is gendered people, and divides the jobs to men's job and women's job (ibid: 36). In a similar stream, some academics have stated that the pressure of Asian cultures and religious traditions contributed to the underutilization and underrepresentation of Asian women in management (Adler: 1993-94). On the contrary, some researchers have discovered a rising figure of Asian women moving into managerial positions formerly controlled by males. Appold and his colleague (1998: 559-560) found the raising participation of women in the workplaces may develop financial return, especially return on equity. Simultaneously, a larger participation of women led to reduced organizational engagement among men, probably imposing transition expenditures.

In Thailand, the ownership and kinship provide women more equality than in Confucianism believing countries (Falk 2010: 111). Women in Thai society are expected to have the gratitude to their parents (ibid). Women have to support their family both in labour and financial supply. Thus, women are more likely to apply themselves to the labour market; especially, they were considered about suitability of jobs and education such a belief that woman should be a nurse or midwife.

In Japan, while men want to reach to good university, women previously just continued to the colleges. However, trend of women who continue studying to university are steadily rising after the WWII. The report illustrated that after the WWII women gradually increased enrollment to the university level (Brinton 2001: 128).

Meanwhile, sex discrimination toward high educated women is nature of Japanese labour market. Many firms are unwilling to invest their money to women, the firms have biased against women because they are unstable employees since women working duration are unpredictable, and they might quite jobs after they get married or pregnant (Brinton 2001: 135). Moreover, compare between university graduated female workers and junior college

educated women, sex discrimination in white-collar against high educated Japanese women is weaker at university level than junior college level (ibid: 136).

Nevertheless, since the economy had been changed, higher educated people were required in labour force participation (Brinton 2001: 130). From the study, Brinton found that demand of high educated workers plays heavily role in job requirement (ibid: 155). Bigger and expander labour market provide the job opportunities to high educated women. However, Japanese office workers still follow to the tradition which makes Japanese women passive and accepting gender discrimination (ibid). Well-educated, well-trained female office workers are regarded as temporary or non regular workers who are expected to quit their jobs after getting married (Hane and Perez 2009: 442).

Yoshio also gave the proportion of female workers in position of power such as lawyer and business managers are still far lower than men's proportion. However, since the government sanctioned two labour laws, the Equal Opportunity Law—EEOL in 1985 and Child-Care Leave Law in 1992, the trend of admission female workers are increasing. Although the proportion of women and men in workforce in Japanese have just ten percent difference, 40.8 percent of workers are women and 59.2 percent are men, however, Japanese female workers still face many discriminatory employment practice such as significant wage gap and overrepresented in the non–full-time workforce (Broadbent and Ford 2008: 158).

2.6 Female Labour Force Participation in Japan and Thailand

Indeed, the change of Japanese female workers participation in labour market is indifferent since the end of WWII till today. Japanese female workers in 1970s, 1990s and 2005 participated in labour market, which record compared to total 100 percents of Japanese women in working ages, as 49.4, 50.1 and 48.4 percents respectively (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 79).

Table 1 Labour Force Participation Rates in Japan, 1960-2005 (%)

	Women	Men	
1960	54.5	84.8	
1970	49.4	81.8	
1980	47.6	79.8	
1990	50.1	77.2	
1995	50.0	77.6	
2000	49.3	76.4	
2005	48.4	73.3	

Source: Adopted from Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 79

Similar to Japan's EEOL, Thailand also has its Office of the National Commission on Women's Affairs— (ONCWA) since 1989. Although the ONCWA also play its role on Thai women, it is different to Japanese EEOL. The EEOL is used for prohibit discrimination in recruitment, training, promotion and remuneration, and it is more specific in female labour market and workplaces (Yuknongdi and Rowley 2009: 69). But ONCWA is an advisory function to guide the Thai government to develop the policies for Thai women in general (ibid: 201). The ONCWA recently empower its organization to be the Office of Women's Affairs and Family Development producing many series of plans such as five-year development plan—The Women's Development Plans (ibid). In Thailand, after launching the Women's Development Plans, it has been shown that the plans are positively functioned especially in public sector. Although the report notified that although Thai women in managerial position still lag far behind men's, the number of executive women in public sector has been rising (ibid: 202).

In Thailand, the total population was 62.42 million in 2006 (Bank of Thailand 2007: in Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 205), and the total of labour force was 36.1 million in 2006 and employed 35.5 million (NSO 2006: in Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 205). Thai women's labour force participate in labour market is the highest of the countries of East Asia. The participation rate in Thailand recently found that in 1990 Thai women participated to labour market as 76.3 percents, in 2000 was 64.9 percents and in 2006 was 63.7 percents (ibid). It is interesting to note that the decrease in female labour participation in Thailand.

Table 2 Labour Force Participation Rates in Thailand, 1990-2006 (%)

	Women	Men	
1990	76.3	87.7	
1995	68.9	83.5	
2000	64.9	80.6	
2005	66.3	81.5	
2006	63.7	81.2	

Source: Adopted from Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 205

In Japan, Japanese sōgō shoku is the most powerful group of women, even though they are very few in Japanese firms, is that sōgō shoku are elite with high job position and experiences, therefore they have power to negotiate to men or people in same and lower level. The readyhigh-position provides those sōgō shoku to step on the male position by their knowledge in their careers. Brinton (2001: 102-103) added that Female professional workers in Japan do not face the same faith with clerical workers because the female professional workers normally do not work in large private firms and they also have special skilled which provide them the opportunities to show the capability to the firms. Nonetheless, although the female managerial workers have higher power in their hands, the truth of the differences of working duration between men and women is unable to avoid. One of Kimoto's (2003, translated in English version 2005: 76-79) finding from Japanese working society is that men and women's job promotion are very different.

Moreover, Japanese women are minorized in their workplace, because of the proportion of male and female workers are different by female workers compound as 40.8 percent while the rest is majority of the labour force. The minorization of female worker provides the gender inequality and less power to negotiate. With lower career paths, women in ippan shoku who is the majority of Japanese female workers are lack of power (Bishop 2005: 123). Minorization of female workers in Japan causes the barriers specific to women's working advantage; the barriers obstruct not only individuals to reach to higher level, but also disapprove women's working improvement. Consequently, it is repeated incident the women

who are blocked from the support are usually lack of managerial experiences, lack of mentor's roles, lack of being known in informal network and have to face with sexual harassment such as men taking credits from women's works (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 9).

In addition, although Japanese women have the same qualification with men, still they are put in ippan shoku position which they have to accept it. Hence, the EEOL, which is the law for gender equalization in employment, might not the answer of gender discrimination in Japanese workplace. The laws itself cannot render 'equal pay for equal work', because the firms still directly discriminate at least separate career paths and provide wage gap between two genders (Broadbent and Ford 2008: 157-158). Moreover, although, Japanese government seems to take the gender inequality issue as serious problems, the laws have unclear penalties and ineffective imposition. (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 92). However, as for the minority sogo shoku who already have power in their hands, the laws might profit them more than the ippan shoku, because most of the sogo shoku are already passed the process of being the ippan shoku as well as the law mainly assist the feminist activists who want to fight for gender equality in the workplaces (Bishop 2005: 11).

The EEOL also have contributed to change the attitudes about female worker (Bishop 2005: 11), yet, female discrimination and male dominated perspectives are remaining to be strong in Japan (ibid: 129-130). Compare among women, women in senmon shoku and sōgō shoku have higher working status in their companies, but compare to men, they are still far behind especially in the prospects of promotion (ibid). The words majority and minority here can refer to the number of male and female worker, and also the working status and its power too. After the EEOL, Tipton (2000 in Brooks 2006: 28) explained that, the firms responded to the law by dividing two-track or recruitment which is managerial and clerical tracks. In theory, an applicant can choose between those two tracks opened for both sexes, but in practice, male full time recruits are automatically located in managerial track while women are put in clerical track. Same as, women privatization develops women into labour market, but the ideas of sexual distinguishing of labour still depend on men (Steans and Pettiford 2005: 159) In Thai case even though women in Thailand seem to have more power than other countries, not all the sectors accept women, some of the government sectors such as in police force, armed force, politics and religion (Buddhism) sector are rarely seen women's participation (Yuknongdi and Rowley 2009: 203, Lindberg Falk 2010: 112).

One the one hand, Brinton also gave the suggestion for further research about gender discrimination that the research can progress the conceptual model of the connection between women's education and labour market change (Brinton 2001: 150) which might be interesting for people who want to study in detail of labour market and education. On the other hand, the suggested research might need the longitude research to look and to see the progress of labour and women's educational conceptual model.

Fascinatingly, the differences between Japan and Thailand's cultural influences on women's career development are mainly found in the traditional beliefs. Confucianism influences sex roles in many east Asian countries. The stereotypes of sex roles in Confucianism are that women have to support men in every way such as house working and holding lower prestige to men as daughters and wives. In such society men are superior and women are subordination that men preferences tend to complete gender inequality (Yukongdi and Rowley 2009: 10). Besides the Confucianism, Japanese cultural uniqueness of employment leads women into discrimination. Cultural uniqueness of employment was described as basis of the lifetime commitment practice and promotion systems characterizing large Japanese companies (Lam 2002: 27). Within Japanese firms, especially the large companies tend to be more exclusive and discriminated by the privileges of those currently employed [men]. The principal role are played by very few people controlling such as age, education, seniority, ability and along with job security in remuneration and allocating labour within the firms (ibid).

2.7 Differences between Japanese and Thai Female Discrimination

As from above information, the differences between Japanese and Thai female discrimiantion research is that in the research most Japanese gender researchers divide Japanese female workers into three type of ippan shoku, senmon shoku and sōgō shoku. Nonetheless, in Thailand case, scholar divide female workers by class of social position, income and working position to three positions; high, middle and low. Some western academic articles allege that women workers in Thailand also have same criteria with women in other countries as such managerial, technical and clerical workers. In my opinion, I agree with Appold and his colleague's division because in some case we cannot use the same criteria in different countries. As for Thailand case, Appold (*et al.* 1998) study two groups of organizational hierarchy, top and bottom.

Thai and Japanese working structure are different. Thai social hierarchy is said that it has a huge gap between rich and poor. Additionally, according to a report from the Bank of Thailand, the top 20 percent of the population controls 69 percent of the nation's wealth while 1 percent of the wealth of nation come from the lowest 20 percent (Symonds: 2010). The average income for the bottom 20 percent is just 1,443 baht or 45USD per month which is lower than the official poverty line (ibid). On the other hand, from the Human Development Report 2010, Japan has ranked in HDI report 2010 in the rank of a very high human development country by ranking as number 11th apart from those 169 countries (HDI: 2010 see appendix 2-1). While Japan rendered the very high development country position, Thailand remained far from Japan ranked at 98th as a medium human development country. Therefore, working hierarchy of those two countries are different.

In Thailand, women are not face inequality only in the gender employment discrimination, but also the social class discrimination because of the wage gap between rich and poor. Some researchers have alleged that class may be significant in influential opportunities in management for women in Asia (Fisher & Hutchings 1998: 129-133). As a result, along with social construct and working system, Japanese criteria for female workers division cannot be used in Thai case and vice versa. Such in case of Japanese women known as they have job circle behavior which is; step in the job recruitment, then leave the workplace to give birth, and finally return to work again as non-regular workers (Bishop 2005: 140). Married women are often found in non-regular jobs, they obtain dairy or weekly payment to support their family as their responsibility of seeking for the cost of reproduction (ibid: 147, 168). Thus, Japanese and Thai working and social structures are different, but women in both countries still share the same faith that is gender inequality and female discrimination.

The reason I choose to study women who graduate from universities in Thailand is because; high educated women have same power to negotiation and ability as men in the same level. Moreover, I question that if women are satisfied with their jobs, chiefs' treatment and remuneration, they would not agree that they are discriminated. As result from the study conducted by Appold and colleague (1998: 560), explaining that the business environment, rather than national culture, decides the choice of management strategy. The greater participation of women at the managerial level in Thai firms involved that gender is only one of a number of divisions conducing to social distance in organizations (ibid: 561).

As shown earlier in this chapter Thai women are highly represented in labour market, Appold (1998) discovered gender-plus-nationality difference suggest there is a glass ceiling in the working system. The result in their study shows that in Thailand women are accepted from the both US and Japanese companies which they suggest that it should be re-examined the application of Japanese management in the United States or elsewhere. The result of Appold's research was positive, as the outlook for Thai women was outstanding in managerial position compare to Japanese and US firms. Thai women accounted for 30 percents of supervisors, while Japanese and the US firms have less women in high position than Thais for two to three times (Appold *et al.*: 1998).

After Appold, there are many official statistics support Appold and his colleague's finding. Asian Development Bank, (1998) for example, showed the proportion of women in managerial positions in Thailand more than doubled from 1971 to 1995. However, the limited numbers of research studies on Asian women in management have contributed various results. Hildebrandt and Liu (1988: 273) and Chui and Ng (1999) have remarked that women may be disadvantaged by the human resource administration performs that exist in some Asian countries. Yukongdi (2005: 280) mentioned that the position of women in management in Thailand in future will count on the efficiency of organizational practices and policies that are allocated to remove discrimination in the workplaces, along with the roles of the government in legalizing the situation and guaranteeing that it promotes gender equality.

2.8 Conclusion

I have found some few interesting about reading and literature gap which will be explained as follow. First there are not many Thai gender studies book published compare to Japanese' books. Additionally, it is not only books that are less, but also the online article and journals that hard to find. The reason might be that gender studies schools and experts in Thailand are still not various enough to have broad researches, as well as it also might lack of fund to contribute the researches. Second, in Thai women workforce-related books or articles normally talk about grass-root class and managerial class i.e. migration labour force, prostitutes, women in parliament and female entrepreneurs, but not the middle class who are in between the grass-roots and the managerial class.

In my opinion, the problems of Thai women labour force are not only they are unskilled, but are not being provided the opportunity to improve their skill. Therefore, poor unskilled women still have to face with the poverty even though they have changed to many jobs; they still become the unskilled workers of their new workplaces. The unskilled women are also lack of negotiation power; consequently, they have to accept "whatever" available jobs to live their lives.

3. Research Design and Methods

With special focus on gender inequality against Thai workers in Japanese firms in Thailand, it necessitates to explore the firms' discrimination through women's perspectives. The empirical evidence is significantly important to prove the existence or inexistence of female discrimination in those Japanese firms.

3.1 Analytical Terminology

This section is explication of the specification words based on feminism which is similar to my research findings.

• Feminism and Feminists Perspective in Asia

Feminism as the democratic practices plays its role towards self-determination of women as a part of rethinking project and transforming hierarchies which particularly involved a critical analysis based on the local feminist political and economical practice. Feminism have engaged and connected to various broader studies, i.e. international and local relations, domination and subordination, and western and Asian gender perspectives. And within feminism theories, there are also many dimensions and theories to look through the feminism, liberal feminism, Marxist feminism, socialist feminism, post colonial and Asian feminism for instance. In fact the basic goal of all feminisms is demand for equality between men and women (Lorber 2010: 1). The most notable characteristic of feminist academic work has been its clearly political nature and feminism's engagement to material and social transform has played an important role in removing traditional academic boundaries between the personal and the political (Kemp and Squires 1997: 4 in Letherby 2003: 4).

Furthermore, feminist research practice produces different forms from other forms of research which distinguished by the questions feminists ask, the position of the researcher within the progression of research and within theorizing, and the purpose of the work generated (Letherby 2003: 5). There is however intensiveness between theories, practices, politics and researches, and much discussions and debates about the knowing/relating relationship within research (ibid).

Attitude

Attitude is the representation of evaluative response toward an object. An attitude object can be anything a person distinguish or hold in mind. Attitude object can be concrete (e.g the certain style of pizza) or abstract (e.g freedom) or group of people and etc. Attitude may compass affective behavioral and cognitive responses. People are report or interpret attitude depend on context (Bohner and Wänke 2002: 5-6).

3.2 Empirical Setting

This thesis seeks to understand the existence of female discrimination in Japanese companies located in Bangkok metropolitan region, Thailand, and, How Thai female employees who hold at least bachelor degree for universities give perspectives to Japanese remuneration system. Certainly, empirical contributions have been considerable for asking such questions "Where are the women?" or "What is women's experience of this?" (Ackerly and True 2006: 242). From those questions is a critical beginning point for examining framework (ibid) which I chose to start on my thesis. Therefore, the exploratory quantitative research approach is applied for this thesis. I use quantitative method because I want quantitative answers which are such as how many percent of women satisfied with their present job promotion. Also, this thesis wants to find the state of female discrimination located in Bangkok metropolitan region Thailand which quantitative method provides often explanation of phenomena (Muijs 2004: 7).

I divided my questionnaire into two categories, which are private/general information and main questions: Female discrimination related questions. At the first part of questionnaire, it is focusing on gender, education and wage of respondents. And in the second part of questionnaire I contribute the questions in the form of level of measurement which directly involved to the analysis part in chapter 4. Especially understanding gender wage inequality is clearly of great importance to feminists since wage setting is a deeply political and cultural, as well as economic process (Power, Mutari, and Figart 2003: 70).

Thus, in second part of the questionnaire, it is all about female workers experienced gender inequality at their workplace such as working promotion, employment standard and wage payment systems from their Japanese chiefs, Thai chiefs and HR department. Those results are applied in the analysis chapter where I integrate both part of questionnaire to see the

consequences and correlation between i.e. income per month and job satisfaction, female discrimination at workplaces' perspective and education.

3.3 Research Approach and Methods

For my research process, I use exploratory research because it is advantage when researcher wants to study new areas or tests new methods of social science (Balnaves and Caputi 2001: 17). It might not clear to estimate people's opinions by interview because many respondents are needed to answer the questions, and it will be easier to make a questionnaire with five degrees of answers such as very much, much medium, less, and never. In this thesis respondents are the most important factor because they are target group of my research.

For analysis chapter, I use quantitative method as the approach to analyse all data I collected. For received results, quantitative research method is applied to the thesis since it is analysis using mathematically based methods particular questions (Muijs 2004: 1-2).

Additionally, I also combine the feminist research approaches using for demonstrating the happening of gender inequality which the feminist research approach provide me its strong point that it present new method of thinking about problems involved in achieving security of women (Steans and Pettiford 2005: 156). Moreover, feminists discourse on security emphasis human connectedness which can be referred to the degree of how much people feel or actually "threatened" (ibid).

3.4 Data Sources

It is important to collect the result of answered questionnaire, which means satisfactory quality and the individual information are merged together. I have to not only collect number of respondents, but also the number of each answer even in the degree part. I contribute respondents as they are semi-controlled, as a result they are free to answer and give comments. However, I still have to control the questions which should bear in mind that the questions require to concentrate within the topic.

3.4.1 Sampling Method and Data Collection Process

The first process of creating questionnaire is to make a list of questions. After making questionnaire and recheck it, questions which repeat or similar to some another questions will be cut off till it is unrepeated and covering all the requested data. At the end of creating questionnaire, it eventually concludes with contains two categories: 1. Private information or general information and 2. Female discrimination related questions. In general information the questionnaire provides by checkbox format answer with the individual question of sex, age, highest education, income per month: THB, working period: year(s). And in female discrimination part, such as companies' sexual equity policies' satisfaction, the questionnaire is provided by grids format answer (see appendix 3-1).

However, the questionnaire necessitates translating into Thai language before sending because all thesis respondents are Thai female workers (see appendix 3-2). Continuously, after finishing translation, I conduct the question to the online program called google document spreadsheet and form, and the type of questionnaire called e-questionnaire ¹. For me, google document and e-questionnaire are very compatible for sending the questionnaire to remote area or anonymous required respondents.

For being translated, it was problematic with the term and sense of language. In Thai, the word female discrimination—ka:n-luuak-pa-thi-bat-ta:-phe:t-yij does not make any strong feeling like the word gender inequality— $khwa:m-mai-thaw-thiam-tha:\eta-phe:t$ for Thais. In sense of language, gender inequality is more used in general speaking more than female discrimination, because gender inequality always understands that it happens against women. Thus gender inequality's meaning, for people who are not in social science field, already integrate the meaning and sense of female discrimination. After I translated and sent the question list to 12 of my friends from various field of work and study. The result was, I was asked by many friends that the word female discrimination does not make sense for those who are not relevant to social science field, and some of them suggest me to use the word gender inequality instead. However, I still use the word ka:n-luuak-pa-thi-bat-ta:-phe:t-yij

https://spreadsheets.google.com/viewform?hl=en&pli=1&formkey=dHFEekN3RlZmZThnO HRoZGJBMlViQ3c6MQ#gid=0

⁻

¹ E-questionnaire web link (Thai Language only):

instead of *khwa:m-mâi-thâw-thiam-tha:ŋ-phê:t* that many people mention. The reason was, I was trying to solve this problem with a Thai Ph.,D student from social science, I was told that I should still use the original translated version which is female discrimination (ka:n-lŵak-pa-thi-bàt-tò:-phê:t-yĭŋ).

Furthermore, E-questionnaire sent out to roughly 120 Thai female workers in Japanese companies located in Bangkok metropolitan region from March 14 to March 21 via email and social network. Questionnaire also asked respondents gender, this is because of, if the respondents are male workers even though they are working in Japanese firms, it is important to exclude them for being irrelevant to my thesis requirement.

- Sample Characteristics
- Women who are working/ had worked in Japanese companies in Bangkok metropolitan region Thailand.
- Nationality: Thai
- 20 years of age up
- Graduated from college or higher

In this thesis, the answers are collected and used as quantitative data which explain phenomena by using mathematically based methods (Muijs 2004: 11). For my research finding, I calculated all my result in SPSS and describe the results into graphs and statistics in chapter 4. From all questions included level of agreement in female discriminatory, the answers are transformed into numerical answers, set up with number instead of words which later put in to the SPSS program for calculation. As the result, I can look at quantitatively as the data I want to collect are already available in numerical form.

3.4.2 Data Analysis

From 120 surveys sent out to women in Japanese firms in Thailand, both men and women 97 respondents answered the survey, which mean 80.8 percent of questionnaire had been answered. The numbers of male and female respondents were 20 and 77 people respectively. However, as mentioned above, this thesis focus on only women, as a consequence those 20 men are excluded. Thus, we now have 77 female respondents for this thesis study. Descriptive statistic: frequency and tabulation, and correlation were used to analyse the data obtain from the completed 77 questionnaires. The data analysis were produced in three step;

1. Descriptive analysis of the quantities of respondents from questioned individual information in term of mean and frequency e.g. age, education and income per month. 2. Descriptive analysis of key variables: mean and frequency of e.g. job satisfaction, Japanese working system advantage and disadvantage, direct and indirect experiences in female discrimination at workplaces. 3. Correlation statistics of the relationship of the studied variable.

4. Empirical Study

4.1 Introduction

The Asia and Pacific region steadily remains to experience conventional forms of discrimination, especially discrimination based on gender issue. Women in Asian still continue the biggest group facing discrimination in terms of employment opportunities and wage gaps (ILO n.d.: 1). It is said that female discrimination in Asia is a serious problem. Especially, female discrimination in Confucianism countries appears to the most serious region in Asia. From thirteenth to the nineteenth, Japanese adopted Confucianism which heavily used in the ideology of men and women and social order. Although Confucianism handed down in eighth century, but the concept that women hold lower position and men hold social and political order can still see till today (Renshaw 1999: 56, Hane and Perez 2009: 21).

From the thesis topic and question, it is clear that this thesis is about female discrimination at workplaces using quantitative research approach. Thus, to produce the clear picture of the result, I use SPSS as mentioned in previous chapter as the main device. In SPSS, I use frequency and correlation to see the quantity and relation between variables. The understanding of nature relationship of those variables can also approve the theories and finding of some scholars. In this thesis, I focus on two differences hypothesis which is this thesis' statements in terms of insight and focal point.

4.2 Hypothesis 1 and 2

Hypothesis 1: Thai female workers in Japanese firms located in Bangkok metropolitan region feel that they are discriminated by their Japanese employers.

According to Bishop, in Japanese working system, it does not matter what you are graduated from or how high education you hold, when Japanese women apply for a job, they have to face with faith of working in low position, and the better jobs are always offered to men. (Bishop 2005: 127-129). Thus, in Thai case using Japanese conceptual framework it will be questioned that; if there is female discrimination at workplaces in Bangkok metropolitan region, educated female workers might feel that they are discriminated as same as the perception of Japanese workers.

Hypothesis 2: Satisfaction among female workers at Japanese firms located in Bangkok metropolitan region are related to the level of income. Thus lower-income women report lower satisfaction at work than their female colleague with higher income.

From the hypothesis, it is common that people would feel dissatisfaction when they obtain low salary. Thus, in our thesis, we want to reconfirm that high-income Thai women in Japanese firms have high satisfaction and lower income women have lower satisfaction.

In this study, I as self-administered received the answers from 77 respondents out of roughly 120 e-questionnaires. I started sending the e-questionnaire on March 14-18 by sending the email to respondents' offices and also post on social network pages. The expected result was roughly over 50 respondents, however, on March 21, I received 97 results which contain 20 men and 77 women. Since the result showed both gender, however, I cut male respondents off, because they are not the required respondents. I also have one problem when I sent out that is some female workers rejected to answer. They noticed that they cannot compare the gender inequality in their offices because there are only female workers in the same level.

This analytical chapter shows what the respondents answered which might conform or differ to the literature review and scholars' views. The questionnaire divided to 2 groups of questions which are general information and female discrimination related questions.

4.3 General Information

Base on 77 respondents, the analysis showed that 72.7 percents of respondents have been working in Japanese firms for one to five years. In 94.7 percents of respondents are working women ages 20-40 year olds divided by ages rank 20-30 and 31-40 with the percentage of 72.7 and 24.7 percents respectively.

In the questionnaire, working women's salary per month has been grouped into 4 ranks which are first, lower than 15,000, second 15,001- 25,000, third 25,001-35,000 and forth higher than 35,001THB. According to the statistical analysis, it is illustrated that most of the studied women as 49.4 percents receiving salary in between 15,001 to 25,000THB following by 25,001-35,000 and higher than 35,001 respectively. However, compare to Thailand national income per capita as 89,981THB per year in 2009 (NSO: 2011), those respondents gain a lot more than Thailand income per capita average.

From the statistical analysis, most of the female workers hold bachelor and master degrees from university as 80.5 and 18.2 percent respectively. According to the Ministry of Public Health's statistic of higher rate of educational continuation showed that in 2009 only 14.1 percents of total Thai population enrolled to the university or higher (Ministry of Public Health Thailand n.d.: 51). Consequently, the respondents who graduated from university can be call as high educated female workers.

To sum up the main characteristics of he studied sample, most of respondents in Japanese firms in Bangkok metropolitan region are female age between 20-30 years old holding bachelor degree, having 1-5 years of job experiences and obtaining salary between 15,001-25,001THB.

4.4 Female discrimination related questions

The second part of questionnaire contains female discrimination-related questions separated to four parts which are 1. Company Satisfactions 2. Female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplace 3. Japanese working system in Thai office 4. Direct experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces and 5. Indirect experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces. In order to find results of questionnaire, I made the question to be easy to answer by five degrees of intensiveness.

4.4.1 Company Satisfactions

It is important to understand what Thai female in Japanese firms in Bangkok metropolitan region feel about their jobs. Job satisfactions provide us to the understanding what female workers are thinking about current jobs by showing positive or negative outcome from the statistics. In this part, I split the questions into eight small questions which are:

- Satisfied with their job
- Satisfied with their level of job/job position
- Satisfied with company's promotion
- Satisfied with their bonus
- Satisfied with their salary
- Satisfied with chiefs' treatment

- Satisfied with their company's welfare
- Satisfied with their company's sexual equity policies

The questions have the answers by 5 degrees of answers; very much, much, medium, less and never, transformed to numeral degree that 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively. The result showed the attitude of total satisfactions among 77 respondents that Thai women are moderately dissatisfied with their jobs. The total satisfactions provide quite low mean score as 2.81 out of 5. From total satisfactions, it is very interesting that satisfaction with salary and promotion satisfaction are the only two variables that reach to the neutral satisfaction, 3.0 and 3.09 respectively. Besides, those two highest satisfactions, the job position and job satisfaction are the lowest satisfactions by 2.55 and 2.43 mean scores respectively. Consequently, these results provide important insight of dissatisfaction which specific on job satisfaction and job position. Out of those 8 questions and total satisfactions, it seems that Thai women in Japanese firms are in between neutral and moderate satisfied with their jobs.

4.4.2 Discrimination problems

Here, in second question, the questions aim to ask respondents about what is their attitude toward female discrimination and gender inequality in the workplaces. This part contains seven questions with degree of answers that strongly agree, agree, moderate, partly agree and disagree. As for analysis, I changed the answer to be number which is 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively.

- Female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces
- Female discrimination in their company is serious problem
- There is female discrimination in recruitment in their workplaces
- There is female discrimination in job promotion in their workplaces
- There is female discrimination in job position in their workplaces
- There is female discrimination in job description in their workplaces (men get better and honourable job)
- Women work harder but gain less remuneration than men

From the received statistic, it showed that women in Japanese firms in Bangkok metropolitan region responded the answers in the same way. Mean score of total discrimination problem at

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² see appendix for chapter 4

workplaces is 3.09 which mean they neutrally feel to the female discrimination in their workplaces. The highest scores of this part are female discrimination in job promotion and job recruitment which showed 3.16 and 3.12 means scores respectively. Indifferent to the highest mean score of job promotion and recruitment, Thai women responded that female discrimination in job position and job description in Japanese firms are impartial with 3.00 and 3.06 mean score respectively. As a result, those women in Japanese firms in Bangkok metropolitan region do not have any particular feeling toward female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces.

4.4.3 Japanese working system in Thai office

It is important to ask respondents about how they appreciate about Japanese working system in Thailand. Because if they accept that Japanese system provide them inequality, they would also feel that it affects to their daily life, as well as Japanese working system is worse than Thai system. In this part, the questions mainly ask attitude of respondents toward Japanese working system which contribute into eight different questions.

- Japanese working system is better than Thai's
- Japanese working system has no problem for respondents
- Japanese working system is acceptable to their daily life
- Japanese working system help them to improve themselves
- Japanese working system is consistent to Thais' behaviour
- Japanese working system benefits to men than women
- Japanese working system dominates by men
- Japanese working system is similar to Thai working system

In this part the questions are mixed with positive and negative question, therefore, the respondent would not feel that the questionnaire is bias toward Japanese or Thai working system. Positive questions are the positive way of looking Japanese working system that Japanese working system has no problem for respondents. Included the direct effects to the respondents, the questions also ask about the acceptability for their daily life such as the question: Does Japanese working system help respondents to improve themselves and Is consistent to Thais' behaviour? For the positive questions, if respondents tend to answer with the mean score more than 3, it means the respondents agree that Japanese working system is

good for their lives. But if the mean score goes lower than 3, it means they are dissatisfied with the working system.

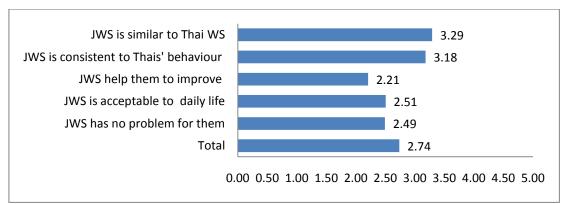


Figure 5: Positive questions about Japanese working system in Thailand

JWS=Japanese Working System, WS+ Working System

1.00-1.50 Strongly disagree
1.51-2.50 Moderately disagree
2.51-3.50 Neutral
3.51-4.50 Moderately agree
4.51-5 Strongly agree

From the bar chart, it illustrated most of people believe that Japanese working system partially help them to improve themselves as it is a lowest result among these positive questions (mean score 2.21). Overcoming female workers moderately unconcern on acceptability of Japanese working system in their daily lives. The result showed the mean scores that they are fairly agree to the topic of Japanese working system is acceptable for their daily lives and it also do not cause any problem for them as 2.51 and 2.49 respectively. However, the positive sign of this question is that Thai women moderately notice Japanese working system similar to Thai working system and also fairly agree that Japanese working system is consistent with Thais' behaviour by the mean score 3.29 and 3.18 respectively.

As for the negative question about Japanese working system, there are three questions which if the respondents agree to the topics mean that they consider Japanese working system contain gender inequality issue and Japanese working system is better than Thai system. The results are that respondents tend to moderately disagree to the topic which means they do not feel that the Japanese working system is abominable. According from the bar chart, it is showed that the highest and the bottom most answers are in the same range that in between 2.34 to 2.71 which are not diverged as showed in positive questions. As a result, Thai female

workers tend to concern that work discrimination in Japanese working system rarely exists.

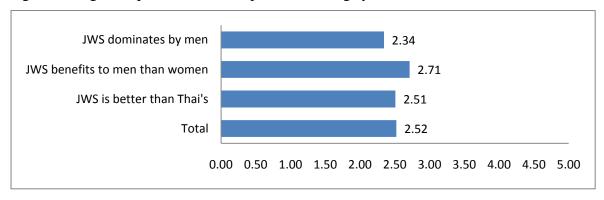


Figure 6: Negative questions about Japanese working system in Thailand

JWS=Japanese Working System, WS+ Working System
1.00-1.50 Strongly disagree
1.51-2.50 Moderately disagree
2.51-3.50 Neutral
3.51-4.50 Moderately agree

Strongly agree

4.51-5

After asking respondent about job satisfactions and Japanese working system, the important question is experiences of female discrimination both direct and indirect experiences. In questions, direct experiences is respondents own experiences at workplaces which play by two actors: active and passive. The active actors in this questionnaire are HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs who are in higher position, have more authority and controlling respondents. And the passive actor is 77 female respondents working in Japanese firm in Bangkok metropolitan region.

4.4.4 Direct experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality at workplaces

This part, the questions are divided to three small questions which depend on the actors: HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs. From those three actors, respondents are provided the questions as they are passive actors in their workplaces whom mainly asked about the discrimination in job requirement, promotions, wage payment, job position, and discrimination of treatment between Thai employees and Japanese employees. The answers are also provided by degrees of how often respondent confront with action from HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs. The answers give respondent five levels which are very often, often, sometime, rare and never and stand for numeral answers as 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively.

In this part, main idea of the questions is to identify how often that the respondents have to face with female discrimination in their workplaces. Start with HR, respondents presented very interesting results that discrimination between Thai and Japanese workers by HR seem to have the lowest mean scores as 2.66. But in female discrimination related questions the number of discriminatory are higher such as wage payment has its mean score as 3.57 and job requirement as 3.52. Similar to HR, in other two actors, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs, showed same result in the question of discrimination between Thai and Japanese that the treatment from those two actors toward Thai and Japanese rarely seem to contain discriminatory. However, other variables show respondents sometime face with female discrimination at work. Job requirement and wage payment are the highest mean score among other variables. Respondents give the answer mostly in between sometime and often face with the female discrimination. Additionally, I found a very interesting result shows that Thai women feel that Thai chiefs produce the highest female discrimination at workplaces as 3.21 mean score.

4.4.5 Indirect experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality at workplaces by HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs.

For the indirect experiences, thesis is seeking for what people have heard from others about discrimination experiences in the workplaces. The aims of this question are to explore the relation or difference between direct and indirect experiences. Additionally, the question can also provide more indirect information and informants. The active actors are the same as direct experiences: HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs. The results of indirect experiences are indifferent to the result of direct experiences. According to the result, the separate mean score are all in the neutral level in between 2.92-3.32. Treatment between Thai employees and Japanese employees from HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs are constantly illustrated as the lowest indication as 2.92, 2.95 and 3.03 respectively. In the same time, wage payment discrimination also holds the highest mean scores among all questions which are 3.29, 3.32 and 3.32 respectively. Hence, indirect experiences for these reasons, both indirect and direct female discrimination experiences have HR as the lowest results among those three authorizes which mean respondents least confront female discrimination by HR.

Conversely, the results also indicate Thai female workers reported that they often face with Thai chiefs' discrimination more than other variables. However, according to the results

above, it shows perspectives of Thai female workers that they are neutral experienced with female discrimination which does not provide any significant sign of discrimination against women by their authorities.

4.5 Relationship between variables.

Subsequently, I applied a wide range of statistical technique to understand the relationship between general information and female discrimination perspectives, and the major variables developed from the questionnaire in order to insight the correlation of women's perspective, firms' treatment and female discrimination. In this part, I use correlation to help us understand the nature of relationship between variables. The variables that I use as follow are the variables that have significant sign. The results of correlation analysis also enable us to conclude the significance of relationship between variables as following variables.

4.5.1 The relationship between education and female discrimination.

It is found that education has a negative relationship with female discrimination. According to correlation analysis, all of the female discrimination's variables contribute negative relationship. Especially the variables of; 1. Female discrimination is a serious problem in respondent's workplaces; 2. There is female discrimination in job position; and 3. There is female discrimination in job promotion provide correlation coefficient -.231, -.237 and -.234 respectively at the significant level at the 0.05 level (see appendix 4-3.1). As a result, it can be seen that higher educated women tend to have lower negative attitude towards the female discrimination in the workplaces. In the other word higher educated women does not strongly conceive that the female discrimination problems, such as job position and job promotion discrimination are serious problem.

4.5.2 The relationship between income per month and job satisfactions

According to the statistical analysis, the relationship between income per month and job satisfactions indicates that income per month has a negative relationship with all job satisfaction variables. The results show income per month significantly correlate with satisfactions with job and salary by -.331 and -.377 respectively at significant level of 0.01. Furthermore, income per month also shows the other correlations which have lower relationship with satisfaction with position and bonus by -.279 and -.241 respectively at

significant level of 0.05 (see appendix 4-3.2). Consequently, women who receive higher salary have less satisfaction with their jobs.

4.5.3The relationship between job satisfactions and total Japanese working system positive variable

Total Japanese working system variable combined with those positive attitude's questions toward Japanese working system as mentioned above in 2.3. The reason I combine them together because means of variables are indifferent to each other. Thus, the merged variable has almost the same qualify with the individuals. Moreover, the statistic show women's job satisfactions' attitudes have positive relationship with total Japanese working system positive variable. Interestingly, the entire variables have significant positive relationships reaching to the highest correlation coefficient as .410 from job satisfactions. Chiefs' treatment satisfaction and promotion satisfaction follow the job satisfaction with also very high correlation coefficient as .372 and .391 respectively at the significant level at the 0.01 level. Although, however, the correlation between total Japanese working system positive variable and job satisfactions have significant relationship, satisfaction with salary has lowest correlation among other variables with .256 at significant level of 0.05 (see appendix 4-3.3). In sum, women who are satisfied with their jobs tend to have positive attitude toward Japanese working system.

4.5.4 The relationship between income per month and Japanese working system negative variable.

The reason why I use the total variable for Japanese working system negative variable is because the mean score of total Japanese working system negative variable are similar to its individual variables. It is found that result of these variables is very interesting because it is unexpected for me. Income per month has negative correlation with Japanese working system negative variable. The correlation coefficient of this variable is -.364 at the significant level at the 0.05 level. In the other word, women who obtain lower salary tend to disagree with disadvantage of Japanese working system (see appendix 4-3.4).

4.5.5 The relationship between age, education, income per month and total female discrimination direct experiences

Same reason with 3.4, I use the total female discrimination direct experiences variable because the mean score of total female discrimination direct experiences are similar to

individual female discrimination direct experiences variables. The total female discrimination direct experiences gather all the three variables together which are the combination of direct experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality at workplaces by HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs in term of job requirement, promotions, wage payment, job position, and discrimination of treatment between Thai employees and Japanese employees. Results found that the attitude of female workers against female discrimination from their authorities has no significant relationship between age, education, income and total female discrimination direct experiences.

4.5.6 The relationship between age, education, income and female discrimination indirect experiences

Same reason with 4.4, I use the total female discrimination indirect experiences variable because the mean score of total female discrimination direct experiences are similar to individual female discrimination direct experiences variables. The result is similar to 3.5, as it is found that there is no significant relationship between age, education, income and total female discrimination indirect experiences. Here we can see that lower income per month respondent tend to have negative female discrimination indirect experiences more than other variables, but it is still not significant enough to judge that it has strong relationship or significant correlation.

4.6 Conclusion

Our analysis both confirms and disclaims previous research. According to the results, it is found a dissimilarity to bishop's (2005: 127-129) conclusion that high educated Japanese women know that they are facing female discrimination and gender inequality. And they also notice that gender discriminatory at workplaces are existing. However, this is different to Thailand, according to the first hypothesis, educated female workers might feel that they are discriminated in the same way as Japanese workers studied in Bishop's analysis. But it is found that, among Thai women, higher educated women tend to have lower negative attitude toward female discrimination at workplaces.

Using correlation analysis Thai women within our sample confirm the finding that discrimination at workplaces is not a problem. Additionally, in other variables, Thai female

workers who have more satisfied with their jobs and job's remunerations seem to also have more positive attitude toward Japanese working system.

Furthermore, women who obtain lower salary tend to disagree with disadvantage of Japanese working system. In other word, although lower income women should have more negative aspect toward their workplaces' working system, the result is reversed; lower income respondents disagree with the statement that Japanese working system better than Thai's, benefits to men than women and dominated by men. As a result, from the first hypothesis, it is proved Japanese female discrimination as studied in Bishop (2005) cannot be used in Thai context. Female discrimination in Thailand from female workers is rarely considered as a serious problem.

In hypothesis 2, the statistical analysis shows the relationship between income per month and job satisfactions indicates that income per month has a negative relationship with job satisfaction variables. Consequently, it is contrast to the hypothesis that women who have high salary should have high satisfaction with their salary. The statistical analysis interestingly shows the contrary that women who receive higher salary have less satisfaction with their jobs.

In addition, from the statistical analysis, Thai female do not have significant sign in gender discrimination both direct and indirect experiences by their employers: HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs. This is because, according to Yukongdi (2005: 277), the relationship between the employers and employees in Thailand is similar to the relationship between parent and children. Employers are expected to treat their nicely and protectively. As well as men in workplaces have their informal role that they have to take care of women. This may explain why Thai female employees do not recognize any existence of female discrimination.

5. Conclusion

5.1 Analytical Conclusion

The underlying aims and purposes of this thesis are to find the existence of female discrimination at Japanese workplaces located in Bangkok metropolitan in Thailand. The research object is to study whether Thai female workers in Japanese firms feel toward female discrimination issue at their workplaces. To find Thai women's perspective toward gender inequality, the questionnaire survey was used as the empirical research method. Those female workers are the target group who is the main object of this thesis. The thesis also combines with various knowledge e.g. feminist perspective and gender inequality in Japan and Thailand. In research problem, Japanese women are reported by many statistics and scholars that they face with gender discrimination at their workplaces. In Thai case, if Japanese establish the companies in Thailand they might also bring the working system which contains female discrimination. For research analysis, quantitative method was used to arrange the data I received from respondents. After receiving the answers from respondents, the data were analyzed by descriptive statistic and correlation of SPSS program.

According to hypothesis 1, the statistical analysis showed that the finding did not support the conclusion that the respondents in this research feel discriminated. It was also found that age, education, income per month, had no significant correlation to total female discrimination both direct and indirect experiences. Moreover, the relationship between income per month and job satisfactions indicated that income per month had a negative relationship with all job satisfaction variables. The results showed income per month significantly and negatively correlate with satisfactions with job and salary. Interestingly, according to Yukongdi and Rowley (2009: 205 see chapter 2), Thai women's participation in labour market continuously decrease. However, even though the trend of women participation in labour force is decreasing, the power of Thai female employee especially in managerial position still persists.

In hypothesis 2, the statistical analysis could not be confirmed because women in Japanese workplaces in Bangkok metropolitan region in Thailand do not feel discriminated. The reason is that there are low degree of agreement of feeling discriminated among Thai women toward their authority at workplaces. Nonetheless, in Thai case, female workers who are more satisfied with their jobs and job's remunerations seem to have higher positive attitudes toward the Japanese working system. Furthermore, although lower-income Thai women

should have more negative aspect toward their workplaces' working system, they disagree with the questions that Japanese working system is better than Thai system, Japanese working system benefits to men than women and is dominated by men. Therefore, the result of first hypothesis is that, although Thai female employees feel moderately dissatisfied with their job and remuneration, they rarely feel that they are discriminated.

Thai women in Thai firms seem to be more powerful than other women who are working at Japan and USA-based firms (Appold et al, 1998: 555). According to Appold, among those women in three countries-based firms, Thai women have higher participation in their advancement into managerial position than women in those two foreign-based firms. Over 30 percent of Thai firms' managerial workers are women. Thai firms contained two and three times higher proportions of women in management than did the foreign-based firms of the US and Japanese respectively (ibid).

Hypothesis 2 also found that the hypothesis that women who have high salary should have high satisfaction with their salary cannot be used in Thai female employees' condition. The statistical analysis interestingly shows that women who receive higher salary have less satisfaction with their jobs.

Furthermore, according to the statistics of the proportion rates of female employees' participation in labour force in Thailand from 1990 to 2006, the figure showed that Thai women tend to participate decreasingly. However, according to Grant Thornton International Business Report 2011, reported that Thailand boasts the greatest percentage of women in managerial position at 45 percents which is the highest percentage among Asian countries and the G7 countries. Hence, it is show that women in Thailand are in the trend of getting high power in labour force. Although the percentages of women participation in labour force are getting lower, roles of Thai women are increasing in the labour market.

In addition, Thai women do not have significant reflection in gender discrimination both direct and indirect experiences by their employers. This can be explained by Yukongdi's (2005: 277) finding that the relationship between the employers and employees in Thailand is equated to the relationship between parent and children. Employers and male employees are expected take care of women protectively. This may explain why Thai female employees do not recognize any existence of female discrimination. However, it is also needed to

reexamine the meaning of female discrimination from Thai female employees' perception which will be explained as following.

5.2 Further Research

The further research might consider more to how we can give critic to our own research phase. Since the words "gender inequality" and "female discrimination" in Thai context are different in the sense of language. Based on the findings and the research design, most specific on translation in the questionnaire's questions into Thai, it was understood that female discrimination problem might contain the wrong wording to be coherent to the sense of Thai language. For this reason, the feeling of being discriminated might not appear in this finding. And there was no direct link between female discrimination and the studied variables. Maybe, in one way of finding, if female discrimination exists, is to ask the respondents if their low satisfaction with salary and job are a result of female discrimination.

Yukongdi (2005: 276) also added that Thai women in high position appear to be better off than women in other Southeast Asia. Thai women have higher opportunities to access to training and job promotion. In Thailand, female employees appear to give greater importance to social class than the gender. In Thai society, it is said that women of upper social class tend to have privileged access to education and therefore better employment opportunity (ibid: 277).

However, the statistical analysis found a relationship between satisfaction at work and income per month. High-income women give lower satisfaction at work. The reason why women were not satisfied with their salary but still satisfied with Japanese working system (or do not feel the female discrimination in their workplaces) might be because of the word female discrimination in Thai context and sense of language. $ka:n-l\hat{u}ak-pa-thi-bat-tai:-ph\hat{e}:t-yiŋ$ does not make any strong feeling like the word gender inequality— $khwa:m-m\hat{a}i-th\hat{a}w-thiam-tha:\eta-ph\hat{e}:t$ for Thais as I mentioned in the previous chapter. Thus the differences between the terms of usage in sense of Thai language of those two words might affect to the answers of respondent as well.

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APPENDIX

Appendix for Chapter 1

1-1 Human Development Report 2009 and Gender Empowerment Measure Rank 2007

Human Development Report 2009

K Gender empowerment measure and its components

Gender empowerment measure (GEM) rank

HDI R	RankCountry	2007
1	Norway	2
2	Australia	7
3	Iceland	8
4	Canada	12
5	Ireland	22
6	Netherlands	5
7	Sweden	1
8	France	17
9	Switzerland	13
10	Japan	57

Source: Adopted from/ see also at: Human Development Report

http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/125.html

1-2 Number of Residents:

Number of Japanese Nationals residing in Thailand: 44,114 (as of Oct. 2008)

Number of Thai Nationals residing in Japan: 42,609 (as of Dec. 2008)

Source: Adopted from/ see also at: Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan

http://www.mofa.go.jp/region/asia-paci/thailand/index.html

Appendix for Chapter 2

2-1 Human Development Index and Its Components

	Human Development Index (HDI) value ^a	Life expectancy at birth	Mean years of schooling	Expected years of schooling	Gross national income (GNI) per capita	GNI per capita rank minus HDI rank	Nonincome HDI value
HDI rank		(years)	(years)	(years)	(PPP 2008 \$)		
	2010	2010	2010	2010 ^b	2010	2010	2010
ERY HIGH HUMAN DEVELOPMENT							
1 Norway	0.938	81.0	12.6	17.3	58,810	2	0.954
2 Australia	0.937	81.9	12.0	20.5	38,692	11	0.989
3 New Zealand	0.907	80.6	12.5	19.7	25,438	30	0.979
4 United States	0.902	79.6	12.4	15.7	47,094	5	0.917
5 Ireland	0.895	80.3	11.6	17.9	33,078	20	0.936
6 Liechtenstein	0.891	79.6 ¢	10.3 d	14.8	81,011 e,f	-5	0.861
7 Netherlands	0.890	80.3	11.2	16.7	40,658	4	0.911
8 Canada	0.888	81.0	11.5	16.0	38,668	6	0.913
9 Sweden	0.885	81.3	11.6	15.6	36,936	8	0.911
10 Germany	0.885	80.2	12.2	15.6	35,308	9	0.915
11 Japan	0.884	83.2	11.5	15.1	34,692	11	0.915
12 Korea, Republic of 9	0.877	79.8	11.6	16.8	29,518	16	0.918
13 Switzerland	0.874	82.2	10.3	15.5	39,849	-1	0.889
14 France	0.872	81.6	10.4	16.1	34,341	9	0.898
15 Israel	0.872	81.2	11.9	15.6	27,831	14	0.916
16 Finland	0.871	80.1	10.3	17.1	33,872	8	0.897
17 Iceland	0.869	82.1	10.4	18.2	22,917	20	0.928
18 Belgium	0.867	80.3	10.6	15.9	34,873	3	0.888
19 Denmark	0.866	78.7	10.3	16.9	36,404	-1	0.883
20 Spain	0.863	81.3	10.4	16.4	29,661	6	0.897
21 Hong Kong, China (SAR)	0.862	82.5	10.0	13.8	45,090	-11	0.860
22 Greece	0.855	79.7	10.5	16.5	27,580	8	0.890
23 Italy	0.854	81.4	9.7	16.3	29,619	4	0.882
24 Luxembourg	0.852	79.9	10.1	13.3	51,109	-18	0.836
25 Austria	0.851	80.4	9.8	15.0	37,056	-9	0.859
26 United Kingdom	0.849	79.8	9.5	15.9	35,087	-6	0.860
27 Singapore	0.846	80.7	8.8	14.4 h	48,893	-19	0.831
28 Czech Republic	0.841	76.9	12.3	15.2	22,678	10	0.886
29 Slovenia	0.828	78.8	9.0	16.7	25,857	3	0.853
30 Andorra	0.824	80.8 °	10.4 i	11.5	38,056 j.k	-15	0.817
31 Slovakia	0.818	75.1	11.6	14.9	21,658	12	0.854
32 United Arab Emirates	0.815	77.7	9.2	11.5	58,006	-28	0.774
33 Malta	0.815	80.0	9.9	14.4	21,0041	11	0.850
34 Estonia	0.812	73.7	12.0	15.8	17,168	13	0.864
35 Cyprus	0.810	80.0	9.9	13.8	21,962	6	0.840
36 Hungary	0.805	73.9	11.7	15.3	17,472	10	0.851
37 Brunei Darussalam	0.805	77.4	7.5	14.0	49,915	-30	0.769
38 Qatar	0.803	76.0	7.3	12.7	79,426 m	-36	0.737
39 Bahrain	0.801	76.0	9.4	14.3	26,664	-8	0.809
40 Portugal	0.795	79.1	8.0	15.5	22,105	0	0.815
41 Poland	0.795	76.0	10.0	15.2	17,803	4	0.834
42 Barbados	0.788	77.7	9.3	13.4 °	21,673	0	0.806
IGH HUMAN DEVELOPMENT							
43 Bahamas	0.784	74.4	11.1 b,o	11.6	25,201 P	_9	0.788
44 Lithuania	0.783	72.1	10.9	16.0	14,824	7	0.832
45 Chile	0.783	78.8	9.7	14.5	13,561	11	0.840
46 Argentina	0.775	75.7	9.3	15.5	14,603	6	0.821

		Human Development Index (HDI) value ^a	Life expectancy at birth	Mean years of schooling	Expected years of schooling	Gross national income (GNI) per capita	GNI per capita rank minus HDI rank	Nonincome HDI value
IDI ra	nk		(years)	(years)	(years)	(PPP 2008 \$)		
		2010	2010	2010	2010 ^b	2010	2010	2010
47 H	Kuwait	0.771	77.9	6.1	12.5	55,719	-42	0.714
48 l	Latvia	0.769	73.0	10.4	15.4	12,944	13	0.822
49 1	Montenegro	0.769	74.6	10.6 ^{b,q}	14.4 ^h	12,491	16	0.825
50 F	Romania	0.767	73.2	10.6	14.8	12,844	13	0.820
51 (Croatia	0.767	76.7	9.0	13.8	16,389	-2	0.798
52 l	Uruguay	0.765	76.7	8.4	15.7	13,808	3	0.810
53 l	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0.755	74.5	7.3	16.5	17,068	-5	0.775
54 F	Panama	0.755	76.0	9.4	13.5	13,347	4	0.796
55 5	Saudi Arabia	0.752	73.3	7.8	13.5	24,726	-20	0.742
56 1	Mexico	0.750	76.7	8.7	13.4	13,971	-3	0.785
57 1	Malaysia	0.744	74.7	9.5	12.5	13,927	-3	0.775
58 E	Bulgaria	0.743	73.7	9.9	13.7	11,139	10	0.795
59 1	Trinidad and Tobago	0.736	69.9	9.2	11.4	24,233	-23	0.719
60 5	Serbia	0.735	74.4	9.5	13.5	10,449	11	0.788
	Belarus	0.732	69.6	9.3 b.q	14.6	12,926	1	0.763
	Costa Rica	0.725	79.1	8.3	11.7	10,870	7	0.768
63 F		0.723	73.7	9.6	13.8	8,424	14	0.788
64 A	Albania	0.719	76.9	10.4	11.3	7,976	19	0.787
65 F	Russian Federation	0.719	67.2	8.8	14.1	15,258	-15	0.729
	Kazakhstan	0.714	65.4	10.3	15.1	10,234	6	0.756
67 A	Azerbaijan	0.713	70.8	10.2 b,o	13.0	8,747	8	0.769
68 E	Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.710	75.5	8.7 b.q	13.0	8,222	12	0.771
69 l	Ukraine	0.710	68.6	11.3	14.6	6,535	20	0.794
70 I	Iran, Islamic Republic of	0.702	71.9	7.2	14.0	11,764	-3	0.725
71 1	The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	0.701	74.5	8.2	12.3	9,487	3	0.742
72 1	Mauritius	0.701	72.1	7.2	13.0	13,344	-13	0.712
73 E	Brazil	0.699	72.9	7.2	13.8	10,607	-3	0.728
	Georgia	0.698	72.0	12.1 ^{b,q}	12.6	4,902	26	0.805
75 \	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	0.696	74.2	6.2	14.2	11,846	-9	0,716
	Armenia	0.695	74.2	10.8	11.9	5,495	19	0.787
77 [Ecuador	0.695	75.4	7.6	13.3	7,931	7	0.749
78 E	Belize	0.694	76.9	9.2	12.4	5,693	16	0.782
79 (Colombia	0.689	73.4	7.4	13.3	8,589	-3	0.732
80 J	lamaica	0.688	72.3	9.6	11.7	7,207	6	0.748
81 1	Tunisia	0.683	74.3	6.5	14.5	7,979	1	0.729
82 J	lordan	0.681	73.1	8.6	13.1	5,956	10	0.755
83 1	Turkey	0.679	72.2	6.5	11.8	13,359	-26	0.679
84 /	Algeria	0.677	72.9	7.2	12.8	8,320	-6	0.716
85	Tonga	0.677	72.1	10.4	13.7	4,038	23	0.792
ENII	UM HUMAN DEVELOPMENT							
86 F		0.669	69.2	11.0	13.0	4,315	21	0.771
	Turkmenistan	0.669	65.3	9,9 6,0	13.0 h	7,052	1	0.719
	Dominican Republic	0.663	72.8	6.9	11.9	8,273	-9	0.695
89 (0.663	73.5	7.5	11.4	7,258	-4	0.707
	El Salvador	0.659	72.0	7.7	12.1	6,498	0	0.711
	Sri Lanka	0.658	74.4	8.2	12.0	4,886	10	0.738
	Thailand	0.654	69.3	6.6	13.5 "	8,001	-11	0.683
	Gabon	0.648	61.3	7.5	12.7	12,747	-29	0.637
	Suriname	0.646	69.4	7.2 b.q	12.0	7,093	-7	0.681
	Bolivia, Plurinational State of	0.643	66.3	9.2	13.7	4,357	11	0.724
	Paraguay	0.640	72.3	7.8	12.0	4,585	9	0.714
	Philippines	0.638	72.3	8.7	11.5	4,002	12	0.726
	Botswana	0.633	55.5	8.9	12.4	13,204	-38	0.613
	Moldova, Republic of	0.623	68.9	9.7	12.0	3,149	19	0.729
	Mongolia	0.622	67.3	8.3	13.5	3,619	12	0.710
101 E		0.620	70.5	6.5	11.0	5,889	-8	0.657
	Uzbekistan	0.617	68.2	10.0 b.q	11.5	3,085	17	0.721
	Micronesia, Federated States of	0.614	69.0	8,8 b,u	11.7 '	3,266 s	13	0.709
103 1								

	Human Development Index (HDI) value ^a	Life expectancy at birth	Mean years of schooling	Expected years of schooling	Gross national income (GNI) per capita	GNI per capita rank minus HDI rank	Nonincome HDI value
IDI rank	0.00000	(years)	(years)	(years)	(PPP 2008 \$)		Control (1966)
	2010	2010	2010	2010 ^b	2010	2010	2010
105 Namibia	0.606	62.1	7.4	11.8	6,323	-14	0.629
106 Honduras	0.604	72.6	6.5	11.4	3,750	5	0.676
107 Maldives	0.602	72.3	4,7	12.4	5,408	-11	0.636
08 Indonesia	0.600	71.5	5.7	12.7	3,957	2	0.663
09 Kyrgyzstan	0.598	68.4	9.3	12.6	2,291	17	0.726
110 South Africa	0.597	52.0	8.2	13.4	9,812	-37	0.581
111 Syrian Arab Republic	0.589	74.6	4.9	10.5 *	4,760	-9	0.627
12 Tajikistan	0.580	67.3	9.8	11.4	2,020	22	0.709
13 Viet Nam	0.572	74.9	5.5	10.4	2,995	7	0.646
114 Morocco	0.567	71.8	4.4	10.5	4,628	-10	0.594
115 Nicaragua	0.565	73.8	5.7	10.8	2,567	7	0.652
116 Guatemala	0.560	70.8	4.1	10.6	4,694	-13	0.583
117 Equatorial Guinea	0.538	51.0	5.4 b.q	8.1	22,218	-78	0.454
18 Cape Verde	0.534	71.9	3.5 b,o	11.2	3,306	-4	0.573
19 India	0.519	64.4	4.4	10.3	3,337	-6	0.549
20 Timor-Leste	0.502	62.1	2.8 b.o	11.2	5,303	-23	0.485
21 Swaziland	0.498	47.0	7.1	10.3	5,132	-23	0.483
22 Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.497	65.9	4.6	9.2	2,321	3	0.462
123 Solomon Islands	0.494	67.0	4.0 4.5 b,o	9.2	2,172	6	0.550
124 Cambodia	0.494	62.2	5.8	9.1	1,868	12	0.566
125 Pakistan	0.490	67.2	4.9	6.8	2,678	-4	0.523
126 Congo	0.489	53.9	5.9	9.3	3,258	-9	0.503
27 São Tomé and Príncipe	0.488	66.1	4.2 b,0	10.2	1,918	8	0.553
IW HUMAN DEVELOPMENT							
28 Kenya	0.470	55.6	7.0	9.6	1,628	10	0.541
29 Bangladesh	0.469	66.9	4.8	8.1	1,587	12	0.543
130 Ghana	0.467	57.1	7.1	9.7	1,385	14	0.556
I31 Cameroon	0.460	51.7	5.9	9.8	2,197	-3	0.493
32 Myanmar	0.451	62.7	4.0	9.2	1,596	8	0.511
133 Yemen	0.439	63.9	2.5	8.6	2,387	-9	0.453
134 Benin	0.435	62.3	3.5	9.2	1,499	8	0.491
	0.435	61.2	5.2 b.o	10.2	953	22	0.550
135 Madagascar							
136 Mauritania	0.433	57.3	3.7	8.1	2,118	-5	0.454
37 Papua New Guinea	0.431	61.6	4.3	5.2	2,227	-10	0.447
138 Nepal	0.428	67.5	3.2	8.8	1,201	12	0.506
139 Togo	0.428	63.3	5.3	9.6	844	22	0.557
140 Comoros	0.428	66.2	2.8 b.o	10.7	1,176	12	0.507
141 Lesotho	0.427	45.9	5.8	10.3	2,021	-8	0.448
142 Nigeria	0.423	48.4	5.0 b.q	8.9	2,156	-12	0.436
143 Uganda	0.422	54.1	4.7	10.4	1,224	5	0.491
144 Senegal	0.411	56.2	3.5	7.5	1,816	-7	0.433
145 Haiti	0.404	61.7	4.9	6.8 n	949	13	0.493
146 Angola	0.403	48.1	4.4 b,o	4.4	4,941	-47	0.353
47 Djibouti	0.402	56.1	3.8 b.q	4.7	2,471	-24	0.394
148 Tanzania, United Republic of	0.398	56.9	5.1	5.3	1,344	-1	0.441
49 Côte d'Ivoire	0.397	58.4	3.3	6.3	1,625	-10	0.420
50 Zambia	0.395	47.3	6.5	7.2	1,359	-5	0.434
IST Gambia	0.390	56.6	2.8	8.6	1,358	-5	0.426
52 Rwanda	0.385	51.1	3.3	10.6	1,190	-1	0.432
53 Malawi	0.385	54.6	4.3	8.9	911	6	0.463
54 Sudan	0.379	58.9	2.9	4.4	2,051	-22	0.373
55 Afghanistan	0.349	44.6	3.3	8.0	1,419	-12	0.358
56 Guinea	0.349	58.9	1.6 b ,t	8.6	953	0	0.380
			1.5 b,o				
57 Ethiopia	0.328	56.1		8.3	992	-2	0.357
58 Sierra Leone	0.317	48.2	2.9	7.2	809	4	0.360
159 Central African Republic	0.315	47.7	3.5	6.3	758	4	0.363
60 Maii	0.309	49.2	1.4	8.0	1,171	-7	0.312
161 Burkina Faso	0.305	53.7	1.3 b.q	5.8	1,215	-12	0.303
162 Liberia	0.300	59.1	3.9	11.0	320	5	0.509

	Human Development Index (HDI) value ^a	Life expectancy at birth	Mean years of schooling	Expected years of schooling	Gross national income (GNI) per capita	GNI per capita rank minus HDI rank	Nonincomo HDI value
HDI rank		(years)	(years)	(years)	(PPP 2008 \$)		
	2010	2010	2010	2010 ^b	2010	2010	2010
163 Chad	0.295	49.2	1.5 b,o	6.0	1,067	<u>-9</u>	0.298
164 Guinea-Bissau	0.289	48.6	2.3 b.q	9.1	538	1	0.362
165 Mozambique	0.284	48.4	1.2	8.2	854	-5	0.300
166 Burundi	0.282	51.4	2.7	9.6	402	0	0.400
167 Niger	0.261	52.5	1.4	4.3	675	-3	0.285
168 Congo, Democratic Republic of the	0.239	48.0	3.8	7.8	291	0	0.390
169 Zimbabwe	0.140	47.0	7.2	9.2	176	0	0.472
THER COUNTRIES OR TERRITORIE	s						
Antigua and Barbuda					17,924		
Bhutan		66.8	*	11.3	5,607	**	
Cuba		79.0	10.2	17.7	3,007		0.892
					9.540	-	0.092
Dominica				12.5	8,549		**
Eritrea	••	60.4	36	5.5	643	W.	**
Grenada	**	75.8		13.4	7,998	4	0.000
lraq	•	68.5	5.6	9.7		*	0.600
Kiribati	•		-	12.3	3,715	**	40'
Korea, Democratic People's Rep. of		67.7	24	122 (1000)	7.4		
Lebanon	•	72.4		13.5	13,475	**	**
Marshall Islands			9.8 b.o	13.0	**	+	0.766
Monaco		- 44		22			
Nauru		**		8.5	"	**	
Occupied Palestinian Territories		73.9		13.1	146	**	*
Oman		76.1		11.1	25,653	a.	
Palau		/**	12.1 b,o	14.9			0.836
Saint Kitts and Nevis				12.3	14,196		
Saint Lucia		74.2		13.0	8,652		
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines		72.0		13.5	8,535		
Samoa		72.2		12.2	4,126		**
San Marino					7 187		
Seychelles				14.7	19,128	(40)	
Somalia		50.4		1.81	15,120		
Tuvalu	••	90.4		11.2		(40.)	44
	*	70.0			3,000		
Vanuatu	•	70.8	"	10.4	3,908	*	-
Developed	0.070	20.3		15.0	27.077		0.004
OECD	0.879	80.3	11.4	15.9	37,077	_	0.904
Non-OECD	0.844	80.0	10.0	13.9	42,370		0.845
eveloping							
Arab States	0.588	69.1	5.7	10.8	7,861		0.610
East Asia and the Pacific	0.643	72.6	7.2	11.5	6,403	_	0.692
Europe and Central Asia	0.702	69.5	9.2	13.6	11,462	_	0.740
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.704	74.0	7.9	13.7	10,642	=	0.746
South Asia	0.516	65.1	4.6	10.0	3,417	-	0.551
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.389	52.7	4.5	9.0	2,050	_	0.436
Very high human development	0.878	80.3	11.3	15.9	37,225	_	0.902
High human development	0.717	72.6	8.3	13.8	12,286	_	0.749
Medium human development	0.592	69.3	6.3	11.0	5,134	<u> </u>	0.634
Low human development	0.393	56.0	4.1	8.2	1,490	_	0.445
Least developed countries	0.386	57.7	3.7	8.0	1,393		0.441
World	0.624	69.3	7.4	12.3	10,631	_	0.663

NOTES

- a See Technical note 1 for details on how the HDI is calculated.
- **b** Refers to an earlier year than that specified.
- c To calculate the HDI, unpublished estimates from UNDESA (2009d) were used. The data are not published because the population is below 100,000.
- **d** Assumes the same adult mean years of schooling as Switzerland.
- Based on the growth rate of GDP per capita in purchasing power parity (PPP)
 US dollars for Switzerland from IMF (2010a).
- f Based on data on GDP from the United Nations Statistics Division's National Accounts: Main Aggregates Database, data on population from UNDESA (2009d) and the PPP exchange rate for Switzerland from World Bank (2010g).
- **g** In keeping with common usage, the Republic of Korea is referred to as South Korea in the body of this Report.
- Based on data on years of schooling of adults from household surveys in the World Bank's International Income Distribution Database.
- P Based on implied PPP conversion factors from IMF (2010a), data on GDP per capita in local currency unit and the ratio between GNI and GDP in US dollars from World Bank (2010q).
- Based on data from United Nations Children's Fund Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys.
- Refers to primary and secondary education only from UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2010a).
- s Based on the growth rate of GDP per capita in PPP US dollars for Fiji from IMF (2010a).
- t Based on data from Measure DHS Demographic and Health Surveys.

- **h** Based on cross-country regression.
- i Assumes the same adult mean years of schooling as Spain.
- j Based on the growth rate of GDP per capita in PPP US dollars for Spain from IMF (2010a).
- k Based on data on GDP from the United Nations Statistics Division's National Accounts: Main Aggregates Database, data on population from UNDESA (2009d) and the PPP exchange rate for Spain from World Bank (2010g).
- I 2007 prices.
- **m** Based on the ratio of GNI in US dollars to GDP in US dollars from World Bank (2010g).
- n UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2009).

SOURCES

Column 1: Calculated based on data from UNDESA (2009d), Barro and Lee (2010), UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2010a), World Bank (2010q) and IMF (2010a).

Column 2: UNDESA (2009d).

Column 3: Barro and Lee (2010).

Column 4: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2010a).

Column 5: Based on data on GNI per capita and GDP per capita in PPP US dollars (current and constant prices) from World Bank (2010g) and implied growth rates of GDP per capita from IMF (2010a).

Column 6: Calculated based on GNI per capita rank and HDI rank.

Column 7: Calculated based on data in columns 2-4.

Source: Adopted from Human Development Report 2010

Appendix for Chapter 3

3-1 Questionnaire outline in English

This research is conducted for master thesis for The Centre for East and South-East Asian Studies, Lund University, Sweden. The research is an empirical research which mainly focus on gender and female studies in Japanese workplaces located in Bangkok metropolitan region, Thailand. Thank you for your corporation.

	Female D	viscrimination in Japanese Wo	rkplace Located in Bang	kok Metropolitan Reg	jion, Thailand	
		Please answer following questions abo	out employees satisfaction in fema	ale discrimination in your comp	any	
1. M	lark "X" in [] for the word	that indicate yourself, and answer	the following question			
1.1	Sex [] Male	[] Female				
1.2	2 Age: years old					
	[]20-31	[] 31-40	[] 41-50	[] 51-60	[] Over 61	
1.3	B Highest Education					
	[] College or lower	[] Bachelor Degree	[] Master Degree	[] Doctoral Degree	or higher	
1.4	Income per month: THB					
	[] lower than 15,000	[] 15,001-25,000	[] 25,001-35,00	[] Over 35,001		
1.5	Are you working or had be	en working in Japanese company(ies)				
	[] Yes	[] No				
1.6	Before you start your pres	ent employment, in case that you wo	orked in other company(ies) b	pefore, you worked in comp	pany(ies) from?	
	[] Japan	[] Thailand	[] other foreign country	(ies)		
1.7	How long have(had) you b	een working in Japanese company: y	ears			
	[]1-5	[]6-10	[] 11-15	[] 16-20	[] Over 21	

2. Answer the following questions, which one do you agree or happened to you most					
2.1 Satisfaction order by very much, much, moderate, less, not or never					
Company Satisfaction	very much	much	moderate	less	never
Satisfied with your job					
Satisfied with your level of job/job position					
Satisfied with your promotion					
Satisfied with your bonus					
Satisfied with your salary					
Satisfied with chiefs' treatment					
Satisfied with your company's welfare					
Satisfied with your company's sexual equity policies					
2.2 Discrimination problems order by Strongly agree, agree, moderate, partly agree and disagree					
Female discrimination and gender inequality in your workplace	Strongly agree	Agree	Moderate	Partly agree	Disagree
Female discrimination in your company is serious problem					
There is female discrimination in recruitment in your workplace					
There is female discrimination in job promotion in your workplace					
There is female discrimination in job position in your workplace					
There is female discrimination in job description in your workplace (men get better and honoural					
Women work harder but gain less remuneration than men					

2.3 Japanese working system in Thai offices order by S	trongly agre	ee, agree	, moderat	e, partl	y agree	e and disagree	:			
Japanese working system	Strongly agree	Agree	Moderate	Partly agree	Disagree					
Japanese working system is better than Thai's										
Japanese working system has no problem for you										
Japanese working system is acceptable to your dail	y life									
Japanese working system help you to improve you	self									
Japanese working system is consistent to Thais' be	haviour									
Japanese working system benefits to men than wo	men									
Japanese working system dominates by men										
Japanese working system is similar to Thai working	system									
2.4 Direct experiences of female discrimination order by					nd neve	Very often	often	sometime	roro.	nover
Direct experiences of female discrimination and	gender ined	quality in y	our work	olace		very orten	orten	sometime	rare	never
4.1 You have experiences in gender inequalities and do	uble standa	ard in rela	ation to dis	crimina	tion					
between male and female workers caused from h	uman res	ource de	partmen	t						
2.4.1.1 in job requirement										
2.4.1.2 in promotions										
2.4.1.3 in wage payment										
2.4.1.4 in job position and job description										
2.4.1.5 between Thai employees and Japanese em	ployees									
.4.2 You have experiences in gender inequalities and do	uble standa	ard in rela	tion to disc	criminat	ion					

	between male and female workers in your workplace caused from your Japanese chiefs										
	2.4.1.1 in job requirement										
	2.4.1.2 in promotions										
	2.4.1.3 in wage payment										
	2.4.1.4 in job position										
	2.4.1.5 between Thai employees and Japanese employees										
	Japanese chiefs in job position										
2.4.3	You have experiences in gender inequalities and double standard in relation to discrimination										
	between male and female workers in your workplace caused from your Thai chiefs										
	2.4.1.1 in job requirement										
	2.4.1.2 in promotions										
	2.4.1.3 in wage payment										
	2.4.1.4 in job position										
	2.4.1.5 between Thai employees and Japanese employees										
2.5	Indirect experiences of female discrimination order by very often, often, sometime, rare and never										
	Indirect experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in your workplace Very often often sometime rare never	•									
2.5.1	You have heard about gender inequalities and double standard in relation to discrimination										
	between male and female workers caused from human resource department										
	2.4.1.1 in job requirement										
	2.4.1.2 in promotions										
	2.4.1.3 in wage payment										

	2.4.1.4 in job position
	2.4.1.5 between Thai employees and Japanese employees
2.4.	2 You have heard about gender inequalities and double standard in relation to discrimination
	between male and female workers in workplaces caused from Japanese chiefs
	2.4.1.1 in job requirement
	2.4.1.2 in promotions
	2.4.1.3 in wage payment
	2.4.1.4 in job position
	2.4.1.5 between Thai employees and Japanese employees
	Japanese chiefs in job position
2.4.	3 You have heard about gender inequalities and double standard in relation to discrimination
	between male and female workers in your workplace caused from Thai chiefs
	2.4.1.1 in job requirement
	2.4.1.2 in promotions
	2.4.1.3 in wage payment
	2.4.1.4 in job position
	2.4.1.5 between Thai employees and Japanese employees
Plea	se leave a comment or opinion about gender inequality and female discrimination in Japanese workplace located in Thailand

3-2 Questionnaire outline in Thai

งานวิจัยนี้ทำขึ้นเพื่อเป็นข้อมูลประกอบวิทยานิพนธ์ปริญญาโทซึ่งมีจุดประสงค์เพื่อสำรวจข้อมูลเชิงประจักษ์ด้านเพศสภาพศึกษาแก่ Centre for East and South-East Asian Studies Lund University ประเทศสวีเดน โดยเน้นศึกษาเพศหญิงกับการจ้างงานในบริษัทญี่ปุ่นในประเทศไทย เฉพาะเขตกรุงเทพและปริมณฑล ผู้ทำวิจัย ขอขอบพระคุณผู้ตอบคำถามอย่างสูงสำหรับความร่วมมือครั้งนี้

				การเลือกป	ฏิบัติต่อผู้ห	ญิงในสถานที่ทำ	างานในกรุง	เทพและปริม	ณฑลปร	ระเทศไทย				
				โา	ไรดตอบคำถาม	เด้านความพึงพอใจใน	การเลือกปฏิบัต	า กิต่อผู้หญิงในที่ทำ	งานของท่า	น				
1. ก	1. กากบาด "X" ในกล่อง [] เพื่อระบุข้อมูลส่วนตัวของท่าน													
1.1	เพศ	[]	ขาย	[]	หญิง									
1.2	อายุ: ปี													
		[]	20-31	. []	31-40	[]	41-50] [51-60	[]	Over 61			
1.3	การศึกษ	าสูงสุด												
	[] วิทยาลัยหรือต่ำกว่า			า []	ปริญญาตรี	[]	ปริญญาโท]	[] ปริญญาเอกหรือสูงกว่า					
1.4	รายได้ต่	วเดือน: ว	าท											
	[] ต่ำ	กว่า 15,	000	[]	15,001-25,0	[] 000	25,001-35,0] 00	์] สูงกว่า	35,001				
1.5	ท่านกำลึ	ังทำงานส	อยู่ในบริ	ริษัทญี่ปุ่น หรือเคย	ทำงานในบริษ	ษัทญี่ปุ่นมาก่อน								
		[]	ใช่	[]	ไม่ใช่									
1.6	หากท่าเ	มีประสบ	การณ์ก	ารทำงานที่อื่น นอก	าเหนือจากที่	ปัจจุบัน ท่านเคยทำ	างานในบริษัท	เ จากชาติใดมาก	อน (ตอบ	ได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ])			
	[] ល្ងី	ปุ่น		[]	ไทย	[]	บริษัทต่างปร	ะเทศอื่น ๆ						
1.7	′ ท่านเคย	หรือได้ทำ	างานใน	เบริษัทญี่ปุ่นมาแล้ว	กี่ปี: ปี									
	[]1-	5		[]	6-10	[]	11-15]] 16-20	[]	Over 21			

โปรดตอบคำถามดังต่อไปนี้, ท่านเห็นด้วยกับข้อความดังกล่าว หรือเหตุการณ์ดังกล่าวเคยเกิดขึ้นกับท่าน 2.1 ความพึงพอใจเรียงลำดับตาม มากที่สุด มาก ปานกลาง น้อย และไม่เคย ความพึงพอใจในบริษัท	ากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	
	ากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	บัลย	
ความพึงพอใจในบริษัท	ากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	าโลย	
					ไม่เคย
ท่านพึงพอใจในอาชีพของท่าน					
ท่านพึงพอใจในดำแหน่งงานของท่าน					
ท่านพึงพอใจในการเลื่อนตำแหน่งงาน					
ท่านพึงพอใจในการจ่ายโบนัส					
ท่านพึงพอใจในเงินเดือน					
ท่านพึงพอใจต่อการดูแลของเจ้านาย		·		·	
ท่านพึงพอใจกับสวัสดิการของบริษัท					
ท่านพึงพอใจกับการออกนโยบายเพื่อความเท่าเทียมทางเพศของบริษัท					
2.2 ปัญหาการเลือกปฏิบัติ ลำดับตาม เห็นด้วยที่สุด เห็นด้วย ปานกลาง ค่อนข้างไม่เห็นด้วย และไม่เห็นด้วยอ	บย่างยิ่ง				
การเลือกปฏิบัติต่อเพศหญิงและความไม่เท่าเทียมทางเพศในที่ทำงานของท่าน ^{เห็น}	เด้วยที่สุด	เห็นด้วย	ปานกลาง	ค่อนข้างไม่ เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
การเลือกปฏิบัติต่อผู้หญิงในที่ทำงานของท่านเป็นปัญหาที่สำคัญ					
มีการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อผู้หญิงในที่ทำงานของท่านในด้านการจ้างงาน					
มีการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อผู้หญิงในที่ทำงานของท่านในการเลื่อนตำแหน่ง					
มีการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อผู้หญิงในที่ทำงานของท่านในด้านตำแหน่งงาน					
มีการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อผู้หญิงในที่ทำงานของท่านด้านลักษณะงาน (ผู้ชายได้งานที่ดีและมีหน้ามีตามาก					
ผู้หญิงทำงานหนักกว่าแต่ได้ค่าตอบแทนน้อยกว่า					

2.3 ระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นในที่ทำงานไทย ลำดับตามตาม เห็นด้วยที่สุด เห็นด้วย ปานกลาง เ	ห็นด้วยน้อย และไม่เ	เห็นด้วย			
ระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นในที่ทำงานไทย	เห็นด้วยที่สุด	เห็นด้วย	ปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย เล็กน้อย	ไม่เห็นด้วย
ระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นดีกว่าแบบไทย					
การทำงานในระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นไม่มีปัญหาสำหรับท่าน					
การทำงานในระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นเป็นที่พึงพอใจและยอมรับได้ในชีวิตประจำวัน					
การทำงานในระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นทำให้ท่านได้พัฒนาตัวเอง					
การทำงานในระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นสอดคล้องกับนิสัยคนไทย					
การทำงานในระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นเอื้อประโยชน์ให้ผู้ชายมากกว่าผู้หญิง					
การทำงานในระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นผู้ชายเป็นใหญ่					
การทำงานในระบบการทำงานแบบญี่ปุ่นคล้ายคลึงกับระบบของไทย					,
	- ž ž	1 a de a a de			
2.4 ประสบการณ์ตรงต่อการเลือกปฏิบัติแบบไม่เท่าเทียมต่อผู้หญิง ลำดับตาม บ่อยมาก บ่อย บางเประสบการณ์ตรงต่อการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อผู้หญิงและความไม่เท่าเทียมทางเพศในที่ทำงานของท่า		บ่อย บ่อย	บางครั้ง	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	ไม่เคย
2.4.1.1 ในการรับสมัครงาน					
2.4.1.2 ในการเลื่อนตำแหน่งงาน					
2.4.1.3 ในการให้เงินเดือน					
2.4.1.4 ในการว่าจ้างในแต่ละตำแหน่งงาน					
2.4.1.5 ในการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อพนักงานญี่ปุ่นและไทย					
2.4.2 ประสบการณ์ตรงต่อระบบสองมาตรฐานเลือกปฏิบัติแบบไม่เท่าเทียมต่อผู้หญิง จากเจ้านายชาว ญี	 ัปุ่น				

2.4.2.1 ในการรับสมัครงาน					
2.4.2.2 ในการเลื่อนตำแหน่งงาน					
2.4.2.3 ในการให้เงินเดือน					
2.4.2.4 ในการว่าจ้างในแต่ละตำแหน่งงาน					
2.4.2.5 ในการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อพนักงานญี่ปุ่นและไทย					
2.4.3 ประสบการณ์ตรงต่อระบบสองมาตรฐานเลือกปฏิบัติแบบไม่เท่าเทียมต่อผู้หญิง <mark>จากเจ้านายชาวไทย</mark>					
2.4.2.1 ในการรับสมัครงาน					
2.4.2.2 ในการเลื่อนตำแหน่งงาน					
2.4.2.3 ในการให้เงินเดือน					
2.4.2.4 ในการว่าจ้างในแต่ละตำแหน่งงาน					
2.4.2.5 ในการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อพนักงานญี่ปุ่นและไทย					
2.5 Indirect experiences of female discrimination order by very often, often, sometime, rare a	and never				
ประสบการณ์อัอมต่อการเลือกปฏิบัติต่อผู้หญิงและความไม่เท่าเทียมทางเพศในที่ทำงานของท่าน	Very often	often	sometime	rare	never
2.5.1 ประสบการณ์อ้อมต่อระบบสองมาตรฐานเลือกปฏิบัติแบบไม่เท่าเทียมต่อผู้หญิง จากแผนกบุคคลของบริษัท					
ที่ท่านเคยได้ยินหรือได้เห็นมาจากผู้อื่น					
2.5.1.1 ในการรับสมัครงาน					
2.5.1.2 ในการเลื่อนตำแหน่งงาน					
2.5.1.3 ในการให้เงินเดือน					
2.5.1.4 ในการว่าจ้างในแต่ละตำแหน่งงาน					
		·			

2.4.2 ประสบการณ์อัอมต่	 อระบบสองบาตรราบ ลือก	 ปลิทัติแบบป่าแน	ท่าเทียเเต่ลย้าม	กิงลาคเล้าบาย	เชาวดี้ปร			
	<u>่อได้เห็นมาจากผู้อื่น</u>	THE THEFT I SHE	пемерине	בו או איזו אינו	пинерцы			
2.4.2.1 ในการรับ							ı	
2.4.2.2 ในการเลื่อ	านตำแหน่งงาน							
2.4.2.3 ในการให้	งินเดือน							
2.4.2.4 ในการว่าจ	างในแต่ละตำแหน่งงาน							
2.4.2.5 ในการเลือ	<u>เกปฏิบัติต่อพนักงานญี่ปุ่</u> น	และไทย						
2.4.3 ประสบการณ์อัอมต่	อระบบสองมาตรฐานเลือก	ปฏิบัติแบบไม่เห	<u>ท่าเทียมต่อผู้ห</u>	ญิงจากเจ้านาย	เชาวไทย			
ที่ท่านเคยได้ยินหร	ื่อได้เห็นมาจากผู้อื่น							
2.4.2.1 ในการรับผ	ชมัครงาน							
2.4.2.2 ในการเลื่อ	านตำแหน่งงาน							
2.4.2.3 ในการให้	งินเดือน							
2.4.2.4 ในการว่าจ	างในแต่ละตำแหน่งงาน							
2.4.2.5 ในการเลือ	ากปฏิบัติต่อพนักงานญี่ปุ่เ	และไทย						
		_						
โปรดแสดงความเห็นเกี่ย	วกับความไม่เท่าเทียมกัน 	ทางเพศในบริษั	¥ัทญีปุ่นที่อยู่ใ	ในประเทศไทย				

Appendix for Chapter 4

4-1 Respondents' General Information

4-1.1Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-30	56	72.7	72.7	72.7
	31-40	19	24.7	24.7	97.4
	41-50	2	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	77	100.0	100.0	

4-1.2 Highest Education

					Cumulative
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent
Valid	collage or lower	1	1.3	1.3	1.3
	bachelor	62	80.5	80.5	81.8
	master	14	18.2	18.2	100.0
	Total	77	100.0	100.0	

4-1.3 Income per Month/THB

					Cumulative
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent
Valid	lower than 15000	7	9.1	9.1	9.1
	15001-25000	38	49.4	49.4	58.4
	25001-35000	18	23.4	23.4	81.8
	higher than 35001	14	18.2	18.2	100.0
	Total	77	100.0	100.0	

4-1.4 Working Period in Japanese Company

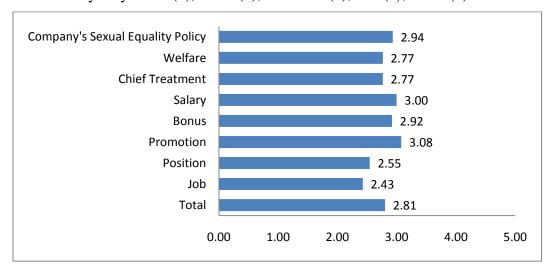
Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
-----------	---------	---------------	--------------------

Valid	1-5	56	72.7	72.7	72.7
	6-10	15	19.5	19.5	92.2
	11-15	5	6.5	6.5	98.7
	21 up	1	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	77	100.0	100.0	

4-2 Female discrimination perspectives

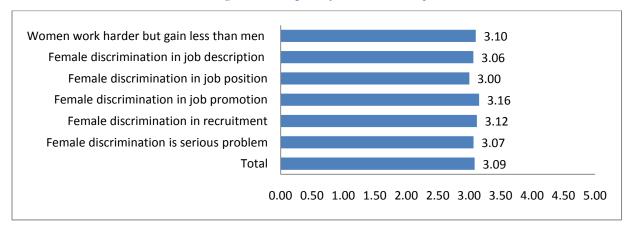
4-2.1 Company Satisfactions

Satisfaction order by very much (5), much (4), moderate (3), less (2), never (1)



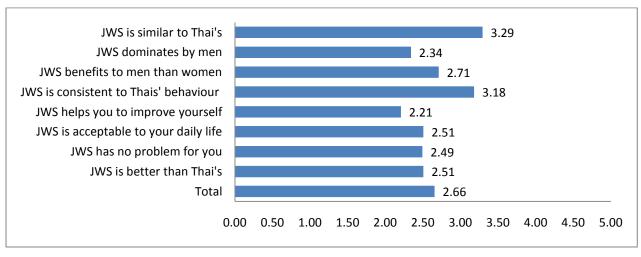
1.00-1.50 Strongly dissatisfied
1.51-2.50 Moderately dissatisfied
2.51-3.50 Neutral
3.51-4.50 Moderately satisfied
4.51-5 Strongly satisfied

4-2.2 Female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces.



1.00-1.50 Strongly disagree
1.51-2.50 Moderately disagree
2.51-3.50 Neutral
3.51-4.50 Moderately agree
4.51-5 Strongly agree

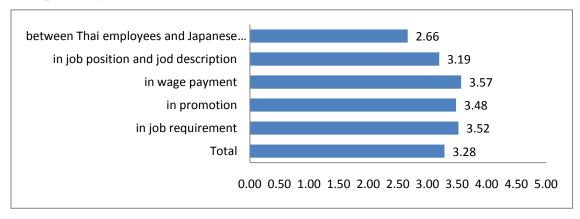
4-2.3 Japanese working system in Japanese workplace



1.00-1.50 Strongly disagree
1.51-2.50 Moderately disagree
2.51-3.50 Neutral
3.51-4.50 Moderately agree
4.51-5 Strongly agree

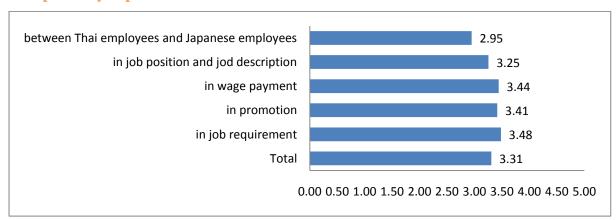
4-2.4 Direct experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces

4-2.4.1 Direct experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces by HR



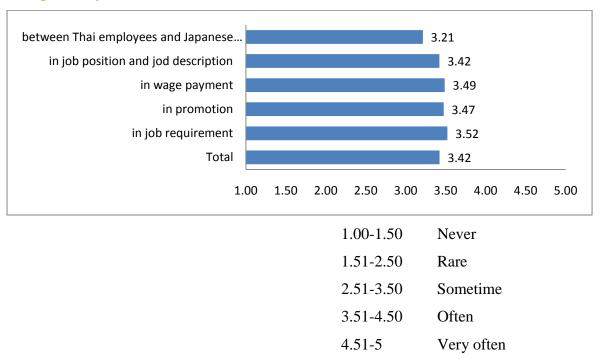
1.00-1.50 Never
1.51-2.50 Rare
2.51-3.50 Sometime
3.51-4.50 Often
4.51-5 Very often

4-2.4.2 Direct experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces by Japanese chiefs



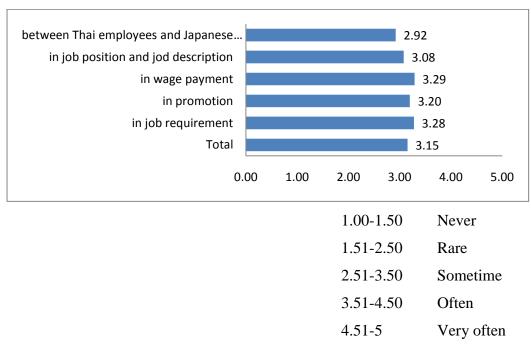
1.00-1.50 Never
1.51-2.50 Rare
2.51-3.50 Sometime
3.51-4.50 Often
4.51-5 Very often

4-2.4.3 Direct experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces by Thai chiefs

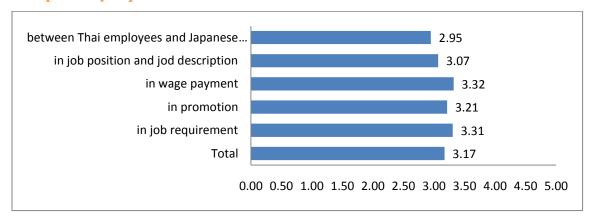


4-2.5 Indirect experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces.

4-2.5.1 Indirect experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces by HR

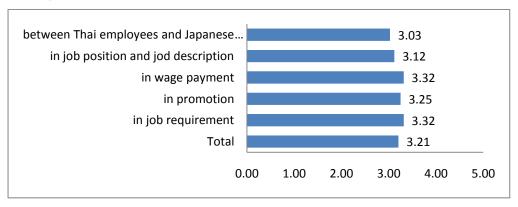


4-2.5.2 Indirect experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces by Japanese chiefs



1.00-1.50 Never
1.51-2.50 Rare
2.51-3.50 Sometime
3.51-4.50 Often
4.51-5 Very often

4-2.5.3 Indirect experiences of female discrimination and gender inequality in their workplaces by Thai chiefs



1.00-1.50 Never
1.51-2.50 Rare
2.51-3.50 Sometime
3.51-4.50 Often
4.51-5 Very often

4-3 Relationship of Variables

4-3.1 Relationship between education and female discrimination

Education	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	Education 1 77	Female discrimination is a serious problem 231* .044 76	There is female discrimination in recruitment120 .305	There is female discrimination in promotion234* .041	There is female discrimination in job position237* .039	There is female discrimination in job description208 .069
Female discrimination is a serious problem	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	231 [*] .044 76	1 76	.474** .000 75	.521** .000 76	.438** .000 75	.526** .000 76
	e Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	120 .305 75	.474** .000 75	1 75	.607** .000 75	.744** .000 74	.568** .000 75
	e Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	234 [*] .041 77	.521** .000 76	.607** .000 75	1 77	.838** .000 76	.864** .000 77
	e Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	237* .039 76	.438** .000 75	.744** .000 74	.838** .000 76	76	.755** .000 76
	e Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	208 .069 77	.526** .000 76	.568** .000 75	.864** .000 77	.755** .000 76	1 77

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4-3.2 Relationship between income per month and job satisfaction

					Satisfaction			Satisfaction		Satisfaction with
		Income per	Satisfaction	Satisfaction	with	Satisfaction	Satisfaction	with chief	Satisfaction with	sexual equality
		month	with job	with position	promotion	with bonus	with salary	treatment	company's welfare	policy
Income per month	Pearson Correlation	1	331**	279 [*]	201	241*	377**	215	149	117
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003	.014	.082	.035	.001	.060	.196	.311
	N	77	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77
Satisfaction with job	Pearson Correlation	331**	1	.751**	.553**	.286*	.302**	.284*	.305**	.307**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003		.000	.000	.012	.008	.012	.007	.007
	N	77	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	279 [*]	.751**	1	.545**	.156	.274*	.239*	.216	.345**
position	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.000		.000	.174	.016	.036	.059	.002
	N	77	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	201	.553**	.545**	1	.331**	.305**	.250*	.322**	.418**
promotion	Sig. (2-tailed)	.082	.000	.000		.003	.007	.029	.005	.000
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76
Satisfaction with bonus	Pearson Correlation	241*	.286*	.156	.331**	1	.418**	.328**	.525**	.342**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.035	.012	.174	.003		.000	.004	.000	.002
	N	77	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77
Satisfaction with salary	Pearson Correlation	377**	.302**	.274*	.305**	.418**	1	.522**	.400**	.451**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.008	.016	.007	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	77	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77
Satisfaction with chief	Pearson Correlation	215	.284*	.239*	.250*	.328**	.522**	1	.298**	.500**
treatment	Sig. (2-tailed)	.060	.012	.036	.029	.004	.000		.009	.000
	N	77	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	149	.305**	.216	.322**	.525**	.400**	.298**	1	.388**
company's welfare	Sig. (2-tailed)	.196	.007	.059	.005	.000	.000	.009		.000
	N	77	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77
Satisfaction with sexual	Pearson Correlation	117	.307**	.345**	.418**	.342**	.451**	.500**	.388**	1
equality policy	Sig. (2-tailed)	.311	.007	.002	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000	
	N	77	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4-3.3 The relationship between total Japanese working system positive variable and job satisfactions

		Satisfaction with job	Satisfaction with position	Satisfaction with promotion	Satisfaction with bonus	Satisfaction with salary	Satisfaction with chief treatment	Satisfaction with company's welfare	policy	Total Japanese working system positive variables
Satisfaction with job	Pearson Correlation	1	.751**	.553**	.286*	.302**	.284*	.305**	.307**	.410**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1	.000	.000	.012	.008	.012	.007	.007	.000
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.751**	1	.545**	.156	.274*	.239*	.216	.345**	.264*
position	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.174	.016	.036	.059	.002	.022
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.553**	.545**	1	.331**	.305**	.250*	.322**	.418**	.391**
promotion	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.003	.007	.029	.005	.000	.001
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	74
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.286*	.156	.331**	1	.418**	.328**	.525**	.342**	.326**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.174	.003		.000	.004	.000	.002	.004
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.302**	.274*	.305**	.418**	1	.522**	.400**	.451**	.256*
salary	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.016	.007	.000		.000	.000	.000	.026
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with chief		.284*	.239*	.250*	.328**	.522**	1	.298**	.500**	.372**
treatment	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.036	.029	.004	.000		.009	.000	.001
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.305**	.216	.322**	.525**	.400**	.298**	1	.388**	.273*
company's welfare	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.059	.005	.000	.000	.009		.000	.018
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.307**	.345**	.418**	.342**	.451**	.500**	.388**	1	.334**
sexual equality policy	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.002	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000		.003
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77		75
Total Japanese	Pearson Correlation	.410**	.264*	.391**	.326**	.256*	.372**	.273*	.334**	1
working system	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.022	.001	.004	.026	.001	.018	.003	1
positive variables	N	75	75	74	75	75	75	75	75	75

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4-3.4 The relationship between income per month and total Japanese working system negative variable

			Total Japanese working system negative variable
Income per month	Pearson Correlation	1	364**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	77	75
Total Japanese working		364**	1
system negative variable	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	75	75

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4-3.5 The Relationship between income per month, age, education and total direct female discrimination experiences from HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs.

		Income per month	Age		Total direct female discrimination experiences from HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs.
Income per month	Pearson Correlation	1	.209	.229*	064
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.068	.045	.596
	N	77	77	77	71
Age	Pearson Correlation	.209	1	.132	086
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.068		.253	.474
	N	77	77	77	71
Education	Pearson Correlation	.229*	.132	1	039
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.253		.749
	N	77	77	77	71
Total direct female	Pearson Correlation	064	086	039	1
discrimination experiences from	Sig. (2-tailed)	.596	.474	.749	
HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs.	N	71	71	71	71

4-3.3 The relationship between total Japanese working system positive variable and job satisfactions

		Satisfaction with job	Satisfaction with position	Satisfaction with promotion	Satisfaction with bonus	Satisfaction with salary	Satisfaction with chief treatment	Satisfaction with company's welfare		Total Japanese working system positive variables
Satisfaction with job	Pearson Correlation	1	.751**	.553**	.286*	.302**	.284*	.305**	.307**	.410**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.012	.008	.012	.007	.007	.000
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.751**	1	.545**	.156	.274*	.239*	.216	.345**	.264*
position	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.174	.016	.036	.059	.002	.022
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.553**	.545**	1	.331**	.305**	.250*	.322**	.418**	.391**
promotion	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.003	.007	.029	.005	.000	.001
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	74
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.286*	.156	.331**	1	.418**	.328**	.525**	.342**	.326**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.174	.003		.000	.004	.000	.002	.004
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.302**	.274*	.305**	.418**	1	.522**	.400**	.451**	.256*
salary	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.016	.007	.000		.000	.000	.000	.026
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77		75
Satisfaction with chief		.284*	.239*	.250*	.328**	.522**	1	.298**	.500**	.372**
treatment	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.036	.029	.004	.000		.009	.000	.001
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77		75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.305**	.216	.322**	.525**	.400**	.298**	1	.388**	.273*
company's welfare	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.059	.005	.000	.000	.009		.000	.018
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77	77	75
Satisfaction with	Pearson Correlation	.307**	.345**	.418**	.342**	.451**	.500**	.388**	1	.334**
sexual equality policy	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.002	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000		.003
	N	77	77	76	77	77	77	77		75
Total Japanese	Pearson Correlation	.410**	.264*	.391**	.326**	.256*	.372**	.273*	.334**	1
working system	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.022	.001	.004	.026	.001	.018	.003	
positive variables	N	75	75	74	75	75	75	75	75	75

^{*.} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4-3.6 The Relationship between income per month, age, education and total indirect female discrimination experiences from HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs.

		Income per month	Age		Total indirect female discrimination experiences from HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs.
Income per month	Pearson Correlation	1	.209	.229*	188
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.068	.045	.111
	N	77	77	77	73
Age	Pearson Correlation	.209	1	.132	075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.068		.253	.529
	N	77	77	77	73
Education	Pearson Correlation	.229*	.132	1	.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.253		.769
	N	77	77	77	73
Total indirect female	Pearson Correlation	188	075	.035	1
discrimination experiences	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111	.529	.769	
from HR, Japanese chiefs and Thai chiefs.	N	73	73	73	73

^{*.} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).