

# ACTION RESEARCH

## Gender Dimension of Skills Development in Vocational Training in Thailand

by

Busakorn Suriyasarn  
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Ministry of Labour (MOL)



Ministry of Social Development and Human Security  
(MOSDHS)



International Labour Office (ILO)



Asian Institute of Technology (AIT)

**Action Research:  
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Asian Institute of Technology (AIT)  
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## Preface

Increased access for girls and women to education and training plays an important role worldwide in providing them with more and better jobs. This also rings true in Asia, where the feminization of the labour market has become a reality. However, girls and women from low-income or other marginalized population groups continue to have limited and less attractive labour market choices. They often find themselves in ‘women’s jobs’, not only because they are considered to be the weaker sex, through ingrained cultural traditions and beliefs, but also because they generally only gain access to skill training opportunities within a limited range of occupations that are considered to be suitable for them.

These two factors combined continue to limit equal access and participation of women in the labour market and give rise to discrimination at work. Quality vocational training can act as a powerful device to overcome unproductive, volatile, low-paid and low-status work in which women from disadvantaged population groups are often clustered.

The 2003 International Labour Organization (ILO) Global Report, ‘Time for Equality at Work’, states that the elimination of such discrimination benefits not only individuals, but extends to the economy and society, resulting in higher economic growth rates, political stability and social justice for all.

While the elimination of discrimination is possible, effective and desirable in free and competitive societies, discrimination in employment and training will not vanish by itself, nor will the market on its own eliminate discrimination. Poverty reduction and sustainable development will only take place if institutions and practices move towards the explicit promotion of equality.

Recognizing the need for such a shift, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare of the Royal Thai Government and the ILO carried out action research on two major programmes under the Department of Skill Development and the Department of Public Welfare in cooperation with the Asian Institute of Technology (AIT), with the aim of drawing on existing experiences and to identify good practices that can increase women’s access to vocational training.

The findings of this research were validated at a policy formulation workshop by practitioners at policy level. Representatives of vocational training institutes and Vocational Training Policy Advisers from MOLSW developed policy recommendations in this regard. Competitive skills development is vital for Thailand in light of global economic realities, and so investment in all human resources will be crucial.

This report has been published in both Thai and English. The English version has been utilized as input for ‘Time for Equality at Work’ and will be discussed at the 2003 International Labour Conference. It is the sincere hope of the ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific that the report will serve to inform policy makers in the vocational training field in Thailand, and be an inspiration for Thai researchers interested in the promotion of gender equality.

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# Executive Summary

## Research Rationale and Methodology

In 2001 the International Labour Organization (ILO) InFocus Programme on Skills Knowledge and Employability (IFP/SKILLS) and concerned field offices initiated a global review of the effectiveness of vocational training to promote equal access to employment for men and women. Thailand is one of the three countries in Asia participating in the global review besides Cambodia and Nepal. The research has two components, macro analysis of economic change and the labour market trends and action research, conducted during September – December 2001, involving field assessments of national vocational skill training systems of eight government-operated institutions in seven provinces, including Chiang Mai, Mae Hong Son, Lampang, Nakorn Ratchasima, Nontaburi, Songkla, and Narathiwat. The research was designed to answer two primary questions:

1. To what extent are skills development systems (institutions, policies, programmes) providing appropriate skills and equal access to training and jobs to young and adult women and men?
2. What good policies, initiatives and practices exist that are aimed at reducing or removing gender inequalities in access to skill training and employment and enable women and men to obtain decent work and productive income?

The research was aimed at identifying problems and barriers that curtail access and reproduce inequalities in access to skill training and employment during the recent decade in Thailand. It is also intended to reveal lessons learned from the existing programmes and actions that provide recommendations on future policy and programmes in vocational skill training in Thailand. The outcomes of this research will provide inputs to the ILO Global Report on Discrimination, which will be discussed at the International Labour Conference in 2003.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MOLSW) selected for review eight vocational training institutions under the Department of Skill Development (DSD) and Department of Public Welfare (DPW).<sup>\*</sup> The eight institutions were selected according to three practice categories: (1) good practice; (2) standard practice; and (3) cultural-specific practice. Twelve DSD and DPW officials involved in vocational training work were selected to participate in the research project. They provided assistance in collecting statistics and information about their respective department or training site. Primary data were collected through questionnaires, interviews and focus groups. Interviews were conducted with the directors of the DSD's Women and Child Skill Development Coordination Division and the DPW's Occupational Assistance Division, directors of the eight training institutions, and 32 trainers, four from each institution. Questionnaires were administered with 271 trainees and 83 training graduates, and focus groups were conducted with 16 separate groups of approximately 10 male and female trainees.

This research report is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 describes rationale, methodology and overview of the research. Chapter 2 provides a macro analysis of issues and trends in the Thai labour market, economic change and skills development from a gender perspective. Chapter 3 gives an overview of vocational training systems of the Departments of Skill development and Public Welfare and reviews the extent to which women are given access to skill training. Chapter 4 provides quantitative and qualitative field assessments of training programmes and practices of the eight training institutions selected to participate in this study by the MOLSW. Chapter 5 synthesizes research findings, discusses lessons learned and provides policy recommendations.

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<sup>\*</sup> As a result of Thailand's bureaucratic reform in late 2002, the MOLSW was split into two ministries: Ministry of Labour (MOL) and Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (MOSDHS). The DSD falls under the MOL and the DPW was absorbed into the MOSDHS.

## Summary of Findings

Women's labour participation rate has always been large in Thailand, comprising 45 per cent of the adult labour force in the country. Over the last fifteen years, rapid industrial growth has provided more job opportunities for Thai women in the manufacturing and service sectors where they predominate in low-skill, low-pay, low-quality, and low-status jobs. For example, the garment and food processing industries, which belong to the top seven manufacturing industries, generate high revenues and have been main engines of economic growth for the country, rely largely on poorly educated and low-skilled women workers. In the event of the major economic downturn following the Asian financial crisis in 1997, more Thai women entered the service sector to mitigate the effects of the crisis on their households. The service sector readily absorbs female labour, especially within the tourism and entertainment industries, since jobs in these establishments are considered traditionally female.

Women have been generally associated with low-level skills since their work is often understood as an extension of their reproductive and domestic roles. Their work – both paid and unpaid – is thus undervalued and, in many instances, under-enumerated. If wages are used as an indicator of the value given to women's work, it was discovered that women's earnings are generally lower compared with men even in sectors where women are concentrated such as in manufacturing, services and home-based work within the informal sector.

The gender division in the labour market is mirrored in the vocational training systems provided to men and women who are outside the formal educational system. Field assessments of the DSD and DPW vocational skill training services reveal that the DSD and DPW have provided opportunities for a number of men and women, especially youth, who otherwise have few educational and occupational alternatives, to obtain vocational skills that allow them to participate in the labour force and to have an improved quality of life. However, despite some progress both in terms of expansion of services to more targeted groups in urban and rural areas by both departments and increased attention to gender equality in access to vocational training, there remain serious gender disparities that are structural as well as attitudinal in the government's vocational training systems provided by the DSD and DPW.

Sex segregation between the DSD and the DPW training and unequal access to training courses remain significant barriers to gender equality in skills development in Thailand. Only one-third or 37 per cent of the DSD trainees are women and less than 10 per cent of trainees in the DPW system are men. There is also a clear disparity in the capacities of the two systems, given the unequal numbers of training facilities under the DPW and the DSD systems. The DPW capacity is severely limited compared with that of the DSD, i.e., the DPW runs only seven welfare and vocational training centres located in different regions of the country, whereas the DSD runs as many as 11 regional vocational training institutes and 31 provincial vocational training centers around the country. During the 1990s the DPW system provided training services to far below 10,000 trainees a year, merely a fraction of the DSD's capacity, at around 200,000 per year. As a result, women have had more limited access to training compared to men.

The institutional sex segregation and the unequal access of men and women to vocational training are rooted in the history of the two institutions. Historically the DSD has been entrusted with responsibilities to develop skills of the national labour force in order to feed skilled workers into the growing industrial sectors of the economy. Because industrial skills have been traditionally "male" skills, the DSD vocational training system has, as a consequence, catered more to the needs of the male population who plan to enter or who are already in the labour force. This philosophy has not changed

much until recently, when the DSD began adding non-industrial skill courses and has attracted more female trainees.

On the other hand, the DPW was established with a mandate to serve the welfare needs of disadvantaged populations, including children, the elderly, people with disabilities, ethnic minorities, *and women and girls in need*. Providing vocational training to women has not been the primary mandate of the DPW but has been offered to target groups *as part of* larger social welfare services to enable them to become self-sufficient. As a result, the skill training courses offered in the DPW system tend to be basic and short-term, and lead to self-employment, rather than to wage employment as is the case for the DSD system. The DPW has not been endowed with budget and expertise to provide vocational skill training on a comprehensive scale. Moreover, compared to the DSD, which offers a wide range of training courses in many industrial and service-based skill areas, skill selection in the DPW training system is often confined within traditionally female skills such as fashion design, dressmaking, sewing, hairdressing, and handicrafts.

The courses which women attend in the DSD system also tend to be shorter than those attended by men. Men continue to dominate courses that are traditionally “male skills” such as automotive, construction, welding, electrical, and electronics. Introduction of new occupational skills in the service sector has diminished somewhat the traditional sex segregation; there is more equal participation of males and females in newly introduced skill areas, such as hotel and restaurant services, commercial cooking, computer, and electronics. However, the tendency of sex segregation persists in the care-based and entry-level service-based courses such as child and elderly care, traditional Thai massage, office assistance, and hotel maid services – courses largely attended by women. These tendencies reflect the underlying gender values in the society expressed by the majority of trainers and trainees interviewed.

Gender disparities in vocational skill training have been recognized by both the DSD and the DPW. Initiatives to encourage women’s participation in skill training have been created within both systems that come in three forms:

- (1) adding new courses deemed attractive to women, to the existing list of skill training curriculum
- (2) adapting general training facilities to accommodate women and girls such as building women’s dormitories and women’s toilets
- (3) creating women-specific projects such as the DSD’s Chiang Mai Women’s Friendly Centre and the DPW’s “Creating New Life for Rural Women” Project

In the DSD system, a 30-per cent target has been set to increase women’s participation in institution-based pre-employment training programme, while the DPW continues to focus on providing services to disadvantaged women (poor, rural and at risk of prostitution) through the Creating New Life for Rural Women Project, through which it provides services to approximately 3,000 women per year. In general, all institutions reviewed, including those expected to engage in good practices, share the same pitfall in segregating men and women along the skill line according to the local and traditional views towards gender roles at work. Although many executives and trainers have progressive views towards gender equality, most still have traditional views about roles of men and women. The same views are shared by trainees of both sexes. By and large, trainers and trainees still believe in physical limitations of women and as a result believe that women should work in less physically strenuous field, i.e., in care or services sectors, although actual practices are different. In many instances industrial work no longer requires physical strength and work in the services sector can be quite strenuous.

Success or failure of the training system is in a large part affected by the philosophical and attitudinal factors ingrained in each institution, although it is evident from the DSD Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre "good practice" that clear policy directives and well-defined goals and measures can form a good framework for successful implementation. The integrated training approach that combines both work and life skills adopted by the DPW has proved effective for skills development of its young female target group, who also require other social welfare services. However, there is a question whether this approach will prove effective with different target groups that do not require social welfare services, although it is evident in assessment of DSD institutions that vocational skill training without life skills is inadequate for many young trainees – male and female. In addition, the DSD's heavy emphasis on discipline and little attention to the development of life skills among trainees has had a negative effect on the personal development and sense of self-esteem of trainees. The social and human dimension of the training such as opportunities to engage in social activities, career as well as personal counseling, and positive relationships with other trainees and trainers is important particularly for young trainees, but is lacking in the DSD institutions. In terms of equality in access to vocational training among different social and cultural groups, it is apparent that ethnic minorities, particularly the hill tribes, have not been given proper attention at the policy level. The hill tribes and to a lesser extent former trainees in the northeast and southern regions have not received full benefits of training in that the skills they have obtained have not improved their employment opportunities.

In addition to these barriers to gender equality in access to skill training in Thailand, at the two-day Policy Formulation Workshop during December 6-7, 2001, the DSD and DPW officials who had been involved in the action research summarized specific challenges and obstacles in promoting gender equality in vocational skill training in their respective departments as follows:

#### ***Department of Skill Development***

1. Employers' resistance against women in non-traditional areas of work
2. Physical limitations of women
3. Lack of understanding on gender equality issues and gender sensitivity among training staff and executives that results in inability to provide appropriate guidance and counseling to trainees
4. General social and cultural values and beliefs that hamper promotion of women in non-traditional fields
5. Inadequate knowledge and understanding about how to create training curricula and provide a training environment such as equipment procurement and a safe workplace that are appropriate for women
6. Young age of trainees
7. Information dissemination not reaching all target groups
8. Lack of continuity and system of personnel training and development

#### ***Department of Public Welfare***

1. Institutional and local culture not conducive to gender equality
2. Inadequate linkage between skill training and labour market demands, i.e., training is supply-driven rather than demand-driven
3. Because vocational training is not the primary area of expertise of DPW, DPW lacks sufficient capacity to provide quality skill training
4. No clearly-set standards of training and hence unsystematic training operation and assessment that is not supported by systematic studies and research

## Policy Recommendations

At the December 2001 Policy Formulation Workshop, researchers and the DSD and DPW officials also conducted a departmental needs analysis and formulated policy recommendations to promote equal participation of women and men in Thailand's skills development systems. The following list of policy recommendations is partially based on discussion at the workshop.

1. *Competitive skills development* – In view of changing economic reality in which costs of Thai labour become less and less competitive, Thailand needs to reposition itself as an economy with a skilled work force. Thailand's skills development and vocational training systems need to be more pro-active. Labour competitiveness can be achieved through ensuring that *both men and women* have upgraded skills.
2. *Inclusion of women in mainstream, longer-term training programmes* – Women should have more equal access to standardized skill training and improved opportunities to enter the labour market with quality skills and, as a result, improved employment opportunities.
3. *Re-evaluation of departmental mission and strategic approach to skills development* – DSD needs a clearer mission that it is responsible for developing and upgrading skills of both male and female work force. The discipline-oriented focus in many DSD institutes needs to be complemented by a more client-centered approach to benefit many young men from low-income groups, who also require other social services and life skills. DPW may need to consider whether it should provide higher quality skill training, which can be achieved through upgrading the DPW's own training operation (training curricula, personnel, facilities, etc.) or collaborating with government or private vocational training agencies.
4. *Explicit equal opportunity goals and measures* – For instance, targets of women's participation in given training courses or skill areas can be set either in percentage or in number for each year.
5. *Informational and attitudinal campaign* to improve the image of DSD and DPW training institutions and to create awareness of gender equality.
6. *Incorporating gender dimension to skills development:*
  - ❑ Set clear equal employment opportunity directives at the top ministerial level and communicate the directives to the departments and training institutions.
  - ❑ Revise curricula to avoid gender stereotyping.
  - ❑ Create more women-friendly training environment.
  - ❑ Develop flexible training programmes for women with family responsibilities, such as providing childcare.
  - ❑ Obtain external gender expertise from women's organizations to build internal capacity, and to plan and design gender-specific programmes.
7. *Integrated and responsive training programmes for specific groups* – Distinction between training for wage employment and self-employment needs to be made. Integrated training needs to be provided to those who are or will become self-employed. Business management training needs to be delivered as part of a larger package of business development services (BDS), including the identification of business opportunities, marketing support, business development services and access to credit and new technology. In addition, special tailor-



made training is appropriate for vulnerable groups of rural workers who are prone to migration to foreign countries or to major domestic markets and as a result vulnerable to exploitation. Basic life skills, realistic information, as well as awareness of workers' rights should be incorporated in training for all workers and especially this target group.

8. *Partnerships with employers and other partners* – Partnerships between training agencies, individual employers and social partners can strengthen the training programmes at, at least, two levels: job search assistance/job placement and financing of the training programmes. There should also be more collaboration between the DSD and the DPW.
9. *Systematic monitoring, evaluation and research capacity building* – It is evident from this research that systematic data collection and analysis is lacking in both the DSD and DPW systems. Systematic monitoring and evaluation will not be possible without a more complete and more systematic information database of trainees and graduates, both at the decentralized institutional level and at the national level. Database should be updated quarterly or at least biannually, or as information becomes available. Research and development capacity needs to be developed, particularly for regional and large provincial institutions that should be more involved in decentralized policymaking and planning of vocational training programmes. A gender perspective must be integrated systematically in the overall research and skill training system for staff.

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **Introduction**

### **1.1 Research Rationale**

In 2001 the International Labour Organization (ILO) InFocus Programme on Skills Knowledge and Employability (IFP/SKILLS) and concerned field offices initiated a global review of the effectiveness of vocational training to promote equal access to employment for men and women. Participating countries in Asia include Cambodia, Nepal and Thailand. The programme was motivated by a global situation whereby women's access to skill training to obtain better jobs and income is vital for national growth and family welfare. However, in practice women's opportunities to equal access to skill training and employment have been hampered by considerable constraints in many countries:

- Families, training providers and employers tend to invest less in girls and women as they are considered to become secondary income earners only, who will allocate most time to looking after the household and family.
- Women, especially from poor and otherwise disadvantaged population groups, tend to be burdened with both productive and reproductive roles. Limitations also often exist on their mobility to attend training.
- Women's enrollment in longer-term institution-based training and in workplace-based training or retraining programmes is usually very low. Training for "disadvantaged" women often suffers from a social welfare approach, providing minimal skills in one vocational trade only.
- Sex segregation is quite pronounced in the region with a narrower range of occupations considered suitable for women. This limits women's skill training to "traditional" women's occupations, in low skill areas such as handicrafts, sewing and hairdressing that are often labour intensive but lead to marginal earnings in the informal sector or low wage employment, mostly in the garment sector.
- Premises and the classroom climate are often not very women-friendly, impeding women's participation all together (e.g., no dormitories, open toilets, no separate bathrooms for men and women), leading to low enrollment and high drop-out rates, especially in skill training for male-dominated occupations. Sexual harassment and gender stereotyping by trainers and trainees is common.
- Life skills and workers' rights or legal literacy training is usually not provided in a systematic manner by mainstream vocational training programmes and institutions.

Thailand represents a country that has many skill training programmes for women. Women's participation in the work force in Thailand is also higher than that in many other countries. Despite this fact, a large number of low-income women in Thailand have still been unable to benefit meaningfully from the existing services provided by governmental training agencies under the auspices of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MOLSW). In the aftermath of the 1997 economic crisis, Thai women have had to carry a greater load of work to get the family through difficult times. National organizations under the MOLSW, specifically the Department of Skill Development (DSD) and the Department of Public Welfare (DPW) have created many skill-training programmes to alleviate the crisis-induced unemployment problem and to assist women in rural areas and in difficult situations.

At a gender training workshop organized by MOLSW and ILO's Equal Employment Opportunity for Women (EEOW) project in Thailand in early 2001, participants from the Departments of Skill Development and Public Welfare expressed strong interest in integrating gender into their direct responsibilities and having the skill training curriculum reviewed for better integration of gender concerns. As a result, an action research was proposed, "Action Research: Gender Dimension of Skills development in Vocational Training in Thailand."

Through this research, the MOLSW, in conjunction with the ILO, identified good practices for further replications and challenges for appropriate policy responses. The research was financially and technically supported by the IFP/SKILLS and the Bangkok Area Office and East Asia Multidisciplinary Advisory Team (BAO/EASMAT).<sup>1</sup> In addition, ILO/Japan EEOW Thailand provided support for involvement of the DSD and DPW staff in the conduct of this research – with a view to increase their capacity to evaluate effectiveness of vocational training programmes for men and women, to integrate gender concerns into existing programmes, and to develop a gender monitoring system for their national vocational training systems.

## **1.2 Research Methodology**

### ***Research Structure***

This research was conducted during September – December 2001. The research has two components: macro analysis and action research. The macro analysis comprises an overview of labour market trends, economic change and skills development in Thailand. The action research component involves field assessments of vocational skill training systems of the DSD and the DPW.

The macro analysis component was conducted by Bernadette P. Resurreccion of the Gender & Development Studies Department, Asian Institute of Technology (AIT). The action research component was executed by Busakorn Suriyasarn, independent national consultant, with logistical and data collection assistance from a team of twelve DSD and DPW officials and Penpak Thongthae of Prince Songkla University for data collection at the two southern sites in Narathiwat and Songkla. Action research results were analyzed by the lead researcher, Busakorn Suriyasarn. Except for the macro analysis portion (Chapter 2), which was prepared by Bernadette Resurreccion, this report was written by Busakorn Suriyasarn (Chapters 1, 3, 4 and 5), incorporating inputs from the DSD, the DPW and the research team for research conclusions (Chapter 5).

### ***Research Questions***

The action research was designed to answer two primary questions:

- (1) To what extent are skills development systems (institutions, policies, programmes) providing appropriate skills and equal access to training and jobs to young and adult women and men?
- (2) What good policies, initiatives and practices exist that are aimed at reducing or removing gender inequalities in access to skill training and employment and enable women and men to obtain decent work and productive income?

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<sup>1</sup> As of 1 April 2003, BAO/EASMAT became Subregional Office for East Asia (SRO-Bangkok).

Research attention is given to gender equalities in access to skill training and in training outcomes, while focusing on skills development for workers in the informal economy and population groups in poverty and social exclusion. Besides the gender dimension, other salient characteristics of the groups under study are also looked into as relevant: age, ethnicity, religion, urban/rural residence, education, and income.

In addressing the two main research questions outlined above, the research aimed at identifying problems and barriers that curtail access and reproduce inequalities in access to skill training and employment during the recent decade in Thailand. It is also intended to reveal lessons learned from the existing programmes and actions that provide recommendations on future policy and programmes in vocational skill training in Thailand. The outcomes of this research will provide inputs to the ILO Global Report on Discrimination, which will be discussed at the International Labour Conference in 2003.

### ***Macroanalysis***

In order to provide a macro view for Thailand's employment situation and to set up a proper context for the action research, the macro analysis is organized around the following research inquiries:

- (a) impacts of the Asian financial crisis of 1997 on women and men workers in all sectors
- (b) patterns of female and male concentrations in the labour market and their explanatory factors
- (c) wage differentials by gender as indicators of value attached to female and male labour
- (d) shifts in economic development strategies after the financial crisis in the context of Thailand's need for greater competitiveness in the world market
- (e) patterns in women's and men's access to higher education and skills development
- (f) implications of shifting economic development strategies on skills development and education for women and men as they position themselves in an increasingly changing labour market.

The macro analysis consisted of an examination of secondary literature such as national statistical databases, international labour statistical databases including those of the ILO, the World Bank and the United Nations, and past policy-related and academic research on the Thai labour market, industrialization and the gender trends in these.

### ***Action Research Design***

Twelve (12) DSD and DPW staff were selected to participate in the action research. The selected DSD and DPW staff members were provided training on gender analysis and research orientation in a two-day workshop in August 2001 at the ILO Bangkok office. They assisted in secondary and primary data collection, as well as logistical coordination for the field research during September and October 2001. The DSD and DPW each selected four training institutes/centres for the research that represent three programme categories: (1) "good practices"; (2) "business as usual" or "standard practices"; and (3) "cultural specific" – all together eight centres and institutes in seven provinces. Departmental selections of training centres/institutes by category is given in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Training institutions selected for action research

Programme Category	DSD	DPW
<b>Good practices</b>	1. “Women’s Friendly Centre,” <i>Chiang Mai</i>	1. Northern Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women, <i>Lampang</i>
<b>Standard practices</b>	2. Northeast Skill Development Institute, <i>Nakorn Ratchasima</i> 3. Upper Northern Skill Development Institute, <i>Lampang</i>	2. Central Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women, <i>Nontaburi</i> 3. Southern Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women, <i>Songkla</i>
<b>Cultural Specific practices</b>	4. <i>Narathiwat</i> Skill Development Centre	4. Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre, <i>Mae Hong Son</i>

In order to gather data concerning each selected site in the most comprehensive way possible within the time limit, primary data were collected from policymakers, training centre directors, trainers, trainees, and graduates through interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaires. Details of the data gathering process for each group of informants are discussed in Chapter 4.

### 1.3 Organization of the Report

Chapter 1 describes rationale, methodology and overview of the research.

Chapter 2 provides an analytical overview of issues and trends in the Thai labour market, economic change and skills development from a gender perspective. It specifically explores the impacts of the Asian financial crisis of 1997 on female and male workers in the kingdom and in general, how skills development and formal and non-formal education have influenced the entry of women and men into the labour market. The overview also examines where women and men are most concentrated in the labour market and attempts to provide the explanatory factors to this, at the same time examining the implications of changing economic strategies on women’s access to skills development and their future prospects in the labour market. This wider context serves as a backdrop to specific discussions on the access to skills development of women and men as provided by state institutions in later chapters.

Chapter 3 gives an overview of skills development by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MOLSW) by discussing vocational training systems of the Departments of Skill Development and Public Welfare. The chapter provides a context for gender analysis of specific programmes and practices to follow in the next chapter. Departmental mandates, responsibilities and target groups in respect of skill training development, as well as rates of participation of men and women in vocational programmes are discussed. Discussion about the impact of the 1997 economic crisis on employment and the responsive measures by the MOLSW is also included.

Chapter 4 provides a field assessment of training programmes and practices of the eight training institutions selected to participate in this study by the MOLSW. Good practices, standard practices and cultural-specific practices of the vocational training institutions under the DSD and DPW are discussed. Quantitative and qualitative analyses of the questionnaires and field interviews and field visits are given. The analyses concern demographic profiles, training and employment experiences, and gender perspectives of trainers, trainees and training graduates.

Chapter 5 synthesizes research findings, discusses lessons learned and provides policy recommendations.



## CHAPTER 2

### **Labour Markets, Economic Change and Skills Development in Thailand: A Gender Perspective**

*Exports of manufactures from developing countries have been made up in the main by female labour: industrialisation in the post-war period has been as much female led as export led.*

(Joeke, 1987, p. 81)

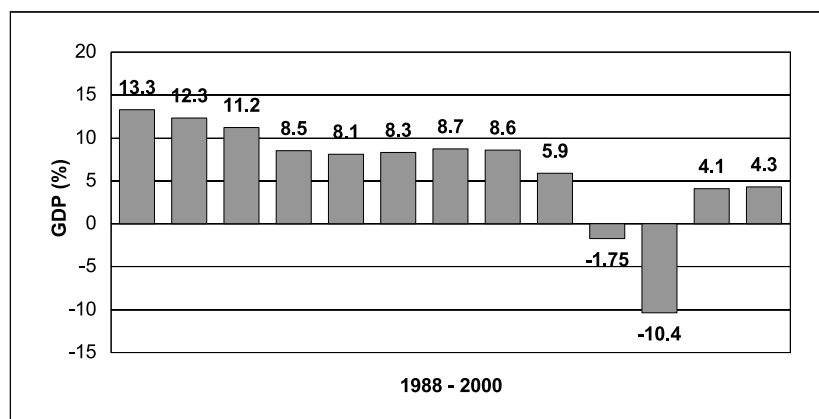
#### **2.1 The Boom and Crisis Years: An Overview**

##### **2.1.1 Sources and Mechanisms of Growth**

High growth rates characterized the economy of the Kingdom of Thailand during the late 1980s to the early 1990s. The main engine of growth – export-oriented industrialization – prompted the gross domestic product (GDP) to average about 8 per cent per year until 1997, when the financial crisis marked a sharp economic downturn in the country. Significantly, export-oriented growth during the late 1980s was based on labour-intensive production.

The 1997 financial crisis caused the GDP to fall sharply, reaching an annual low of -10.4 per cent in 1998. This drop was 18 per cent points lower than the average GDP since 1987 (at 1988 prices).

Figure 2.1 Thailand's real GDP growth (per cent) 1988-2000



Source: National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB)

The years of 1989 to 1998 were accompanied by significant poverty reduction. The national poverty rate (or families with incomes below the official poverty line) fell from 33 per cent in 1988 to 11 per cent in 1996. This period produced impressive improvements in other social indicators such as infant mortality, life expectancy, adult literacy, child nutrition and enrollments in primary education (ILO, 2000).



Development scholars have pondered on the success factors of the so-called East Asian Miracle, specifically the case of Thailand. There is some agreement that the factors underlying success can be traced to positive strides in four main areas: the role of the state vis- -vis private enterprise; the nature of macroeconomic policies; participation in the global market; and, investments in physical and social infrastructure.

Phongpaichit and Baker (1998) argue that the Thai State deliberately made economic development a crusade thereby creating institutional structures for it. The strategy for development pointedly focused on agriculture through infrastructure investments such as farm-to-market roads, irrigation and credit incentives thus vigorously paving the way for commercial agriculture in all parts of the country.<sup>2</sup> The industrial policies of the Government, in contrast, were far less structured and tariffs remained relatively low, which however, was not as a reflection of any one coherent policy.

Financial stability has always been a priority of the Thai Government dating back to the pre-World War II period when its neighbours were under colonial rule. Never once colonized by western states, the Thai state was careful not to invite external intervention that would result in financial instability. Thus, Government was cautious in ensuring that its international reserves remained high, inflation rates low and the exchange rate stable. Structures were organized to protect macroeconomic policy making from political influence by confining it to a core of competent technocrats. The main institutions created were the Budget Bureau, the Ministry of Finance, the Bank of Thailand and the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB). Recently, however, this independence eroded due to growing political interference in the Bank of Thailand, thus leading to the Bank's loss of control over the financial system which later led to the financial crisis of 1997 (Jansen, 2001).

“At the heart of Thailand's economic policy making there is one long term constant. The policy makers believe that Thailand must grow through trade” (Phongpaichit and Baker, 1998, p. 62). Since the middle of the nineteenth century, Thailand had been compelled to sign trade treaties in order to ward off any possibility of colonial occupation by any western power. Its role was to export rice to feed the workers in the colonies. Low import taxes were foisted upon Thailand, thus forcing the Thai market open to absorb products from colonial powers that also discouraged the blossoming of a domestic market for local industries – one reason among others that made it possible for Thailand to evade colonization. Under such conditions, exports became the main impetus for growth. Rapid agricultural diversification and commercialization to produce for international markets created ample opportunity for the growth of processing industries, thus significantly contributing to the country's industrialization (Jansen, 2001). Meanwhile, import duties remained low and protectionist tendencies were kept in check due to the industrial sector's strong export-orientation. The manufacturing sector was the main engine of export-led industrialization between 1985 and 1991. In this period, Thailand's total exports quadrupled in value and exports grew six-fold (Kurian, 1999). Investments in communications, ports and transport systems have however not kept in pace with economic growth in Thailand. Bangkok has remained to be the industrial hub and incentives have failed to relocate firms outside the city where there was inadequate infrastructure (except for good roads).

Foreign direct investment (FDI), in response to policy incentives, increased dramatically in the mid-1980s. It grew at a rate of 4.7 per cent per annum between 1980 and 1987. The major sources

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<sup>2</sup> This was also a strategy shared by other Southeast Asian countries envisaged to deal with the growing communist threat in the region during the 1960s and 1970s.

to total exports quadrupled in value and exports grew six-fold (Kurian, 1999). Investments in communications, ports and transport systems have however not kept in pace with economic growth in Thailand. Bangkok has remained to be the industrial hub and incentives have failed to relocate firms outside the city where there was inadequate infrastructure (except for good roads).

Foreign direct investment (FDI), in response to policy incentives, increased dramatically in the mid-1980s. It grew at a rate of 4.7 per cent per annum between 1980 and 1987. The major sources of FDI were Japan, the US, the European Community and the Asian newly industrializing economies. The combination of export-led industrialization, trade liberalization and high input of FDI resulted in multinationals being able to exercise considerable influence in the local labour market. Foreign investors attempted to minimize costs through sub-contracting low-skilled labour-intensive segments of export production to local firms (ibid). Thus economic growth in Thailand was premised basically on the strategy of export-oriented industrialization emphasizing Thailand's comparative edge in terms of cheap, labour-intensive manufacturing.

The growth of the labour force has been a constitutive factor of Thailand's economic development. The total labour force increased from 13.5 million in 1960 to over 33 million in the late 1990s (Jansen, 2001). In 1995 and 1997, according to ILO labour market indicators, women comprised 45 per cent of the country's adult labour force (ILO, 1999).

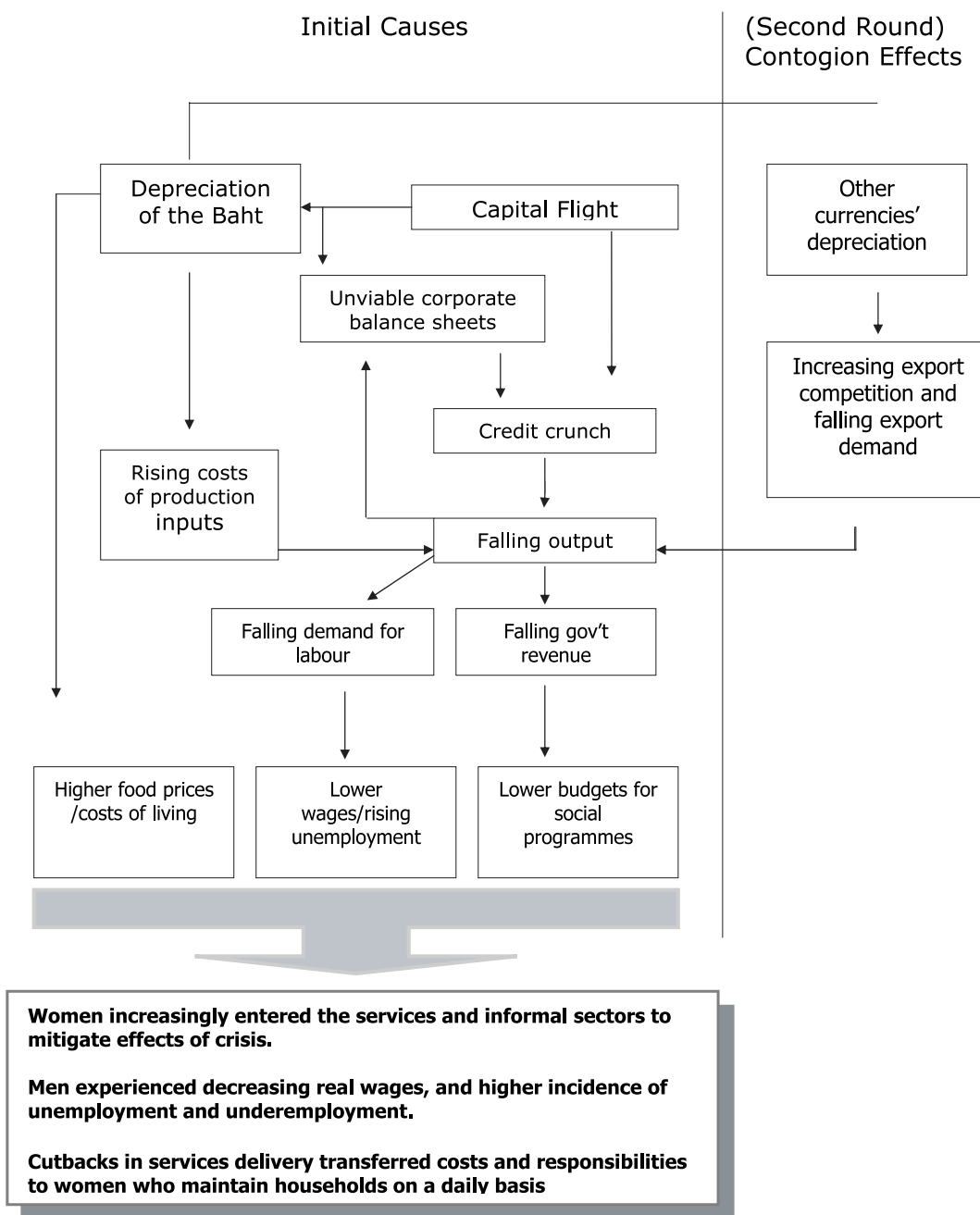
In the area of education, it was only by the early 1980s that primary education was made compulsory nationwide. However, the number of graduates of secondary education paled significantly in comparison. Less than 40 per cent of the Thai work force has completed secondary school while about 80 per cent have completed only the primary level (World Bank, 1999a). Eventually, skilled workers were in short supply (ILO/EASMAT, 2000; APEC Study Centre, 1998). Weak human resource development was one underlying and lingering malaise that augured the collapse of the Thai economy in 1997 – in combination with other factors.

### ***2.1.2 The Financial Crisis of 1997: Some Gender Effects***

Rapid economic growth and a fixed foreign exchange rate attracted an inordinate amount of foreign investments. Most of foreign capital inflows were in the form of short-term, speculative investments in search of better niches and quick profits, creating a volatile investment environment. A subsequent slowdown in external market demand pulled down the value of exports in 1996, which in turn depleted foreign revenue supply due to the consequent rise in costs of imports. As a result of defending against several speculative attacks on the Thai baht in early 1997, Thailand had exhausted its own foreign exchange reserves and was compelled to abandon the baht's peg to foreign currencies and thus allowed the baht to float. The devaluation of the baht sharply increased the cost of servicing foreign debt. Capital inflows were replaced by massive capital flight due to low investor confidence and cuts to foreign borrowing (ILO, 2000; TDRI, 2000).

Figure 2.2 demonstrates that the initial capital flight triggered currency depreciation, domestic credit shortages, widespread corporate financial difficulties, and ultimately export demand shortages. This decreased both the demand for labour, with subsequent effects on wages and employment. Government revenues decreased and public spending was curtailed, also due to tight fiscal policies as prescribed by International Monetary Fund-World Bank (IMF-WB) loan conditionalities – with adverse effects most especially on social services (TDRI, 1999; 2000). The currency depreciation also pulled up local prices of commodities such as food. The second round, or contagion effects, was felt through

Figure 2.2 Pathways of the Asian financial crisis to social/gender impacts



Adapted from Ammar and Orapin (1998) in TDRI 1999.

falling demand for exports, thus pulling down incomes and output. The poor<sup>3</sup> felt the effects of falling incomes and employment most sharply, exacerbated by the rise in prices of basic goods and deteriorating state-provided social services.

<sup>3</sup>The least educated were the most affected by the crisis, including production, clerical and transport workers (World Bank, 2000a/b). However, figures on these groups had not been disaggregated according to sex.

The gender effects of the crisis, as shown in Figure 2.2, have affected women and men in different ways. Changes in the economy generally affect women in both monetary and non-monetary ways. During the crisis, it meant declining value in wages due to rising food and commodity prices, and simultaneously a heavier burden in their task of maintaining households, or reproductive work.

**Box 2.1: What is reproductive work?**

**Reproductive work** is generally referred to as work that is done to reproduce and maintain households as well as to reproduce the labour force within these households. Types of reproductive work are various types of human and health care, domestic tasks such as cooking and food preparation, washing and cleaning. Reproductive work is sometimes referred to as the “care economy.”

Past studies on structural adjustment programmes and economic restructuring have shown that cutbacks on the public provision of education and health care due to fiscal contraction, are in turn borne more heavily by women who traditionally shoulder more reproductive tasks relative to men (Bakker, 1994; Sen 1996; Ghosh, 2001). In Thailand, cutbacks in these services during the financial crisis were as follows:

Table 2.1 Changes in Government Expenditure Programmes (in million baht)

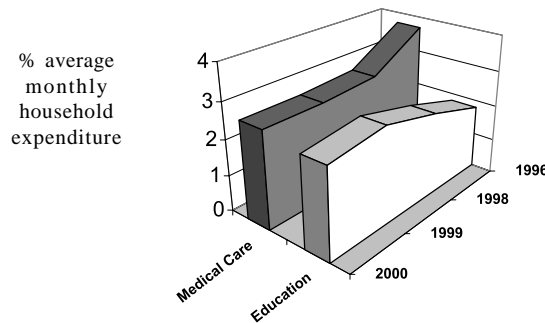
	1997	1998	1999	% change 1997-98	% change 1998-99
<b>Education</b>	216,278.5	208,274.8	208,616.1	-3.7	0.2
<b>Public Health</b>	75,023.0	66,455.2	62,467.4	-11.4	-6.0

Source: Bureau of Budget, *Thailand's Budget in Brief 1998-1999*, in TDRI, 2000.

It appears that during the crisis years, government cutbacks were bigger in public health than in education. Government expenditure on education increased a little in 1998-1999. Similarly, data on household expenditures during the crisis, also demonstrate similar cuts in medical care; however, expenses for education increased.

Between 1996 and 1998, per capita expenditures in education (in real terms) increased because enrollments in both public and private tertiary institutions continued to grow and fees at private tertiary institutions increased. In the midst of the crisis, therefore, families continued to invest in higher education (World Bank, 2000c). While costs for education increased and families had to respond accordingly, more responsibility for health care may have been transferred to women, who administer to household needs and tasks on a daily basis. The Household Socio-economic Survey of the NSO (2000a) shows that households spent less on medical care from 1996 to 2000:

Figure 2.3 Percentage of average monthly expenditure of households for medical care and education



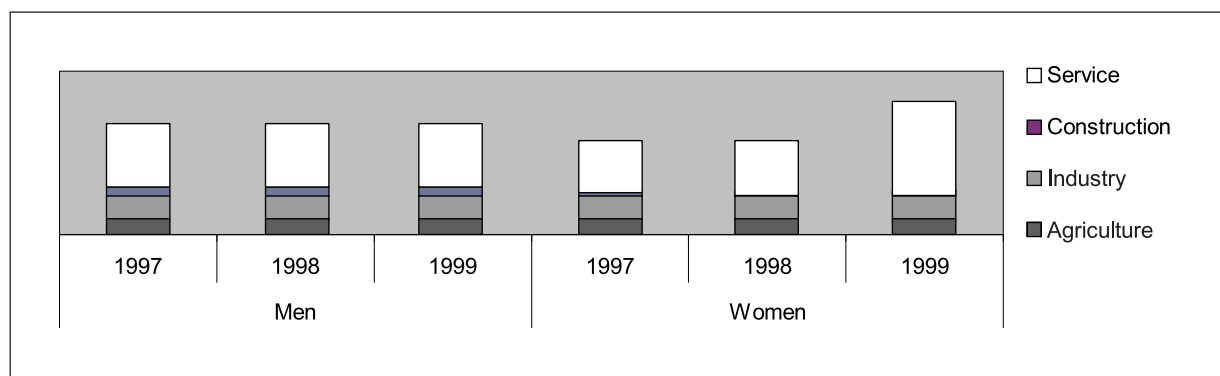
Note: Data for 1997 were not available.

Source: National Statistical Office, *Household Socio-Economic Survey*, 2000a.

In a participatory study of poverty-stricken communities, women’s groups said that increased family tension, increased responsibility and workloads were new problems they faced in making ends meet during the crisis. Women also took on the added responsibility to renegotiate loans to save face for husbands who had been laid off. Intra-household tensions due to uncertainty and livelihood insecurity escalated as well during this period (TDRI, 2000). Thus, it is suggested that cuts in household and Government expenditures in certain services have placed additional burdens on women, who have been traditionally regarded as principally responsible for reproductive work.

Aside from cutbacks in expenditures and lower wages, households also coped with the crisis by deploying more women to the service sector (see Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4 Changes in the employment of women and men in different sectors, from 1997 to 1999



Source: National Statistical Office, *Labour Force Survey*, 1999b.

As shown in Figure 2.4, only employment in the service sector rose steadily from 1997 to 1999, the crisis years. It is widely known that the services sector attracts more women since jobs within this sector – such as tourism, entertainment and the hospitality services – are largely perceived as extensions of women’s reproductive work. This was felt most palpably in 1999.

In sum, the boom years in Thailand witnessed women's increased participation in the labour force as the Kingdom journeyed the path of rapid industrialization principally through export-led and labour-intensive manufacturing. During the crisis years, low wages and the poverty effects spurred by the financial crisis were in part mitigated by an increase in the number of female workers in the services sector. More men were unemployed than women as it was less costly for surviving firms to maintain a female work force fueled by low labour costs, as men generally earned higher wages than women. Decreased public spending on services due to the impact of shortfalls in Government revenues and tight fiscal policies also placed increased burdens on women as they shouldered reproductive tasks such as the health care of household members more heavily.

The following section further examines the foregoing issues and characteristics of the Thai labour market from a gender perspective more closely, exploring the explanatory factors behind women's high labour force participation in particular sectors.

## **2.2 Characteristics of the Thai Labour Market: Where the Women Are**

In the previous section, we have seen how economic change and downturns translate into gender-specific effects. This section will explore the gender dimensions of the Thai labour market, specifically the attendant inequalities embedded in each employment sector including the informal sector.

Labour markets are structured by norms, practices, networks and perceptions that influence the organization, location, and entry and valuation of women's work. Thus labour markets, far from being "neutral" institutions, are "bearers of gender." They are also gendered institutions strongly influenced by women's productive and reproductive work (Elson, 1999; Sen, 1996).

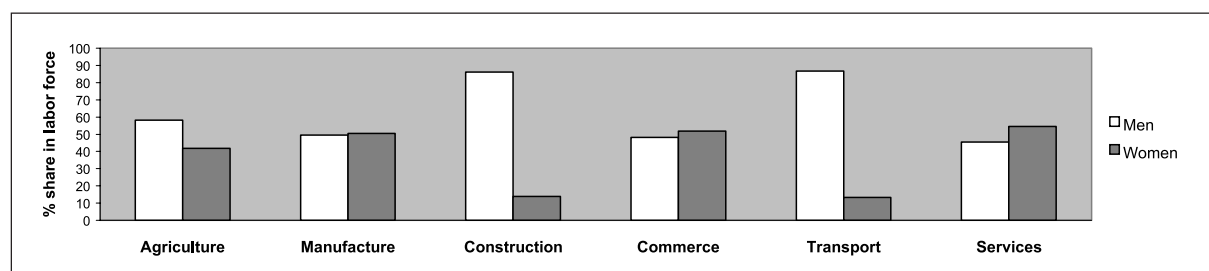
The entry of women into wage employment is characterized by their strong involvement in reproductive work in three ways: first, that women's work should be closely associated to their reproductive role; second, that wage employment for women is added onto unpaid domestic work; and third, women often opt for jobs that they can combine with reproductive work. A woman's workday is implicitly assumed to be elastic; while she earns income, she is not necessarily freed from domestic tasks, nor is paid for it. It follows then that women's involvement in domestic work—through their responsibilities in human care, food provision and preparation, child education, household maintenance—determines their readiness, availability for and general disposition towards employment both in the formal and informal sectors. Moreover, the nature of wage work closely resembles women's reproductive tasks in terms of its physical requirements and functions. Men, on the other hand, enter the labour force in a fairly straightforward manner (Moore, 1988).

Female labour is largely considered cheap, flexible and low-skilled, which therefore has implications on (a) wages, (b) occupational segregation, (c) skills and qualifications for employment, (d) tenure and labour arrangements, and (e) workplace conditions, often resulting in more unequal terms for women despite their increasing numbers in wage employment in Thailand.

Women's share of the global labour force has been rising and in 1995-97, registered to well over 40 per cent in East, Southeast and Central Asia (ILO in UN 2000). However, despite their rising numbers, their wages are still lower, they continue to occupy the lower rungs of employment and are recruited for low-skilled work, have increasingly been employed in flexible, casualized and informalized work not covered by regular labour laws, often work under untenable workplace conditions and engage in irregular informal sector labour arrangements such as sub-contracting and home-based work (Ghosh, 2001; Davin, 2001).

As a case in point, where are Thai women workers most concentrated and how do their wages compare with men's? More recent labour market trends in Thailand have shown that women comprised 45 per cent share in the adult labour force in 1995-97 (UN, 2000: Table 5.D). Figure 2.5 below demonstrates that while there is relative gender balance in the manufacturing sector, women are largely concentrated in the commerce and services sector. (The percentage of women and men workers in sub-sectors within the manufacturing sector varies as shown in Table 2.4.)

Figure 2.5 Per cent share of women and men in the labour force by industry, last quarter, 2000



Source: National Statistical Office, *Labour Force Survey*, 2001.

Table 2.2 indicates the difference in wages women and men receive monthly. More women are concentrated in services than men in 2000, but their monthly wage rates are lower than the men who are also employed in this sector. In manufacturing and services, women earn less than men. This is an indicator of the low value attached to female labour. This under valuation of women's labour has partially sustained the viability of manufacturing as the leading sector propelling Thailand's economic growth.

Table 2.2 Total employment by industry and average monthly wage rate of women and men in the municipal area of Thailand, third quarter, 2000

	Average Monthly Wage (baht)		Total Employment (in thousands)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Agriculture	4,124.4	3963.1	9.7	25.7
Manufacturing	6,757.7	8560.7	581.8	702.6
Services	6,200.5	8116.5	536.2	364.6

Source: National Statistical Office, *Labour Force Survey*, 2000b.

With regards to wages and employment, available data on the crisis show that men more than women experienced adverse effects as presented in Table 2.3 below:

Table 2.3 Per cent changes in labour market indicators during the crisis for women and men\*

Per cent (%) Change in:					
	Employment	Monthly Wage	Aggregate Wages Earnings	Underemployment	Unemployment
<b>Men</b>	-1.30	-2.67	-3.97	182.61	57.51
<b>Women</b>	-0.86	-0.04	-0.90	129.14	53.37

Note: \* Changes are defined over the period before the crisis (first quarter of 1996, third quarter of 1996, and first quarter of 1997) to the period during the crisis (first quarter of 1998, third quarter of 1998, and first quarter of 1999). Calculations were based on data from the Labour Force Surveys of the National Statistical Office.

Source: World Bank, 2000b.

The data above corroborate findings by the NESDB in 1998 that concluded that unemployment and underemployment were in fact greater for men than for women during the crisis (TDRI, 2000). Further, World Bank figures have registered a male-female wage differential (where men generally earned higher) of approximately 18 per cent during the pre-crisis period, 14 per cent during the crisis, and 19 per cent during the third quarter of 1999 with economic recovery well under way (World Bank, 2000b).<sup>4</sup> While the outcome of the financial crisis has been interpreted as largely detrimental for men than for women, this point needs to be taken a step further.

In view of escalating input costs during the crisis, it is reasonable to suggest that more men experienced unemployment due to the need for firms to generate profits by reducing labour costs. Maintaining a female labour force that generally survives on lower wage rates than men may thus have been the more feasible option for many firms in order to weather the crisis or to remain financially buoyant. Data in Figure 2.4 also indicate that by 1999, women workers in the services sector increased as they coped with cutbacks in government expenditures on health services and the weakening purchasing power of existing wages at the time.

Despite the fact that more women than men retained their employment, women's wage level deteriorated in both real and nominal terms. Under conditions of rising prices and cost of living, the real value of women's wages decreased further during the crisis and did not significantly improve even when signs of recovery set in by 1999. Moreover, in the last quarter of 1998, most employed persons earned less than 128 baht per day, which was lower than the official minimum wage at the time. This proportion was higher among women (61.7 %) than men (55.2 %) (NSO, 1998).<sup>5</sup>

### 2.2.1 Women in the Manufacturing Sector

In 1980, female labour was concentrated in the agricultural sector (mostly as unpaid family labour), textiles, footwear and paper handicrafts, trade, and personal services industries (Phananiramai, 1996).

<sup>4</sup> Other sources count men's wages as higher from women's by as much as 35 per cent (NSO, 2000b).

<sup>5</sup> Figures by the World Bank point out that in 1999, women who earned less than the minimum wage registered 37 per cent, whereas men were fewer in this category at 25 per cent. There were 3.6 million people who earned less than the minimum wage, or 30.1 per cent of the entire waged labour force (World Bank, 2000b).



In 1989, labour-intensive industries expanded to also include food manufacturing industries, cutting precious stones and leather and rubber handicrafts, and again, women were employed in these industries, which became Thailand's major export industries (Phananiramai, 1996; Jansen, 2001). This trend continued in 1999 as shown in Table 2.4 below.

While Figure 2.5 and Table 2.2 show relative gender parity in the manufacturing sector in aggregate terms, Table 2.4 demonstrates more apparent disparities in the percentage of women and men working in each sub-sector. In the top seven manufacturing establishments (ranked according to largest number), the majority of workers are women. Women workers are also concentrated in food and beverage processing and textiles and garments manufacturing – three of the highest revenue-earning industries in this sector. Thus high profits have been generated by relatively low-skilled and cheaper labour (see Table 2.3 earlier).

Most, if not all, of these establishments require low-skilled workers. The second and third establishments, however, require heavy manual labour whereas all the others require light, low-skilled labour. More recent data show that the number of women workers in manufacturing peaked in 1996 before the financial crisis, decreased in the years following, and recovered to pre-crisis levels in the first quarter of 2000. Further, the number of women and men in the manufacturing sector has become more or less equal (NSO, 2000b). Thus female labour participation does not seem to be on the decline in the Kingdom, unlike in other middle-income countries like South Korea where export production has been restructured and technologized. This restructuring demands specialized skills and often translates into a higher demand for male labour (Mehra and Gammage, 1999).

Table 2.4 Employment of women and men in top seven manufacturing establishments, 1999

Manufacturing Establishment	Number of Establishments	% Share of Manufacturing GDP *	Male Labour	Female Labour	Total
1. Manufacture of food products and beverages	3,001	18.2	144,005 (38%)	235,627 (62%)	379,632 (100%)
2. Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	2,195	4.3	90,012 (69%)	40,812 (31%)	130,824 (100%)
3. Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	2,139	.9	65,591 (62%)	41,251 (38%)	106,842 (100%)
4. Manufacture of wearing apparel dressing and dyeing of fur	1,928	11	21,955 (16%)	119,349 (84%)	141,304 (100%)
5. Manufacture of rubber and plastic products	1,761	3	78,920 (45%)	95,840 (55%)	174,760 (100%)
6. Manufacture of furniture	1,713	1.3	69,491 (45%)	83,752 (55%)	153,243 (100%)
7. Manufacture of textiles	1,316	6.7	62,600 (31%)	138,572 (69%)	201,172 (100%)
<b>Total</b>		1,435,369 (million baht) <b>100%</b>	532,574 (41%)	755,203 (59%)	1,287,777 (100%)

Note: \* NESDB Gross Domestic Product at Current Market Prices, 1999

Source: National Statistical Office, *Labour Force Survey*, 1999b.

### 2.2.2 Women in Agriculture and Services

In pace with global trends, workers have been shifting out of agriculture into wage employment in the expanding manufacturing and services sectors. The much lower wages in agriculture, less than half the wages in the manufacturing and services sector, have reinforced the increased movement of labour out of agriculture (World Bank, 2000).

More men than women have been employed in agriculture in the period 1989 to 2000 (NSO, 2000). This runs counter to the global trend that points to the increasing feminization of agriculture or the slow withdrawal of women from the agricultural sector (Mehra and Gammage, 1999). In Thailand, women are moving out of agriculture faster than men largely due to the availability of more traditionally female jobs in the manufacturing and the services sectors.

The services sector generated 16 per cent of the country's total GDP in 1999, out of which 44 per cent was generated jointly by the recreation, entertainment, hotel and restaurant businesses (NESDB, 2000). In this sector, female labour participation has been increasing steadily from 1989 to 2000, with women outnumbering the men. The number of women increased dramatically by more than 200,000 in 1998, peaking by the first quarter of 2000 (NSO, 2000b).<sup>6</sup> It has been suggested earlier that women's entry into this sector especially in 1998 helped mitigate the poverty effects of the financial crisis (see Figure 2.4 earlier).

Table 2.5 Women and men's employment in the services sector as per cent share of total labour force and comparative average monthly wage

	% share of total GDP (current factor cost)	Men and Women Employed as % Share in Total Labour Force		Average Monthly Wage (baht)*	
		Women	Men	Women	Men
<b>Services</b>	16	16.8	12.2	6200.5	8116.5

Source: NESDB, 2000.

There are more women employed in the services sector and yet their average monthly income is less than that of men as presented in Table 2.5. As an extension of their reproductive roles, women's labour in the services sector is given lower value especially in jobs that require hospitality, entertainment and care services. Tourism, an important service establishment, generates more than 200,000 million baht for the country or 5 per cent of the gross domestic product. Moreover, this industry was one of the key factors that provided the engine power for quick economic recovery after the crisis period. Thai tourism in 2000 recorded a growth of 10.4 per cent due mainly to a substantial increase in tourism receipts against tourism expenditure. The number of foreign tourists increased 10.8 per cent from the previous year (BOT, 2001). Table 2.6 below presents the increase in tourist arrivals for the period 2000-2001.

<sup>6</sup> Third quarter 1997 registered 2,247,700 women workers in the services sector which increased to 2,455,200 in the first quarter of 1998. By the first quarter of 2000, the number of women workers in this sector reached 2,608,700 (NSO, 2000b).

Table 2.6 International tourist arrivals, 2000-2001

Month	2001	2002	% increase	Average Growth
Jan	958,256	807,222	18.71	18.71
Feb	841,709	879,526	-4.3	6.71
Mar	904,041	817,764	10.55	7.97
Apr	822,840	801,858	2.62	6.67
May	725,028	684,245	5.96	6.55
Jun	787,330	685,326	14.88	7.77
Jul	863,071	797,561	8.21	7.83
Aug	861,283	783,026	9.99	8.1
Sep	733,160	739,177	-0.81	7.16
Oct	-	757,295	-	-
Nov	-	882,698	-	-
Dec	-	943,128	-	-
<b>Total</b>	7,496,718	9,578,826	-	-

Source: Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2001.

The Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) registered almost 10 million tourist arrivals in 2001. Sixty per cent were male, aged between 25 to 54 years old, mostly on holiday and about half of them revisiting Thailand. The Japanese accounted for the highest percentage of tourists to Thailand (TAT, 2001). Further, according to the 1998 Labour Force Survey, 268,300 women (or 68% of total) were employed by private tourism corporations as service, sports and recreation workers whereas only 125,100 men (or 32% of total) were employed (NSO, 1998). Despite these figures, accurate data on the number of women actually employed in the tourism industry in various areas such as entertainment and hospitality services are unavailable due to the constant flux with which women move in and out of entertainment establishments such as bars and night clubs, as well as the failure and irregularity of establishments to legally register their actual number of employees.

More women employed in the tourism sector calls attention to the fact that the jobs within this sector are largely female-defined due to the strong emphasis on service hospitality and beauty that are largely defined as feminine attributes. Moreover, globalization has created added impetus to the growth in tourism as a viable revenue-generating industry in developing countries to provide rest and recreation (R&R) services to mobile businessmen. Available data have shown that despite the fact that women are concentrated in the services sector, they earn less and their work is generally undervalued as low-skilled, implicitly justified as an extension of their reproductive and domestic roles.

### 2.2.3 Women in the Informal Sector

Recent official estimates suggest that over 80% of workers in low-income countries operate in the informal and rural labour markets, beyond the reach of labour legislation and state intervention, official surveys and trade unions (World Bank, 1995 in Chen, et al., 1999). Moreover, in the past 20 years, research on developing countries has consistently demonstrated that the informal sector is vital for the economic survival of poor women (Berger and Buvinic, 1989).

**Box 2.2: What is the informal sector?**

Recently, the ILO has been advocating the term “informal economy” in place of the term informal sector with a view to more adequately reflect the diversity and problems of the expanding and increasingly diverse group of workers and enterprises in both the rural and urban areas operating informally. They differ in terms of type of production unit and type of employment status. They include own account workers in survival type activities, such as street vendors, shoeshine children, garbage collectors and scrap- and rag-pickers; paid domestic workers employed by households; subcontracted homeworkers and workers in sweatshops who are “disguised wage workers” in production chains; and the self-employed in micro enterprises operating on their own or with contributing family workers or sometimes apprentices/employees. The diversity of who is in the informal economy is important to note because the problems and needs are different, for example, for those engaged in survivalist activities, for homeworkers whose employment relationship with an employer is not recognized or protected and for the self-employed and employers who face various barriers and constraints to setting up and operating formal enterprise (ILO, 2002).

Gender analysts argue that the informal sector is larger than official statistics suggest. This is based on the fact that much of women’s *paid* work – not just their *unpaid* work – is often neglected in official surveys (Chen, et al, 1999). Globally, according to estimates, women are over-represented in the informal sector: that is, the share of the female work force in the informal sector is greater than the share of the male work force. A study by S.V. Sethuraman (1998) clustered data on women’s participation in the informal sector in 31 countries pointing out that in most cases, women’s share is higher than their share in the total labour force in most countries, thus implying that women are over-represented in this sector while under-represented in the formal wage sector (Sethuraman, 1998, p. 42).

The informal economy, as a whole, is often under-enumerated. In particular, home-based workers are less likely to be counted in official labour force surveys than those who work outside the home. Women who do home-based work, for their part, are often not included in surveys since their remunerative home-based work is often perceived as an extension of their unpaid housework responsibilities. In view of the methodological limitations, data on home-based workers should be treated with caution and at best, only serve as indicative of the reality and conditions under which women work in this sector. It is in this light that the discussion on findings from a recent survey on homeworkers in Thailand will proceed.

Home work – understood as contracted work done in the home or compound of the contracted worker – has been surveyed by the National Statistical Office in 1999. Some of the findings in the NSO survey support the conclusions by Sethuraman (1998) and Charmes (1999) that (a) the majority of homeworkers are women; (b) there is a gender segregation of roles in home work according to producers and brokers, or those who earn from linking employers with subcontracted workers; (c) there is a large gender gap in wages in home work; and (d) there is gender discrimination in homeworkers’ roles based on gaps between women and men in terms of skills and educational attainment.

Following are figures on homeworkers for the whole Kingdom indicating that in Thailand too, the majority of homeworkers are women (see Table 2.7).

Table 2.7 Number of female and male homeworkers aged 13 years and over by type of work, whole kingdom

Total		Contract Workers*		Unpaid Homeworkers**		Subcontractors***	
Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
62,250	249,540	46,223	206,914	14,348	41,580	1679	1046

Notes: \*refer to those who take work from an employer and produce the work alone or with help from assistants; they earn an income from the work as agreed with the employer

\*\* refer to the contract workers' assistants who may live in the same household but do not receive any wage for the work they have produced

\*\*\* refer to those who take work from the employer and give it to homeworkers and thus act as brokers; they do not produce the work themselves, but they can earn income on the basis of the number of items they take to others to produce; subcontracting may occur at different levels

Source: National Statistical Office, *Labour Force Survey*, 1999b.

The table above also shows that there is a gender segregation among those engaged in home work, namely the contract workers, unpaid homeworkers and subcontractors, where the latter are mostly men. Thus men act as brokers between employers and producers and earn income out of making these connections, whereas the women are the actual producers. Wages of male and female informal sector workers also vary as shown in Table 2.8.

The data reveal the enormous income disparities between men and women in different activities. Except in vending and petty trading, women earned substantially less than men. Thus it is not only in the formal wage sector where inequities in incomes exist and where women generally earn less than men, the same is true in the informal sector.

Table 2.8 Change in income of male and female heads of enterprises in the informal sector, Bangkok, 1986 (baht per month)

Activity	Women's Income			Men's Income		
	1986	Before 1986	% rise	1986	Before 1986	% rise
Vendors and stall traders	3667	1070	243	1579	2200	-28
Retail / wholesale trade <sup>a</sup>	6600	883	647	9567	1889	406
Vending prepared food	4405	3469	27	8857	3936	125
Metal manufacturing <sup>a</sup>				6960	1964	254
Garment manufacturing	3150	1302	142	3819	2023	89
Jewelry making <sup>a</sup>	3750	1850	103	12205	4325	182
Transport <sup>a</sup>				4120	2830	46
Repair services <sup>a</sup>				7966	2350	239
Personal services	3540	1615	119	8000	550	1354
All	3710	1689	120	7691	2093	267

Note: <sup>a</sup> Dominated by men; all others dominated by women

Source: ILO/ARTEP (1988; Table 5.2, p.50) in Sethuraman, 1998, p. 57.

With respect to educational background and skills, women more than men doing homework have relatively attained lower levels of education, as presented below in Table 2.9 for the whole Kingdom.

Table 2.9 Women and men in home work and their educational attainment

Educational Attainment	Contract Workers			Unpaid Homeworkers			Subcontractors		
	Total (100%)	Male %	Female %	Total (100%)	Male %	Female %	Total (100%)	Male %	Female %
<b>Whole Kingdom</b>	253,137	18.3	81.7	55,928	25.6	74.3	2,725	61.6	38.4
<b>No education</b>	10,923	7.3	92.7	1,994	9.7	90.3	2	100	-
<b>Education</b>	242,214	18.7	81.3	53,934	26.2	73.8	2,723	61.6	38.4
<P4	210,701	17.4	82.6	41,073	25.5	74.5	1,448	59.2	40.8
Secondary level	28,126	26.7	73.3	11,614	27.4	72.6	1,162	67.3	32.7
<i>General secondary</i>	25,609	26	73	10,604	27	73	843	62.3	37.7
<i>Vocational secondary</i>	2,517	33.6	66.4	1,010	31.8	68.2	319	80.6	19.4
University level	1,234	63.8	36.2	289	60.9	39.1	75	-	100
Vocational	1,384	36.2	63.8	862	34.5	65.5	38	100	-
Teacher training	321	6.8	93.2	2	100	-	-	-	-
Unknown	448	16	84	94	-	100	-	-	-

Source: National Statistical Office, *Labour Force Survey*, 1999b.

In general, many more women homeworkers have had no education, as compared to men. Among contract workers and unpaid homeworkers, there are more women who have completed up to vocational secondary level whereas there are more men who have finished university level education. However among subcontractors, more men than women were educated in all levels. This indicates that subcontracting is an activity engaged in by those who are relatively more educated whereas the actual home work producers are women who have lower educational attainment, are largely low-skilled and it follows, are thus, lowly-paid.

This section has demonstrated that studying the labour markets in Thailand from a gender perspective reveals that women are located in sectors such as manufacturing, services and home work, where profit margins are protected – spurred by the goals of capital accumulation – by reducing labour costs. Lowering labour costs is achieved by hiring female labour, commonly understood as being low-skilled and therefore, cheap. The nature of their work is also perceived as an extension of their reproductive work, and is under-enumerated and undervalued.

Women's position in labour markets is also influenced by ideas about characteristics, skills and capabilities of women and men, reproduced in a division of labour in which certain tasks are exclusive to women or men according to skills standards defined as *unskilled, low-skilled or high-skilled*.

Therefore, labour markets are “bearers of gender.” Pearson (1981; 1997) further adds: women do *not* do unskilled or low-skilled jobs because they are naturally bearers of inferior labour. Rather, the jobs they do are unskilled because women enter them *already determined* as inferior labourers compared with male labour.

Given that women are concentrated in labour-intensive and lowly paid jobs, how have education and skills development – both formal and non-formal – acted as arbiters of women’s position in the Thai labour market? This will be discussed more at length in the section that follows.

### 2.3 Education and Skills Development, the Labour Market and Gender Trends

Even before the crisis and subsequent recession in 1997, there were signs that Thailand was already losing its competitive advantage in the global market: wages were increasing faster than the rate of productivity. Due to earlier rapid growth in the industries and services sector, labour markets attracted rural and informal sector workers, thus causing unit labour costs to rise higher than in neighbouring countries. By the early 1990s, Thailand began to face stiff competition from China and Vietnam due to their lower labour costs and wages in industries located in export-processing zones. Labour costs in Thailand thus became too high for labour-intensive industries but skill levels were too low for skill-capital-and technical-intensive industries (ILO, 2000; World Bank, 2000a; Rigg, 2002; Jansen, 2001; Dixon, 1999).

Emerging consensus has moreover pointed out that the competitiveness of Thailand may no longer reside in labour-intensive industries and cheap labour but in shifting to high-skilled technical industries (ILO/EASMAT, 1997; World Bank, 2000a/b; ILO/EASMAT, 2000; Jansen, 2001; APEC Study Centre, 1998).

High-skilled technical industries require appropriate labour capacities to adopt new technologies, especially information communication technology (ICT), in order to compete with new low wage labour markets in Asia and former communist countries. The organization of work in these industries envisage greater emphasis on product and service differentiation and flexibility of delivery.

Moreover, lessons from the recent financial crisis have raised issues about the quality and productivity of Thai workers. A study in 1999 argues that low qualifications, and not unemployment, are the most serious threat to regaining competitiveness after the financial crisis in 1997. Unlike most of East Asia, Thailand’s economic growth was based on low-skilled labour-intensive industrialization (Zeufack, 1999). While real wages have increased during the pre-crisis period, productivity has not kept in pace. Years of high growth did not improve educational and skills levels of workers. While the productivity of labour increased over the second half of the 1980s to 3 per cent, it slumped to 0 over the 1990s, a manifestation of the shortage in a skilled labour force. The economy is currently shifting from labour-intensive production – which is in a long-term decline – to higher value-added industries. To move forward on the road to establishing a high-technology industrial base, planners believe that the country must solve its problem of shortage in technically trained and skilled workers seriously. The low educational attainment of the majority of Thai workers makes it hard for them to acquire the high-technology skills needed to compete in the global economy<sup>7</sup> (Middleton and Tzannatos, 1998; ILO/EASMAT, 1997; ILO/EASMAT, 2000; World Bank, 2000a).

<sup>7</sup> To drive the point further, in 1996, Thailand registered only 3 per cent of its population as having completed secondary education, whereas Malaysia registered 26 per cent, Indonesia 15 per cent and Korea 52 per cent (World Bank, 2000a), although as Figure 2.6 shows, the figure for Thailand has increased in 1999.



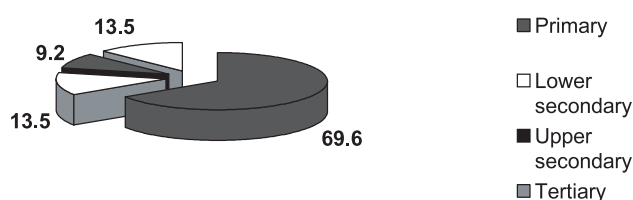
A case in point is the textiles industry. A study conducted by the APEC Study Centre at Monash University (1998) has pointed out that Thailand's textile and garment production has grown steadily in the last twenty years, registering a growth of about 20 per cent yearly since 1980. Garment production – the biggest employer of women workers – increased from around 490,000 pieces in 1975 to more than 2 million pieces in 1994. Output was stable from 1994 to 1996, rendering it the country's largest export item, accounting for nearly three-quarters of Thailand's clothing and textile industry exports. Recent trends however show that the garment industry has been on the downturn, an indicator of the loss of competitiveness at the labour-intensive side of the textiles industry. On the other hand, the export of yarn has shown signs of actual and imminent increase; the manufacture of yarn is considered the more capital-intensive end of the industry. However, skills needed to boost the production of yarn are lacking as this requires more high-technology skills.

Over the last fifteen years, rapid industrial growth has provided more job opportunities for women in the manufacturing and services sectors. These jobs have been largely characterized as low-skilled – largely defined as being “female” jobs in the first place. In view of the current efforts to reorient industries toward upstreaming, there is need to equip women with higher skills in order to provide them employment opportunities in higher value-added industries. Otherwise, they will remain concentrated in low-end industries, characterized by lower labour productivity and lower wages.

### 2.3.1 Gender Differentials in Formal Education

About 70 per cent of the Thai population aged 13 years and above have only primary or lower than primary education (Figure 2.6). This was caused by the very low secondary education enrollment rate during the 1960s and 1970s when the Thai Government was trying to achieve across-the-population primary education and improve its quality at the expense of investing in secondary education. However, secondary education enrollment of total population aged 13 and above, stagnant at the rate of around 35 to 40 per cent in the early 1990s, has now nearly doubled to 75 per cent in 1998 (World Bank, 2000a: p.8).

Figure 2.6 Percentages of Thai population by educational attainment in 1999



Source: National Statistical Office, *Labour Force Survey*, 2000b.

With the rapid shift in economic development toward industrialization and services, there was a felt need to accelerate secondary enrollment both among boys and girls of school age. Thus, within primary and secondary education, female and male shares of the student population almost achieved parity, with more women enrolled in the secondary school level towards the end of the 1990s (Table 2.10). However, according to an ILO/Asian Institute of Technology (AIT) study, the proportion of women to men in higher education is one woman to two men (ILO/AIT, 1998).

Table 2.10 Percentage distribution of female and male students in the formal school system by educational level, 1996 and 1998

Educational Level	1996		1998	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	49.4	51	49.6	50
Pre-elementary education	51.1	49	48.9	51
Elementary education	51.5	49	48.5	52
Lower secondary education	49.8	50	50.6	49
Upper secondary education	45.3	55	56.5	44

Source: National Statistical Office and Office of the Permanent Secretary of Education, *Report of Education Statistics: Academic year 1996 and 1998*. Elementary education is compulsory in Thailand.

While there seems to be parity between women and men in their participation at different levels of elementary and secondary education, enrollment rates were more unequal from 1970 to 1990, where there were fewer female enrollees especially in ages 12-14 and 15-17. However, improvements were made in the decade of the eighties and the gap between women and men has narrowed, although not completely (see Table 2.11). Also in Table 2.11, there are clearly more women who have no education than men since the 1960s, except that the number of uneducated women and men significantly dropped in the 1980s when education reforms were put in place by the Thai Government (Sussangkarn, 1997). Since the 1960s, there have also been more men who completed secondary education than women.

Table 2.11 Enrollment rates and educational attainment of women and men by percentage

School Enrollment (%)				
	1960	1970	1980	1990
<b>Men</b>				
Ages 6-11	-	69.9	75	82.4
Ages 12-14	-	39.7	62.6	62.1
Ages 15-17	-	17.9	32.9	33.5
Ages 15-29	-	4	9.5	7.7
<b>Women</b>				
Ages 6-11	-	67.4	74.6	82.6
Ages 12-14	-	29.5	56	60.4
Ages 15-17	-	11.8	27.7	31.8
Ages 15-29	-	2.7	7.6	7.5
Educational Attainment (%)				
	1960	1970	1980	1990
<b>Men</b>				
No education	31.1	21	12.8	8.5
Primary	62.5	69.5	72	69.7
Secondary	4.2	6.2	11.2	15.6
College	0.6	0.9	2.4	5
Others and Unknown	1.6	2.4	1.5	1.2
<b>Women</b>				
No education	44.3	30.7	18.8	12.7
Primary	53.2	63.7	70.8	70.3
Secondary	1.8	3.5	7.3	11.3
College	0.3	0.5	2	4.9
Others and Unknown	0.4	1.6	1.1	0.9

Source: Population and Housing Census, NSO (various issues) in Mathana, 1997.

There has also been serious concern over the quality and relevance of the curriculum. Secondary schools have been governed by rote learning and narrow vocation courses, casting doubt on whether generations of Thai students would be able to adapt to rapidly changing occupations and jobs.

The level of education of women and men in various occupations in the municipal areas of Thailand is presented in Table 2.12. For the analysis of Table 2.12, it is important to keep in mind that the 1998 Labour Force Survey indicates that there were more men working in the transportation and communications industry; whereas there were more women working in apparel production and in services like recreation and in clerical work. The number of women and men reached relative parity in the food processing and beverage sector.

Table 2.12 Employed women and men in manufacturing and services by level of education, 1998 (in thousands)

<b>Male Employees</b>					
	Manufacturing			Services	
	Transport & Communications	Apparel	Food Processing & Beverage	Sports & Recreation	Clerical
No Education	4.2 (.86%)	1.4 (5.2%)	0.2 (.51%)	4.6 (1.7%)	0.1 (.04%)
< P4	7.4 (1.5%)	0.1 (.37%)	0.5 (1.3%)	4.2 (1.5%)	0.1 (.04%)
Lower Elementary	194.7 (40%)	11.8 (43.8%)	8.6 (22%)	59.7 (22%)	24.9 (10.7%)
Upper Elementary	96.4 (20%)	6.6 (24.5%)	16.1 (41.0%)	35.9 (13.1%)	14.2 (6.0%)
Lower Secondary	103.7 (21.4%)	2.9 (11%)	7.8 (20.0%)	76.8 (28.0%)	73.5 (31.5)
Upper Secondary	27.7 (5.7%)	1.4 (5.5%)	2.1 (5.3%)	42.9 (15.7%)	35.4 (15.2%)
Vocational	28.4 (5.8%)	1.6 (5.9%)	0.9 (2.3%)	14.7 (5.4%)	41.9 (18.0%)
Academic	9.8 (2.0%)	0.8 (3%)	1.5 (3.8%)	20.4 (7.4%)	3.8 (1.6%)
Technical Vocational	11.8 (2.3%)	0	1.5 (3.8%)	11.3 (4.1%)	36.3 (15.6%)
Teacher Training	0.4 (.08%)	0	0	3 (1.0%)	1.1 (.47%)
Short Vocational Courses	0.7 (.14%)	0	0	0	0
Others	~	~	~	~	~
Unknown	~	~	~	~	1.9 (.81%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>485.2 (100%)</b>	<b>26.9 (100%)</b>	<b>39.2 (100%)</b>	<b>273.5 (100%)</b>	<b>233.2 (100%)</b>
<b>Female Employees</b>					
	Manufacturing			Services	
	Transport & Communications	Apparel	Food Processing & Beverage	Sports & Recreation	Clerical
No Education	0.1 (.25%)	1.5 (.9%)	1.4 (3.4%)	16.5 (4.6%)	0.3 (.08%)
< P4	0.6 (1.5%)	1.1 (.66%)	0.2 (.5%)	5.7 (1.6%)	3.1 (.92%)
Lower Elementary	11.8 (36.3%)	54.7 (33%)	15.9 (39%)	146.8 (41.1%)	14.3 (4.2%)
Upper Elementary	3.2 (8.2%)	64.9 (39.2%)	13.2 (32.3%)	103 (28.8%)	11.13 (3.3%)
Lower Secondary	5.4 (14%)	27.2 (16.4%)	6.7 (16.4%)	51.9 (14.5%)	55.7 (16.6%)
Upper Secondary	3.4 (8.7%)	3.8 (2.3%)	1.3 (3.2%)	13.7 (3.8%)	55 (16.4%)
Vocational	2.8 (.71%)	5.5 (3.3%)	1.2 (2.4%)	9 (2.5%)	95 (28.3%)
Academic	5.6 (15%)	1.6 (.96%)	0.5 (1.2%)	3.4 (.95%)	18.7 (5.6%)
Technical Vocational	5.6 (15%)	2.5 (1.5%)	0.2 (.50%)	5.4 (1.5%)	78.7 (23.4%)
Teacher Training	0	1.8 (1%)	0.3 (.73%)	0.6 (.16%)	3.5 (1%)
Short Vocational Courses	0	0	0	0.9 (.25%)	0
Others	~	~	~	~	~
Unknown	~	0.8 (.48%)	~	0.2 (.06%)	0.7 (.2%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>38.9 (100%)</b>	<b>165.4 (100%)</b>	<b>40.9 (100%)</b>	<b>357.1 (100%)</b>	<b>336.13 (100%)</b>

Source: National Statistical Office, *Report of the Labour Force Survey*, Fourth Quarter, 1998.

The figures in Table 2.12 show that in transport and communications, more men are educated in all levels, whereas in dressmaking or apparel production, more women are educated in all levels.

In food and beverage processing, where there is relative parity between the number of women and men working in this sector, more men are educated in all levels, while some women workers have completed lower elementary education.

In sports and recreation services, more women are poorly educated with their numbers of educated workers dropping in the lower secondary level, whereas men are more highly educated with their numbers higher than women at each advanced level. Most women only completed lower elementary while the men in this sector completed lower secondary education.

In clerical work, more men are poorly educated, whereas more women are highly educated, but unlike in the recreation sector, men have reached the upper secondary level compared with most women having completed only lower educational levels. Moreover, it is noteworthy that most women in clerical work had completed vocational training whereas most male clerks completed only lower secondary education. It is suggested that clerical work has been associated with women's work and thus more women have access to vocational education in this field and are thus absorbed by this sector. Men who wish to become clerks may not experience the same incentives.

Further, it is noteworthy that in the sectors of dressmaking, food and beverage processing and sports and recreation services – where women are highly concentrated – there are more women than men who have *no* education or little education. This is especially so for the food and beverage processing and sports and recreation services sectors. As earlier presented in Table 2.4, the garment and the food processing sectors are in the top seven manufacturing establishments, generating high revenues and have been main engines of economic growth for the country. In combination with the data in Table 2.12, it therefore appears that the biggest revenue-earning establishments in Thailand therefore rely largely on poorly educated and low-skilled women workers.

### ***2.3.2 Skills Development, Vocational Training and Workplace-based Training***

Public technical and vocational training in Thailand is provided through formal and non-formal arrangements under the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MOLSW). Government has provided training to workers through the Department of Skill Development (DSD) in the MOLSW. The Skill Development Funds and relevant Skill Development and Training Promotion Acts are encouraging firms to provide more training to employees. Public institutions that provided formal technical and vocational training registered a total of 531,319 students in 1997, 61 per cent of whom were men (see Table 2.13a).

Private institutions, on the other hand, had a total of 740,542 students in 1998. Courses offered by these private vocational training institutions are shown in Table 2.13b. Predictably, more women than men in private institutions took up courses in typing, beauty and dressmaking, while more men took courses in language and computer learning, although there was a drop in male enrollment in computer learning in 1997. The attendance pattern mainly reproduced the female and male stereotypes. Thus, in vocational skill training, a clear gender division exists, premised on ideas in Thailand about the nature of women and men's work. These agencies train women along the lines of light, physical work usually as extensions of their roles as homemakers, bearers of hospitality and clerical, service-oriented functions. Skill training for men, on the other hand, concerns the operation and handling of machines

and transactions with English-speaking foreign agents – usually defined as “male” work. The same pattern manifests in technical and vocational education provided by the Ministry of Education. More women took up courses associated with home economics and commerce whereas men took up courses in industrial mechanics and agriculture in 1992 and 1997.

Table 2.13a Participation in courses in technical and vocational education under the Ministry of Education by women and men by percentage

	1992			1997		
	% Female	% Male	Total	% Female	% Male	Total
Industrial Mechanics	3	97	145,574	4.2	95.8	288,716
Arts and Crafts	46	54	8,093	49.1	50.9	11,543
Home Economics	97	3	15,506	96.2	3.8	26,972
Commerce	90	10	79,487	89.9	10.1	171,192
Agriculture	20	80	10,236	28.5	71.5	32,896
Total	37	63	258,896	39.0	61.0	531,319

Source: Department of Vocational Education, Ministry of Education

Table 2.13b Participation in courses of private vocational institutes by women and men by percentage

Courses	1996		1997		1998	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
(Total number : persons)	345,981	207,418	413,160	331,631	392,773	347,769
Total per cent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Technical	3	7	3	4.3	2.4	4.1
Beauty and dressmaking	4.6	0.5	2.7	0.2	3.2	0.3
Typing	21.3	14.7	15.3	8.3	10	5.2
Language	34	31.5	32.5	43.2	44	53
Computer	37	46.2	46.4	43.9	40.3	37.3
Tourism and hotel	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Source: Ministry of Education; Office of the Private Education Commission Planning Division.

Aside from reproducing stereotypes through skill training, in a research that studied 12 factories, Boonsue (1998) found that whether skilled or unskilled, factory women face dismal prospects for better employment and incomes. Boonsue cited categories<sup>8</sup> of skilled and unskilled labour. Unskilled labour carried out manual work with minimal formal education (usually up to P.4 or P.6)<sup>9</sup> and short workplace-based training. Skilled labour was involved in advanced technology and required a higher level of education (in general, M.6) and provided with longer-term workplace-based training.

Low-technology production involved the use of hand-fed machines and for automated machines, labour is required for machine minders to feed materials, check the completeness of outputs, assemble

<sup>8</sup> These categories are only applicable to the sample under study and not to the industrial labour force as a whole. Semi-skilled labour was ignored because it does not have a corresponding wage component.

<sup>9</sup> Level equivalents to the American school system: P-4 = Grade 4; M-6 = Grade 12; M.3 = Grade 9.

end-products and do packaging. Unskilled workers do simple, repetitive, dead-end work and are not required to know the whole production process. Skilled workers, on the other hand, adjust machines and have been provided with a number of training courses by the firm itself. High-technology production takes place in computer-based industries. A minimum of M.3 to M.6 in general is required of workers in these establishments. Strict discipline, mental concentration and compliance with high product standards are a must in these firms. Many of the workers have also been provided short-term training courses.

Most employed women workers were categorized under unskilled labour. They generally received lower wages than unskilled male labourers based on the above criteria. The study examined workers that had changed jobs four times and measured gender wage differentials at each time. Unskilled women never received wages higher than unskilled men in any of their previous jobs, nor in the one they had during the time of the research. And during their third and fourth jobs, skilled women were paid even lower than unskilled men in their third and fourth jobs. The study therefore concludes that both skilled and unskilled women workers were paid less and have lower prospects for upward career mobility than unskilled men.

The industrial firms provide skill training to workers in order to overcome existing skills shortages. Workplace-based skill training, however, has its limitations. Many firms restrict their training to meeting operational needs rather than to provide skills upgrading to meet long-term objectives such as adaptation to new technologies.

Many small and medium-sized industries are still using low technology and thus only require lower-skilled labour. They provide less skill training and upgrading. Large firms, on the other hand, utilize imported machines but the current labour force can only operate and maintain these. These firms provide more training aside from paying higher wages to their workers. According to a study in 1999: 88 per cent of firms provide training of some kind; 82 per cent provide informal training to newly-recruited workers; while only 58 per cent provide formal training. Moreover, it was found out that a disincentive for firms to provide training to its workers is the often low levels of education of workers in the first place (ILO/EASMAT, 2000). Recent research by the World Bank has found that most Thai companies provide training, both formal and informal, for their employees that in part, can be explained by the shortage of secondary graduates. It was also found out that most manufacturing firms viewed skills in reading, ability to learn new occupational skills, mathematics and oral communication as most important in hiring entry-level workers. On the other hand, they thought that manual and computer skills were least important (World Bank, 2000a).

Many companies seek accreditation with the International Organization for Standardization, thus compelling them to provide formal training for employees. But the majority of enterprises still provide training on an ad-hoc basis. To date there is no informative data on workplace-based training for women workers. Anecdotal evidence, however, points to discrimination against women. Employers are generally reluctant to provide training for women workers since they believe that they will one day marry, become housewives and will attend largely to family care responsibilities, thus eventually causing them to withdraw from the labour force. In short, they believe that investing in women's skills is not a worthwhile undertaking (ILO/EASMAT, 2000, p. 66).

The next two chapters discuss gender equality in the vocational skill training systems within the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare and the field assessment of training programmes and practices of selected training institutions under the Department of Skill Development and the Department of Public Welfare.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **Skills Development Systems of the Department of Skill Development and Department of Public Welfare**

The Department of Skill Development (DSD) and the Department of Public Welfare (DPW) play an important role as governmental agencies in charge of national skill development and social welfare respectively. While both departments provide vocational training services to men and women, DSD and DPW are driven by different mandates. DSD aims to provide vocational skill training services to men and women to prepare for and enhance their participation in the labour force, while the main goals of DPW are to provide social services to marginalized groups with vocational skill development as a key part of its services. The following section describes DSD's and DPW's responsibilities and operation.

#### **3.1 Department of Skill Development (DSD)**

Established in 1993, the Department of Skill Development operates a national network of vocational training institutions providing principally the following types of services to different target groups: (1) pre-employment skill training for out-of-school youth; (2) skill upgrading for workers; and (3) non-agricultural training for people in the rural areas; (4) a range of specific training courses based on requests from enterprises (ILO/EASMAT, 2000).

The work of DSD is based on tripartite principles and its vision is “to produce skilled labour and promote them to be . . . [productive and effective] employed persons (DSD, 1998, p. 13). The DSD is mandated to provide skill development for all new entrants to the labour market as well as to promote skills standards in order to improve the quality of the national workforce.

With 76 skill development agencies under its auspices DSD is directly charged with skill development of the nation's labour force. DSD operates one Central Institute for Skill Development, 12 Regional Institutes for Skill Development, and 64 Provincial Centres for Skill Development, and plans to establish a Provincial Centre in every province. DSD's responsibilities are listed in Box 3.1.

#### **Box 3.1: Responsibilities of the Department of Skill Development**

- Accelerate the manpower planning to correspond to the Master Plan of Industrial Restructuring.
- Accelerate and develop labour potential and raise the standard of the labour force to meet the needs of the labour market and changes in technology and be accepted in the domestic and international labour markets.
- Develop skill development information systems in micro and macro levels for manpower planning in private and public sectors.
- Provide incentives and improve legal measures to encourage the private sector to participate in skill development.
- Increase cooperation in skill development at the national and international levels.

Source: Department of Skill Development

DSD operation involves four key skill development activities: (1) vocational training; (2) occupational skill standards promotion; (3) personnel development training; and (4) skill development promotion.

During 1995-2000 DSD provided vocational training services under its main regular training programmes to approximately 200,000 trainees per year. Table 3.1 shows total numbers of trainees in various DSD training programmes during the fiscal years 1995-2001.

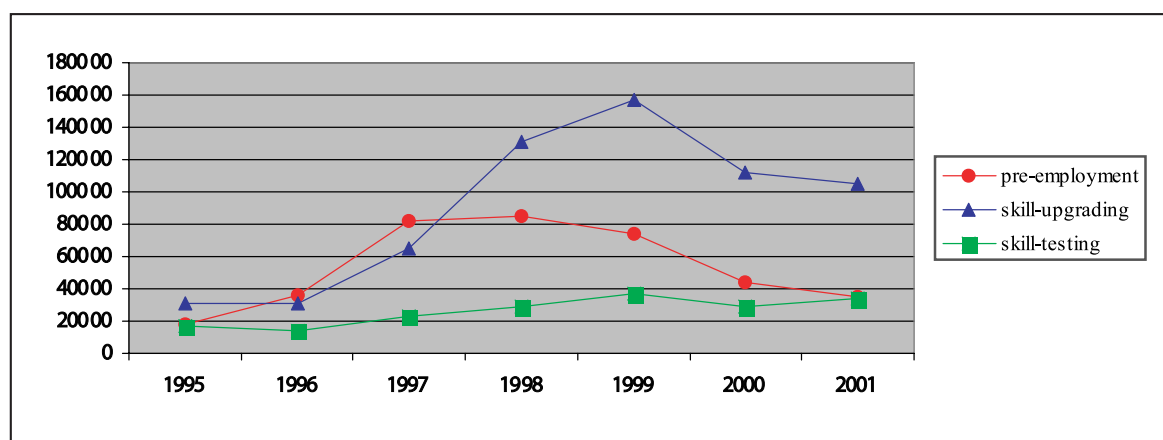
Table 3.1 Number of vocational trainees in DSD regular training programmes during fiscal years 1995-2000

Training	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Pre-employment	17,959	36,463	81,781	85,368	74,014	43,514	34,601
Rural	22,724	32,153	-	-	-	Na	-
Skill Upgrading	31,148	31,371	65,048	130,568	156,841	112,357	105,470
Non-technical	22,971	35,422	49,234	-	-	Na	-
Personnel Skill	3,237	8,996	6,629	6,232	6,216	Na	-
Skill Testing	16,784	13,940	23,313	29,379	36,553	29,196	34,141
<b>All</b>	<b>114,823</b>	<b>158,345</b>	<b>226,005</b>	<b>251,547</b>	<b>273,624</b>	<b>185,067</b>	<b>175,212</b>

Source: Department of Skill Development

Before 1997, vocational training was delivered under various training programmes, e.g., rural, non-technical and personnel skills, etc. However, the standard training programmes that have been consistently provided within the DSD system include pre-employment, skill upgrading and skill testing. During 1995-2000, it is evident that the number of trainees increased dramatically from 1997, particularly in the skill-upgrading programme (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1 Number of trainees in the DSD standard vocational training programmes during 1995-2001



Source: Table 3.1



Increased unemployment following the 1997 economic crisis resulted in special governmental measures to absorb retrenched workers, one of which was by retraining them. As a result, government vocational training services shifted emphasis from training new entrants to absorbing more existing and retrenched workers in the labour force in the skill-upgrading programme. The number of trainees in the pre-employment programme (which trains largely new entrants to the labour market) increased two-fold from below 40,000 in 1996 to the 80,000 range during 1997-1999, and dropped sharply to the 1996 level in 2000, when special funding from the Government's unemployment alleviation programme came to an end. The Thai Government's unemployment alleviation measures in response to the 1997 crisis are discussed in more details in section 3.3.

### **3.1.1 DSD Vocational Training Programmes and Skill Development System**

In vocational training operation, training is divided into three programmes: (1) pre-employment training; (2) skill upgrading training; and (3) training for self-employed persons. The DSD puts a special emphasis on providing training services to the economically disadvantaged groups, particularly adults and young adults that are out of the formal school system, school drop-outs, low-paid workers desiring to learn new skills to improve employment prospects, and other low-income groups.

1. The *Pre-employment Training Programme* provides basic skill training in various professions for male and female job seekers aged 15-30. The 76 DSD-affiliated training centres provide in-centre training courses that focus on practical training with equipment for 2-10 months, followed by 1-4 months of in-plant training at private enterprises, depending on the requirement of each course. Upon completion trainees are furnished with a Certificate in Skill Development in a specific skill area. In-centre training is generally provided for new entrants into the labour market, disadvantaged groups aged 15 or over, and educationally disadvantaged youth aged between 13-15 years who have left school at the primary level and lack opportunity to continue in the formal educational system.

DSD training centres also provide pre-employment training in communities to specifically targeted groups, including unemployed and laid-off workers, agricultural labour in off-harvest seasons, soldiers in the armed forces, prisoners in every provincial prison, and children and youth in juvenile institutions. Community-based training courses – usually 2-4 months long – are aimed at developing knowledge, proficiency and skills necessary for target groups to seek employment or acquire supplementary occupations.

2. The *Skill-upgrading Training Programme* offers short training courses of various skill areas to those already in the labour force: employed workers and laid-off workers aged 15 or over. Prospective trainees generally already have basic skills in the chosen area and must have completed *Mattayom* 6 or secondary school. This programme is designed to provide advanced skills for workers to participate effectively in the labour market and to enhance their careers. The course duration ranges from 18-60 hours.

3. The *Training for Self-employed Persons Programme* provides training for those who have professional vocational knowledge and plan to set up their own business. Trainees can expect to gain knowledge in small business management, business ethics, business law, tax law, capital source, accounting, and budget and market planning. The training duration is generally 2 weeks or 60 hours.

DSD encourages skill development among individuals who need financial assistance to develop skills. DSD administers the Skill Development Fund and gives loans to eligible applicants who require skill training but lack financial resources. Eligible applicants are new entrants to the labour market, laid-off workers, and workers requiring skill upgrades, earning no more than 10,000 baht per year, who are Thai nationals aged between 15-45. Those qualified can seek loans from the DSD at a 1-per cent interest rate. The loans are expected to cover skill training expenses and living expenses during the period of training and must be repaid within five years.

DSD also developed strategies to promote private sector involvement in skill development. Besides promoting vocational training in skills required by businesses and industries among the working age groups and providing skill standard testing, DSD encourages cooperation between private enterprises and educational institutions. Through this cooperation, students at educational institutions are provided opportunities to have hands-on experience at private enterprises, while workers at private enterprises can obtain additional training at educational institutions or vocational training centres.

Private enterprises registered as providers of training under the Vocational Training Promotion Act (1996) are entitled to certain privileges, including 50-per cent income tax deduction of training expenses. DSD also offers financial incentives to private enterprises that wish to establish a skill testing operation for those wishing to work overseas and for private vocational training institutes. A private enterprise can apply for low-interest-rate loans from the DSD to establish or expand their training programme in skill fields that are in demand.

### 3.2 Department of Public Welfare (DPW)

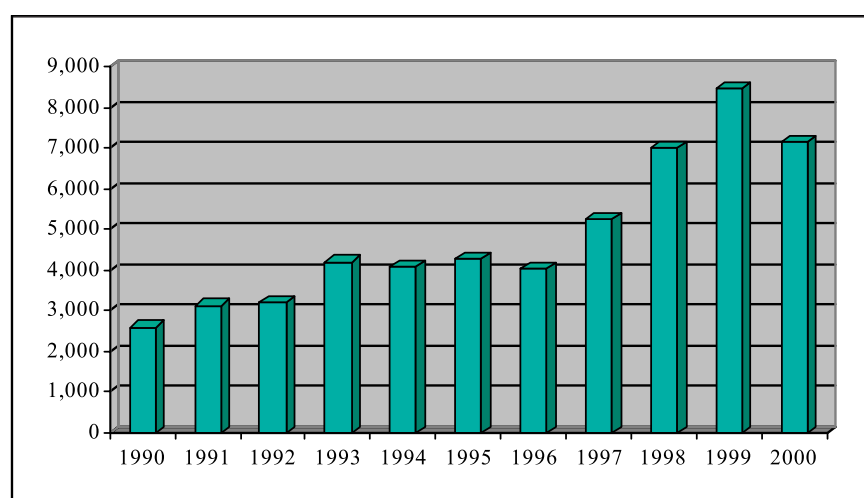
Since its establishment in 1940, the Department of Public Welfare (DPW) has been responsible for implementing national social welfare policies through its outreach to disadvantaged and marginalized groups. DPW operates 75 provincial public welfare offices, 169 district public welfare offices, and various facilities for specific groups, including child protection homes, women welfare protection facilities, facilities for the elderly, the destitute, and people with disabilities, regional disaster relief centres, emergency homes, self-help land settlements, and hill tribe welfare and development centres. DPW aims to help people in need gain self-reliance and independence. It views vocational training as a key part of its services that will help its clients move towards self-reliance. Box 3.2 lists DPW's target groups.

**Box 3.2: Target groups of the Department of Public Welfare**

- Disadvantaged children and youth aged under 18 years
- Marginalized elderly aged over 60 years
- People with disabilities
- Marginalized women (poor women and women at risk of or in prostitution)
- Disaster victims
- Ethnic groups (hill tribe people)
- Homeless people
- Impoverished families

During the 1990s, the DPW training systems provided services to 2,500-8,500 trainees per year (see Figure 3.2). The number of trainees increased during 1997-1999, from 5,258 in 1997 to 8,486 in 1999, and slightly decreased to 7,154 in 2000. These increases responded to the higher rates of unemployment following Thailand's 1997 economic crisis and increased funding as part of the IMF rescue packages and funding from other sources, particularly the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank.

Figure 3.2 Number of vocational trainees in DPW welfare and vocational training institutions during 1990-2000



Source: Table 3.2

Table 3.2 demonstrates the number of trainees per year in seven regional welfare and vocational training centres affiliated with DPW during 1990-2000. The seven centers function as the *de facto* regional training institutions as they are located in different regions in the country, with two (Lampang and Chiang Rai) in the north, two (Sri Saket and Khon Kaen) in the northeast, Nontaburi in the central region, Chonburi in the east, and Songkla in the south.

Table 3.2 Number of vocational trainees in DPW welfare and vocational training institutions during 1990-2000

Training Centre	Number of Trainees										
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Lampang	1,154	1,316	1,377	1,322	1,192	1,100	726	1,670	1,701	1,834	1,805
Chiang Rai	0	0	0	0	0	0	330	531	728	780	681
Sri Saket	224	513	261	599	655	638	606	731	961	983	996
Khonkaen	243	245	193	435	510	550	378	416	753	806	878
Nontaburi	970	908	981	1,025	816	1,000	1,271	1,151	1,201	1,199	963
Chonburi	0	0	0	334	414	450	418	399	839	1,645	1,309
Songkla	0	150	400	500	490	540	314	360	830	1,239	522
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,591</b>	<b>3,132</b>	<b>3,212</b>	<b>4,215</b>	<b>4,077</b>	<b>4,278</b>	<b>4,043</b>	<b>5,258</b>	<b>7,013</b>	<b>8,486</b>	<b>7,154</b>

Source: Department of Public Welfare

It is evident from the figures in the above table that the Lampang Centre, which was the first vocational training centre established within the DPW systems, remains the largest center with the highest number of trainees (1,805 in 2000), with Nontaburi being the second largest. It is also clear that every DPW training centre served more trainees during the peak crisis period of 1997-1999. It must also be noted that, although the number of trainees by and large dropped slightly from 1999 to 2000 in most training centers, that of the southern centre (Songkla) dropped by more than half, from 1,239 in 1999 to only 522 in 2000. However, this does not correspond to any cut in funding for this centre.<sup>10</sup>

### ***3.2.1 DPW Vocational Training Programmes and Skill Development System***

DPW provides vocational training as part of its services to some of its clients – training at vocational training centres and community-based training by mobile units. DPW operates one vocational training centre for children, seven regional welfare and vocational training centres for women, and a number of vocational training centres for people with disabilities, as well as hill tribe welfare and development centres. The training duration is six months for standard centre-based training courses, and ten days to one month for short-term courses. Standard centre-based training courses provided by DPW include sewing, industrial sewing, barber, hairdressing, beauty salon, electrician, and plumbing. New courses have been added such as computer, hotel services, office administration, and child and elderly care.

Mobile units have been made available for community-based training in several provinces in every region in the country. Mobile training services are provided to women who are former sex workers and girls who are at risk of prostitution. Training courses provided by the DPW mobile units are generally selected according to skill demands of the local labour market and have a duration of 88 days (four months). Trainees receive a one-time 2,000 baht family assistance grant, and a daily stipend of 50 baht plus 32 baht for meals throughout the 88 training days.

In addition to vocational skills, trainees of the DPW training centres generally receive financial assistance often in the form of the subsistence allowances as mentioned above, free support devices in case of disabilities, formal or non-formal education, life skill training, career advisory services, and job placement assistance.

With a view to promoting the rights of disabled workers, DPW facilitates the Affirmative Action for People with Disabilities' Employment regulation issued by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare by facilitating the recruitment of qualified disabled workers for private enterprises. It also provides 20,000 baht interest-free loans for people with disabilities who want to operate their own small business.

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<sup>10</sup> The total budget of the Songkla Centre was 5.28 million baht in 1999 and 5.54 million baht in 2000.

### 3.3 1997 Economic Crisis and Unemployment Alleviation by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MOLSW)

The 1997 economic crisis had a serious impact on Thailand's labour market. According to the National Statistical Office (NSO) Reports of the Labour Force Survey, the 1997 crisis caused almost one million Thais to be laid off. The number of unemployed persons in Thailand was registered at a little lower than 300,000 in 1997, but jumped to 1.1 million in 1998.

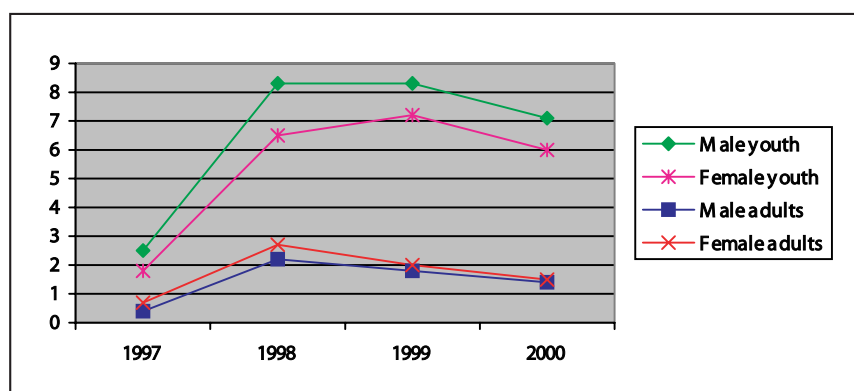
The overall unemployment rates of the working population aged 15 and older jumped from 0.9 per cent in 1997 to 3.4 per cent in 1998 – an increase of over three folds. The rates slightly dropped to 3.0 per cent in 1999 and 2.4 per cent in 2000 when over 650,000 Thai workers reentered the labour markets between the third quarters of 1999 and 2000 (World Bank, 2001, p. 6). However, it should be noted that the unemployment situation was likely to be worse in reality because these unemployment figures represent the unemployment rates measured in August, which is the peak working season in Thailand.

Special attention should be given to the fact that the unemployment situation following the crisis was more pronounced among the younger population who are the main beneficiaries of vocational training programmes as will be demonstrated later in the report. The unemployment rates of youth – or persons aged 15-24 years – have been consistently about three times as high as those of the adults. For instance, during the 1990s, youth unemployment rates compared to adult unemployment rates were as follows: 4.8 to 1.3 in 1990, 2.8 to 1.0 in 1993, 2.3 to 0.8 in 1995, 2.2 to 0.5 in 1997, and 7.7 to 1.9 in 1999.

During the peak crisis years (1997-1999) unemployment skyrocketed for both youth and adults (see Figure 3.3). Unemployment rates for both youth and adults were highest in 1998 and 1999. In percentage terms, unemployment rates were higher for young men than for young women, and slightly higher for adult women than for adult men (see Table 3.3).

Figure 3.3 Unemployment rates of youth and adults during crisis years (1997-2000)

Per cent



Source: Table 3.3

Table 3.3 Unemployment rates of youth and adults during crisis years (1997-2000)

	Youth (15-24)			Adults (25+)			Overall (15+)		
	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
1997	2.2	2.5	1.8	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.9
1998	7.5	8.3	6.5	2.4	2.2	2.7	3.4	3.4	3.4
1999	7.8	8.3	7.2	1.9	1.8	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
2000	6.6	7.1	6.0	1.5	1.4	1.5	2.4	2.4	2.4

Source: National Statistical Office, Reports of the Labour Force Survey, Round 3, August

As stated earlier, there were regional and socioeconomic disparities caused by the crisis in that the group with low income and low education suffered the most. The NSO Labour Force Surveys show that, overall, the workers with the lowest wage and least education have endured disproportionate impacts of the crisis. While all Thais were hard hit by the crisis in 1997 and 1998 with unemployment rates increasing in all regions, by 1999 the economy started to rebound with unemployment rates beginning to decline in all regions. However, this was not the case for the Northeast where, compared to other regions, the agricultural industry was less able to absorb low-skilled retrenched workers returning from Bangkok. Unemployment in the Northeast continued to its peak in 1999 and only began to drop slightly in 2000 to about 3.2 per cent, compared to below 2 per cent in all other regions, except Bangkok Metropolis which was the area taking the brunt of the crisis registering 4.5 per cent unemployment in 1998 and 3.0 per cent in 2000.

The least educated workers with primary school education or less also dropped out of the labour force in large numbers. The labour force participation of this group dropped almost four percentage points during 1997-1998, from 75.2 per cent to 71.4 per cent. Poverty increased among those with the lowest education and in the lower income categories, despite the fact that the agricultural sector was able to absorb retrenched workers who returned home from the urban centres to the rural areas (World Bank, 2001, pp. 6-7).

### 3.3.1 *The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare Unemployment Alleviation Policy Measures*

Following the 1997 crisis, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare introduced various measures to alleviate unemployment and the negative social impacts felt among laid-off workers and vulnerable groups of society, particularly the poor and less educated segment of the population. Budgets increased from both governmental sources and various international loans. The MOLSW was allocated 11,127.22 million baht or US\$ 300 million (at 37 baht per US\$ 1) from the government in 1999, 21.06 per cent (2,344.5 million baht or US\$ 63 million) of which was committed to 44 projects and 65 activities under the unemployment alleviation operational plan.

Under a mandate from the National Committee on Unemployment Alleviation Policy, nine measures have been implemented by the MOLSW in cooperation with other governmental and private agencies (Box 3.3). The Prime Minister was an ex-officio of the Committee.

**Box 3.3: Unemployment alleviation measures implemented by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare following the 1997 crisis**

1. *Thais help Thais Measure*: this measure aims at reducing the cost of living of people who have suffered from the economic crisis. This includes organizing consumer fairs and setting up low interest rate loans for self-employed persons.
2. *Rural Employment Creation*: this measure aims at creating temporary jobs for unemployed and laid-off workers. Labour-intensive projects have been created to enable them to earn an acceptable level of income.
3. *Illegal Migrant Workers*: this measure aims at deporting illegal workers to their country of origin and replacing them with Thai workers.
4. *Promotion of Overseas Employment of Thai Workers*: this measure aims at expanding overseas employment opportunities for Thai workers.
5. *Promotion of Industrial Employment*: this measure aims at maintaining current employment in the industrial sector. Activities include facilitating the establishment or expansion of existing industrial businesses and services, improving the matching process, upgrading workers' skills and retraining.
6. *New Theory of Agriculture Measure*: this measure aims at encouraging laid-off workers to work in self-sustainable forms of agriculture, which is a new concept in agriculture and one created by His Majesty the King.
7. *New-Graduate Information Centre*: this measure aims at creating an information centre on employment opportunities and higher education or training services for graduate students.
8. *Community Job Creation of Bangkok Metropolitan Area (BMA) (initiated in 1999)*: this measure aims at creating jobs for the unemployed in the Bangkok area, such as providing areas for community product fairs, providing training programmes for the self-employed and hiring local people for community development projects.
9. *Temporary Job Creation by Government Agencies*: this measure aims at recruiting unemployed workers with middle and higher levels of education to work for the Government.

Source: *Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare Annual Report 1999*, pp. 54-56.

The unemployment alleviation measures were adopted and implemented by various departments under the MOLSW. However, by late 2001 the National Committee on Unemployment Alleviation Policy became inactive and many measures were absorbed into the respective departments' regular programmes. The Department of Employment (DOE) became the secretariat of the unemployment alleviation programmes.

These nine measures targeted Thais in both urban and rural areas who were affected by the 1997 economic crisis. As the economy was still contracted and jobs in the formal sector were fewer, the measures primarily aimed to provide new skills or upgrade existing skills of retrenched workers to suit the new market situation, promote self-employment and entrepreneurship, promote overseas employment, and revitalize community-based agricultural industries.

The 2.3 billion baht (US\$ 63 mil) budget was allocated to the measures during the 1999 fiscal year as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Budget allocation of MOLSW to unemployment alleviation programmes (October 1998-September 1999)

Measures	Unit	Target	Output
<b>1. Thais Help Thais</b>			
1.1. Providing the amount of 15,000 baht per case for vocational loans	Person	8,000	9,974 (88.44 mil baht)
1.2. Encouraging vocational group forming	Person	9,125	22,817 (1,955 groups)
1.3. Retraining while receiving allowance during training	Person	7,500	3,730
1.4. Providing concessionary loans from the Skill Development Fund	Person	5,000	14,018
1.5. Providing assistance to laid-off workers to enable their protection by Labour Law Rights	Person	50,000	25,211
<b>2. Rural Employment</b>			
2.1. Guiding and promoting self-employed careers for people	Person	437,500	706,786
<b>2.2. Vocational training for women</b>	Person	2,500	2,500
2.3. Employment for developing quality of life and community	Case	3,400	7,756
2.4. Training for rural employment	Person	30,000	62,204
<b>3. Illegal Migrant Workers</b>			
3.1. Investigating foreign employees and companies	Case/place	230,000/16,275	40,281/18,527
3.2. Investigating companies/employers who employed illegal migrant workers	Place/case	15,000/50,000	13,259/41,220
3.3. Recruiting Thai workers to replace deported illegal workers	Person	60,000	19,685
<b>4. Overseas Employment of Thai Workers</b>			
4.1. By government agencies	Case	1,500	864
4.2. By private agencies	Case	180,000	221,150
<b>5. Industrial Employment</b>			
5.1. Domestic placement	Case	282,500	177,392
5.2. Retraining in labour market	Case	82,590	117,621
5.3. Reducing contribution rate to the Social Security Fund	Place	75,000	98,251
5.4. Reducing contribution rate to the Workmen's Compensation Fund	Place	20,946	12,480
<b>6. New Theory of Agriculture</b>	Family	200	192
<b>7. Monitoring Labour Situation, Trends and Redundancy Information</b>	Visit	48	48

Source: Plan/MOLSW performance in fiscal year 1999, as cited in *Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare Annual Report 1999*, p. 57.

Apart from local policy initiatives, there have been other unemployment alleviation and poverty reduction measures supported by international loans. The MOLSW received assistance from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) Loans Framework through the Ministry of Finance, and from other sources, including the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank (ADB), and the Miyazawa Fund. Table 3.5 below shows international loans to the MOLSW during the crisis years.



Table 3.5 International loans to the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare

(unit: million baht)

Project	Source	Amount of Loan	Baht Contribution	Duration	No. of Projects
Social Investment Project (SIP)	WB (IBRD)	1,090.39* (US \$29.47 mil)	87.08	20 months (July 98-Mar 01)	3
	OECD (JBIC)	21.88** (70.019 mil Yen)	2.2	12 months (Jan-Dec 99)	1
Social Sector Program (SSP)	ADB	982.92	-	9-18 months	5 (Oct 98-Mar 01)
Increased Government Expenditure to Stimulate Economy	Miyazawa Plan & WB (EFAL2)	658.04***		3-24 months (Apr 99-Sep 01)	37
<b>Total</b>	<b>All sources</b>	<b>2,753.23</b>	<b>89.28</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>46</b>

Notes: \* Exchange rate in September 1999: 37 baht per 1 US\$

\*\* Exchange rate in September 1999: 1 baht per 0.3125872 Yen

\*\*\* Includes the amount of 34.06 million baht from the Industrial Restructuring Loan Plan

Source: *Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare Annual Report 1999*, p. 58.

The measures funded by these international or regional agencies primarily aimed to generate employment and income among the retrenched and unemployed men and women, as well as to provide social assistance to the vulnerable groups, including the poor, the elderly, children, and the HIV/AIDS infected workers.

As a condition for the ADB loan, the MOLSW agreed to adopt and to integrate gender equality in its policy measures. Recognizing the low rate of women's participation in the skill training programmes under the Ministry, a goal was set to increase women's participation in skill training in the DSD's pre-employment programme to 30 per cent by 2001.

Within the DSD, a five-year project, the Thai Skill Development Project (1997-2001), was created to remedy the problem of low female enrollment in the DSD's vocational training systems (discussed in detail in Section 3.4 below), to strengthen the DSD's capacity to provide skill development for female target groups and to develop appropriate measures to increase women's enrollment in the DSD's training programmes (Sopchokchai, 2001). The objectives and activities of the project are described in Box 3.4.

With the exception of the Thai Skill Development Project under the ADB loan which had a clear gender-specific component, the projects under the MOLSW's unemployment alleviation programmes did not include any specific measures to alleviate unemployment among women. Target groups of the projects were by and large inclusive of unemployed or laid-off workers in the range of tens or hundreds of thousands in a given project. Women were singled out as a specific target group in only one project under the MOLSW Unemployment Alleviation Programmes, namely the Vocational Training for Women in the Rural Employment Measure (Table 3.4). Also, when targeted, women were included along with other "disadvantaged" groups such as children and the disabled, for instance in the regional vocational training projects under the Social Investment Project funded by the World Bank. The number of targeted women in these projects was small, in the order of only a few thousand for each project.

**Box 3.4: Objectives and activities of the Thai Skill Development Project under the Asian Development Bank loan**

**Objectives:**

1. To support and initiate measures and programmes for increasing women's enrollment in DSD's pre-employment training programmes.
2. To develop and introduce suitable courses for women at all DSD's training centres and institutes.

**Activities** by the expert team on gender issues and skill development for women (WID team) and the Women and Child Skill Development Division under the DSD:

1. Conducting studies and providing a series of policy recommendations for appropriate programmes and measure that would help promote women's training, strengthen the DSD's programmes and achieve capacity building of related organization and staff.
2. Supporting the development, trial and introduction of new courses offering high employment potential for women, reviewing DSD's training curricula to fit skill demands for women, and adjusting the curricula to attract more women trainees.
3. Initiating gender-sensitivity workshops and developing training modules suitable for the DSD staff which include directors, administrators, planners and instructors.

Source: Orapin Sopchokchai, "Gender Equity: Initiating Better Skill Development for Women," Working Paper for ILO/EASMAT, unpublished, 25 January 2001, pp. 4-6.

Considering these unemployment alleviation measures initiated and implemented as a result of the economic crisis, women appear to have been assumed to be included among the general target groups of the unemployed. The fact that they are included among the disadvantaged groups (of children, the elderly, and the disabled) as target groups is consistent with the general practices in Thailand, where vocational and social services tend to be provided to target groups that are divided along departmental lines.

As the next section will show, the Department of Skill Development, which is the primary agency responsible for skill development of the national work force, has a higher proportion of male clientele. On the other hand, the Department of Public Welfare, which is not an agency directly responsible for skill development and training but targets vulnerable groups, tends to cater to female clientele.

### **3.4 Women's Participation in Vocational Training Systems of DSD and DPW**

The National Statistical Office August 2000 survey reported a total of 15.29 million women in the national work force. This figure represents 48.82 per cent of the female population and 45.01 per cent of the total labour force (DLPW, 2001).

The Woman and Child Labour Division, Department of Labour Protection and Welfare under the MOLSW notes in a recent publication *Women and Child Labour* (2001) that a number of problems concerning women workers in Thailand have decreased both in terms of quantity and level of intensity. However, there remain some challenges summarized as follows:

1. Women workers lack education and vocational skills.
2. Household responsibilities put pressure on the allocation of time for work out of the home.

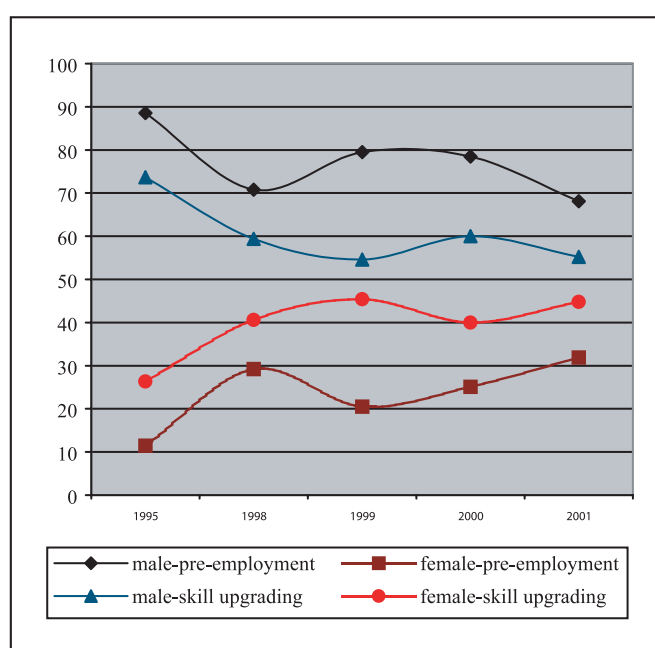
3. Because they are under-educated and largely unskilled, they tend to face unfair treatment in employment, have poor working conditions and fewer chances for promotion and benefits such as maternity leave, etc.
4. A shift to informal employment system leaves women more exposed to further unfair treatment with respect to wages, security, health, and their bargaining rights.
5. Women's lack of skills and knowledge and the types of work they do subject women to poor working conditions, particularly health hazards.

The DSD provides vocational training to increasing number of men and women over the years. As seen in Table 3.1 above, the number of men and women receiving training in all DSD regular vocational training programmes increased from 114,823 in 1995 to 251,547 in 1998 and 273,624 in 1999 and dropped to 185,067 in 2000 and 175,212 in 2001. Although DSD training services are not limited to male trainees, the number of female trainees has been traditionally significantly lower than male trainees, partly because training courses offered are predominantly "male" skills.

The low participation of women in the DSD vocational training system is felt the most in the pre-employment programme. This has important implication because the pre-employment vocational training programme is designed to provide the most systematic vocational skill training to new entrants to the job markets.

Figure 3.4 shows that the percentages of female vocational trainees in the DSD main training programmes are much lower than those of men in both pre-employment and skill-upgrading programmes. The female participation is particularly low in the pre-employment training programme. Women made up merely one-tenth of the total number of trainees in the pre-employment programme in 1995 and increased to about a quarter in 2000 and 32 per cent in 2001. While in the skill-upgrading programme, women made up about 26 per cent of all trainees in 1995 and increased to 45 per cent and more from 1999 to 2001. In the latter half of the 1990s, the percentage of women in the skill-upgrading programme steadily increased, whereas the percentage of women in the pre-employment programme fluctuated.

Figure 3.4 Percentages of male and female vocational trainees in DSD vocational training programmes in fiscal years 1995, 1998, 1999, 2000, and 2001



Source: Table 3.6

Table 3.6 Number of male and female vocational trainees in DSD vocational training programmes in fiscal years 1995, 1998, 1999, 2000, and 2001

Year	Pre-employment			Skill-Upgrading		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1995	15,900 (88.5%)	2,059 (11.5%)	17,959	22,944 (73.7%)	8,204 (26.3%)	31,148
1998	60,324 (70.8%)	24,904 (29.2%)	85,228	77,465 (59.4%)	52,911 (40.6%)	130,376
1999	88,555 (79.5%)	22,845 (20.5%)	111,400	85,620 (54.6%)	71,221 (45.4%)	156,841
2000	32,581 (74.9%)	10,933 (25.1%)	43,514	58,421 (52.0%)	53,936 (48.0%)	112,357
2001	23,572 (68.1%)	11,029 (31.87%)	34,601	58,209 (55.19%)	47,261 (44.81%)	105,470

Source: Department of Skill Development

Quantitatively, women's participation increased during 1998-2001 as a result of direct policy implementation in response to the 1997 crisis as part of the unemployment alleviation measures. The percentage of women's participation in pre-employment programme increased to 29.2 per cent in 1998, dropped to 20.5 per cent in 1999 and recovered to 25.1 in 2000, and rose to 31.9 in 2001. The percentage of women has been slightly higher and is increasing since 1998 in the skill-upgrading programme. Nonetheless, the percentage points are still lower than half of the total trainees: 26.3 in 1997, 40.6 in 1998, 45.4 in 1999, 48.0 in 2000, and 44.8 in 2001.

Qualitatively, there remains a clear gender division in the male and female participation in DSD's training courses as mentioned earlier, i.e., men tend to be concentrated in the "heavy" industrial, construction, machine work, electrical, and automotive repairs courses, while women tend to be concentrated in "light" courses, such as industrial arts (e.g., industrial sewing, dressmaking), electronics (e.g., technical programming, computer, home appliances repairs), and business and services (e.g., restaurant and hotel services, cooking, office assistance).

In 2000, as seen in Table 3.7 the overall percentage of women's participation in three major DSD's vocational training programmes increased to 37 per cent during October 1999-August 2000: 25 per cent in the pre-employment programme, 48 per cent in the skill upgrading programme, and 14 per cent in the standards testing programme. The percentages of disabled persons and children participating in the DSD programmes were insignificant at 0.02 per cent.

Table 3.7 Number of Vocational Trainees in DSD Standard Vocational Training Programmes during October 1999 – August 2000

Programme	All	(%)	Male	(%)	Female	(%)	Disabled	(%)	Children	(%)
Pre-employment	43,514	100	32,581	75	10,933	25	125	0.003	896	0.02
Skill Upgrading	112,357	100	58,421	52	53,936	48	137	0.001	-	-
Standards Testing	29,196	100	25,144	86	4,052	14	-	-	-	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>185,067</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>116,146</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>68,921</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>262</b>	<b>0.001</b>	<b>896</b>	<b>0.005</b>

Source: Department of Skill Development

Among the 2,500-8,500 trainees receiving vocational training in the DPW system (per annum), a significant portion were women and girls under the “Creating New Life for Rural Women” project – a project created in 1993 in response to the Chuan government’s policy to counter the problem of child prostitution. Since 1993, a target of 3,000 women has been set each year to receive vocational training under this project, representing about one-third of all girls and women receiving training under the DPW system by the late 1990s. The first target group includes poor girls at risk of prostitution in the North, one of the largest sources of sex workers in Thailand. Since its inception in 1993, the Creating New Life project has increased its operation to 52 provinces and has expanded services to other groups of women and girls, including unemployed female workers and married women in the rural areas.

During 1993-2000, DPW provided vocational training services to a total of 17,687 women and girls under the Creating New Life project. Most female trainees under this project set up community cooperatives following their training, while the remaining minority worked in factories, continued individual work paths in farming, commerce, general labour, or homemaking, or pursued higher education or other activities. Table 3.8 shows occupational paths chosen by former trainees of the Creating New Life project during 1993-2000. The trend towards setting up community-based enterprises among women trainees of the DPW’s Creating New Life project has been increasingly pronounced in recent years. The shift was clearly marked during 1996-1997 from individual work paths to cooperatives. From 1997 to 2000, over 80 per cent of former trainees set up or joined community-based cooperatives.

Table 3.8 Occupational paths of former women trainees in the creating New Life for Rural Women Project (1993-2000)

Fiscal Year	Cooperatives			Individual Occupational Choices							
	No. of Trainees	No. of Groups	No. of Women	Factory	Self-employment	Farming	General Labour	Homemaking	Education	Other	Total
1993	704	14	205	77	31	138	75	111	26	41	499
1994	2,067	32	375	332	196	47	276	246	113	122	1,692
1995	2,412	48	590	332	188	514	369	259	60	100	1,822
1996	2,502	67	1,476	188	185	277	163	116	41	56	1,026
1997	2,502	75	1,886	115	84	223	85	53	31	25	616
1998	2,500	76	2,199	86	38	76	35	29	11	26	301
1999	2,500	76	2,097	226	96	42	14	11	2	12	403
2000	2,500	113	2,285	34	54	75	17	5	8	22	215
<b>Total</b>	<b>17,687</b>	<b>524</b>	<b>11,113</b>	<b>1,390</b>	<b>872</b>	<b>1,752</b>	<b>1,034</b>	<b>830</b>	<b>292</b>	<b>404</b>	<b>6,574</b>

Source: Department of Public Welfare, September 2000.

The trend toward training for job creation in the local communities and towards community-based cooperatives is a result of the government’s policy response to the 1997 crisis. Community-based initiatives also correspond to the country’s movement towards decentralization of development and administration. Both the DSD and the DPW have begun to experiment vocational training programmes through mobile units in the rural areas. However, among the vocational institutions in this study, mobile vocational training is still in its early stage and available data are insufficient to make any substantial analysis.

### **3.4.1 DSD Skill Development for Women, Children and the Disabled**

DSD acknowledged the importance of skill and development of women and vulnerable groups, such as children and people with disabilities. The Women and Child Skill Development Coordination Division within the DSD was established in 1994 as the unit directly responsible for promoting skill development for women, children and the disabled, as detailed in Box 3.5.

**Box 3.5: Responsibilities of the Women and Child Skill Development Coordination Division, Department of Skill Development**

- Function as the information centre for skill development for women, children and the disabled.
- Support the skill development networks for women, children and the disabled in the private and the public sectors and coordinate with concerned agencies.
- Develop appropriate policies and programme design for skill development for women, children and the disabled.

Source: Women and Child Skill Development Coordination Division, Department of Skill Development

In 1998, as part of the ADB loan project to promote women's participation in the DSD's training programmes, the Women and Child Skill Development Coordination Division came up with specific measures to promote skills development for women, as well as for children and for the disabled (see Box 3.6).

**Box 3.6: Measures to promote skills development for women, children and the disabled of the Women and Child Skill Development Coordination Division, Department of Skill Development (1998)**

- Develop Skill Development for Women Plan and set up network with the private sector.
- Create and adapt training curriculum to provide service sector skills for women such as commercial cooking, Thai cooking, child and elderly care, hotel maid, fashion design, office assistance, and food and beverages.
- Improve and adapt training facilities to accommodate the needs of women and the disabled. Construction of new separate male and female dormitories has been completed for 21 DSD training centres (or half of the DSD vocational training facilities). Some DSD training centres began constructing access for the disabled in their training facilities, including bathroom and transportation access.
- Improve dissemination of information about services to target groups.
- Develop gender sensitivity and children's rights training manuals and workshops for DSD staff at all levels.
- Organize workshops for women executives to enhance their leadership skills.
- Establish the "Women's Friendly Centre" in Chiang Mai as a pilot project for skill development for women.

Source: Women and Child Skill Development Coordination Division, Department of Skill Development

As discussed earlier, women's participation in DSD training systems has been historically low compared to that of their male counterparts, although the DSD adopts an equal opportunity policy as a standard practice. The reason for low enrollment of women in the DSD's vocational training systems is that the DSD was originally established in response to a government policy to produce more workers with industrial skills for the growing industrial sector in the early 1990s. This resulted in the DSD being a vocational training systems oriented toward industrial skills that are traditionally considered "male" skills such as electrical, mechanical, industrial and civil engineering. The majority of courses traditionally provided by the DSD were largely considered "heavy" skills, including construction, industrial and metal works, welding, and auto repairing (Sopchokchai, 2001). Following the initiative to promote women's enrollment in the DSD's training programmes, a limited range of "female-oriented" skills has been added to the standard training programmes, such as dressmaking, industrial sewing, office administration, and computer.

Women not only have limited choices, but are also structurally prevented from participating in mainstream training programmes and courses because in a large part the pre-employment programmes often require on-campus residence but most training institutions do not have adequate facilities to accommodate female trainees. In addition, prospective female trainees and their parents are discouraged by the prospect of being in the small minority among young male trainees because of cultural as well as practical reasons. Therefore, it is no surprise that the number of female trainees in the DSD training systems has been small in proportion.

As part of the ADB loan project and with technical support from the Thai Skill Development Project, the DSD set up the first women-oriented training centre in 1998 in Chiang Mai Province called the Chiang Mai Centre for Skill Development, alternatively named "Women's Friendly Centre" (WFC). The Chiang Mai WFC provides tailor-made vocational training courses for women to accommodate demands of the labour market for skilled workers. Having been in operation since 2000, the Chiang Mai WFC is considered a "good practice" training facility for women by DSD. It is discussed in more details in the next chapter.

The DSD's 2001 work plan included expansion of "women-friendly" training programmes to other regions. In 2002, training courses in traditionally female skills will be introduced at the Skill Development Centre in Satun Province in the southern region, including Thai cooking, Muslim cooking and bakery, agricultural food processing, dressmaking, and industrial sewing. Service sector-oriented skills will also be introduced to an additional 12 centres, pending approval of loans for equipment procurement by the ADB.

### ***3.4.2 DPW Skill Development for Women and Disadvantaged Groups***

Services for women by the DPW have historically been geared toward rehabilitating women who were part of the commercial sex industry. Part of the DPW's mandate is to protect the welfare of disadvantaged women and other disadvantaged groups as described in Section 3.2. Vocational training is provided to girls and women as a preventive measure against female migration into Bangkok or large cities, to provide alternative occupational choices and to discourage girls and women from entering prostitution.

The Occupational Assistance Division (OAD) under DPW is the division responsible for welfare protection of women, families and communities. Main responsibilities and target groups of OAD that are related to vocational skill training for women are described in Box 3.7.

**Box 3.7: Responsibilities and target groups of the Occupational Assistance Division (OAD), Department of Public Welfare**

**Responsibilities:**

- Rehabilitate and promote occupational development for women and girls under the protection of the 1996 Prevention and Suppression of Prostitution Act.
- Provide welfare and career advisory assistance to women and girls suffering from social problems.
- Provide information, knowledge and life skills to young girls to prevent procurement into prostitution.
- Provide occupational training and promote non-formal education among women and girls lacking educational and career opportunities.
- Coordinate cooperation among public and private organizations that provide services to women and are geared to women's development, and women's welfare.

**Target Groups:**

- Women and girls lacking educational and career opportunities
- Women and girls at risk of prostitution (aged 14-35)
- Women and girls who have been lured or forced into the sex industry
- Women and girls convicted under the 1996 Prevention and Suppression of Prostitution Act
- Families facing economic and social difficulties

Source: Department of Public Welfare

Women and girls lacking educational and career opportunities have access to standard six-month vocational training at any of the seven welfare and vocational training centres for women available in all regions of the country. DPW also provides four-month barber training courses to both male and female trainees at the DPW's Din Daeng Vocational Training Centre in Bangkok.

As a result of the child prostitution prevention policy directive adopted by the Thai Government in 1993, the annual vocational training budget allocated to DPW jumped four folds from 10.6 million baht (\$424,000 at 25 baht per US\$1) in 1993 to 52.8 million baht (\$2.1 million at 25 baht per US\$1) in 1994, and stayed at the 50-60 million baht level ever since.

Under the Creating New Life for Rural Women Project DPW agencies provide four-month (88 days) vocational training courses to women in the rural areas. These courses include but are not limited to dressmaking, comforter making, traditional cloth weaving, ceramics, artificial flowers making, industrial sewing, food processing, mushroom growing, and brick making. In addition to financial assistance while receiving training (Section 3.2.1), after training grants and loans are provided as an incentive for women to set up community enterprises or cooperatives in their home residence.

A group of at least five women who have received training from DPW are eligible for a 15,000 baht interest-free loan, if they set up a community-based business cooperative, generally to produce and sell local products. The loan can be repaid within two years. During the first six months of their group enterprise set-up, former trainees are entitled to a 50 baht daily stipend to supplement their income. Women who wish to set up a small enterprise can also apply for a general occupational assistance loan for 15,000 baht, which is interest free and can be repaid within five years.



### 3.5 Review of Gender Equity in Vocational Training Programmes of DSD and DPW

Programmes and practices in regional and provincial vocational training institutes and centres of the Department of Skill Development (DSD) and the Department of Public Welfare (DPW) generally follow the departmental standard curriculum and modules. By and large in both the DSD and DPW training systems, the training curriculum and modules are created at the central level in Bangkok and the training centres and institutes within the respective departmental networks choose to provide training courses depending on budget, availability of trainers and facilities, and local needs of skills.

DSD vocational training networks have been providing – generally since their inception – training courses that are heavily male-dominated, largely involving industrial skills such as automotive, construction, welding, electrical, and electronics. This is in a large part due to the original purpose to feed skilled workers into the growing industrial sectors of the economy. The few courses that have catered to female trainees are “light” skills, termed “industrial art” skills by the DSD. These primarily include dressmaking, sewing, industrial sewing and architectural designs. The image of DSD vocational training services has been that of a training facility for men and boys, whereas DPW-affiliated training centres cater primarily to women and girls and are perceived as such by prospective trainees.

New home-based and service-based skills such as child and elderly care, restaurant and hotel services, office assistance, and computer have only been added during the last few years to the curriculum as part of the plans to update the training curriculum and to promote greater participation of women in the DSD training programmes. The list of courses provided by the Chiang Mai Skill Development Centre or the Chiang Mai Women’s Friendly Centre provides an idea of the direction to which the DSD may be heading (see Table 4.1 in Chapter 4).

The Chiang Mai Women’s Friendly Centre offers a new addition of courses in the business and service-based skill areas (office management, restaurant service, commercial cooking, Thai cooking, housekeeping, elderly and child care), to the traditional courses in the industrial, industrial art and welding and sheet metal skills clusters. The newly added skill training is varied in terms of in-house course duration and ranges from 2-10 months, as opposed to the standard 6-10 months for the traditional skill courses.

A rough comparison of the “male” (industrial) and the “female” (industrial art and service-based) skills shows that the “male” skill training programmes tend to have a longer training duration, 6-10 months for in-house and 2-3 months for in-plant. The duration of the “female” skill training programmes varies from 2-10 months for in-house and 1-2 months for in-plant: five out of eight non-industrial courses are 2-4 months long, with only one month in-plant training. In contrast, the industrial courses heavily attended by men provide a minimum of two months of in-plant training. Considering that many trainees get jobs through in-plant training with private enterprises, the shorter duration of in-plant training in “female” courses may have an impact on the rates of hiring of female trainees. However, this was not systematically studied in this research, although responses from trainees and graduates will shed some light on this as will be discussed later.

In contrast, as discussed earlier, the DPW vocational training programmes are directed to women and girls only, although some young men are participating. The DPW vocational training services are provided as part of the Department’s social welfare services to the destitute and the disadvantaged, including women in specific groups (poor, rural and at risk of prostitution). Courses provided are limited to home-based skill courses that are largely considered “appropriate” for females, such as

sewing, dressmaking, hairdressing, and handicrafts. Courses provided by the DPW institutions are much more limited compared with those of the DSD. Providing vocational training is not the main but a secondary function of the DPW (i.e., vocational training is provided as part of the larger social welfare services package of the DPW to the disadvantaged groups, including women). Also, the level of skill training provided by the DPW's seven social welfare and vocational training centres around the country is that of basic minimum – merely engaging in subsistence-type income-generating activities.

The DPW sees its role as a provider of basic skills only. This observation was confirmed by the DPW officials during the research synthesis workshop in December 2001. If its clients would like to obtain higher-level skills, the DPW refers them to other sources, particularly the DSD. In fact, there is a limited level of coordination between the DPW and the DSD training centres. For instance, the DPW's Hill Tribe Development and Welfare Centre in Mae Hong Son which provides a limited range of basic non-agricultural skills to the hill tribe members. The Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Centre coordinates with the DPW's Lampang and Chiang Rai centres and the DSD's centres in Lampang and Chiang Mai; the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Centre assists prospective trainees in its area of coverage (primarily Mae Hong Son Province) in referring and facilitating their travels to other appropriate training centres, where they can obtain a wider range of skills.

In addition to traditionally female skills as mentioned above, a limited range of training courses have been recently added to the DPW curriculum to respond to the market demands. These courses are largely service-based skills, similar to those in the DSD, including hotel services, traditional Thai message, child and elderly care, office assistance, and basic computer operation.

Because of this clearly gendered division between the DSD and the DPW both in terms of structural/institutional set-up and in curricula, male-female participation in each respective department's training systems is expectedly lop-sided, with an overwhelming number of male trainees in the DSD and the opposite in the DPW. In other words, provision of training is clearly segregated along the types of skills and policy mandates of the two departments.

This gendered division on the surface may not be considered problematic despite the clear sex segregation, if each responsible department were to provide services to comparable number of males and females. However, this is not the case. In practice, DSD and DPW cater to a male and female audience respectively. Moreover, quantity and quality of training vary considerably with the DSD providing training of higher quality to a larger number of persons, mostly men, whereas the DPW provides a lower level of training to a much smaller number of disadvantaged groups. More specifically, the DPW provides basic skill training in its standard programmes to far below 10,000 trainees per year (nine out of ten are women and girls), compared to 200,000 per year by the DSD, only up to one-third of whom are women (see Table 3.2 and Table 3.6).

Gender equity in vocational training in Thailand is not only affected by this institutional barrier, but is further exacerbated by cultural and attitudinal barriers. Assessments of the DSD and the DPW training practices, problems and challenges, as well as views towards gender equality of policymakers, managers, trainers and trainees are discussed in the next chapter.

Some sites like the DPW's Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre in Mae Hong Son, when data about graduates and trainees are kept, they are often not for the purpose of follow-up but are kept as financial records to verify the disbursement of funds for budgetary purposes.

Given this, there is certainly a need to develop a more usable information database of both trainees and graduates. During field research, several staff members at the training sites acknowledged the problem of lack of usable database and expressed interest in learning research skills and information management skills.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **Field Assessment of Training Programmes and Practices**

#### **4.1. Field Assessment of Training Practices**

##### ***4.1.1 Field Research Methodology***

###### Field data gathering

In participation in this research project, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MOLSW) selected eight vocational training institutions for review, four from the Department of Skill Development (DSD) and the Department of Public Welfare (DPW) each. The institutions were selected according to three practice categories: 1) good practice; 2) standard practice; and 3) cultural-specific practice. Twelve DSD and DPW officials involved in vocational training were selected to participate in the research project. They provided assistance in collecting statistics and information about their respective department and training sites: arranging interview appointments with policymakers and training site Directors, selecting trainees and contacting graduates for questionnaire administering, organizing focus groups, and finally providing inputs and policy recommendations during the two-day research synthesis workshop in December 2001.

To obtain an up-to-date policy perspective of the DSD and DPW vocational training systems, semi-structured interviews were conducted with two policymakers at the departmental levels, including directors of the DSD's Women and Child Skill Development Coordination Division and the DPW's Occupational Assistance Division. Structured interviews were conducted with directors of the eight participating training sites and four trainers from each training site. Questionnaires were administered with trainees and graduates. Two separate focus groups of male and female trainees in groups of ten were also conducted at each site. Interviews with policymakers and directors of training sites lasted from one and a half to two hours, and half an hour to one hour for trainers. Each focus group session lasted approximately one hour.

###### Field data sampling design

The sample of trainers was selected according to pre-set criteria. The main researcher and DSD and DPW officials from each of the eight selected training institutions and identified skill training courses for assessment. The training courses were chosen for assessment according to three levels of women's participation:

- (a) high women's enrollment, defined as 75% or higher women's enrollment;
- (b) mixed enrollment of men and women, defined as 26-74% women's enrollment; and
- (c) little or no women's enrollment, defined as below 25% women's enrollment.

Two courses were selected as a sample of women's participation in each category (thus, six courses in each training institution). Following these pre-set criteria, two male and two female trainers were chosen from each training institution. Attempts were made to interview male and female trainers involved in training in the skill training courses dominated by the trainers' opposite sex. However, this proved to be difficult because the reality was that trainers tended to teach in the courses heavily dominated by trainees of their own sex.

Trainees were selected according to the criteria explained above. Ideally, a group of 40 current trainees were to be sampled from each participating training institution. Again, due to the existing gender composition of training course attendance across the participating institutions, pre-set sampling criteria were not met. That is, it was pre-determined that two-thirds of the 40-trainee sample from each institution be female and one-third male, but it was difficult to find courses with equal participation of men and women in both the DSD and the DPW training institutions. In the two out of four training institutions in the DSD system, namely in Nakorn Ratchasima and Lampang, most courses were attended by men. Only a small number of courses in the business and service skills areas, such as computer, electronics, hotel service and cooking, was attended by a fair number of women. The sample of female trainees from the DSD system was primarily selected from the other two training institutions, the Chiang Mai Skill Development Centre, which operates as a pilot project with tailor-made courses for women and the Naratiwas Skill Development Centre in the South. In contrast, training courses selected in the DPW system were virtually female-dominated, with a very small exception of a barber course being taught at the Central Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Nontaburi. As a result, 271 trainees were selected to fill out the questionnaire, including nine male trainees in the DPW system and 54 female trainees in the DSD system.

Two sets of questionnaires by trainees were incomplete. Therefore, 269 questionnaires were used for quantitative data analysis. In addition, no existing vocational trainees were available at the Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre in Mae Hong Son under the DPW because the Hill Tribe Centre did not operate any vocational training courses in 2001, although support services for agricultural activities were provided to hill tribe villagers in the areas. The sample of existing trainees therefore include trainees from the seven training institutions.

Questionnaires were administered at the training institution campuses by the main researcher with assistance from DSD and DPW staff in the five training institutions in the North and Northeast where trainees were available, including Chiang Mai Skill Development Centre, the Northern Skill Development Institute in Lampang, the Northeastern Skill Development Institute in Nakorn Ratchasima, the Northern Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Lampang, and the Central Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Nontaburi. In the two southern training institutions, Naratiwas Skill Development Centre and the Southern Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Songkla, questionnaires were administered by a field co-researcher, DSD and DPW staff and research assistants.

The questionnaires were administered in standard Thai. In cases in which translation to a local language or dialect was required, a translator worked together with the questionnaire administer and the trainee. Translation to southern dialects was required for some trainees in the two southern provinces, Songkla and Naratiwas.

Two separate male and female focus groups (in a group of approximately ten trainees of a single sex) were conducted at each respective training institution, except the Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre in Mae Hong Son where there were no existing trainees during the field research. Each focus group was composed of a mix of existing trainees from different courses pre-selected according to the research design.

A total of 83 graduates, 52 women and 31 men, from primarily 1998 and 1999 training cycles were selected from all eight training institutions. Due to difficulties in tracing graduates who tended to disperse upon completion of training courses, sampling of graduates was not systematic and was done largely on the basis of convenience and availability.

### 4.1.2 Good Practices

The DSD chose the Chiang Mai Skill Development Centre or the “Women’s Friendly Centre” as an example of its good practice, while the DPW selected the Lampang Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women. Both of these institutions are located in the North of Thailand.

#### DSD’s Chiang Mai “Women’s Friendly Centre”

Funded by an ADB loan, the Chiang Mai “Women’s Friendly Centre” (WFC) was launched in 2000 as a pilot project to promote skill development for women. Chiang Mai was chosen to be the first province for this “women-friendly” initiative because Chiang Mai is a major city, the largest city in the North and the second largest in Thailand. As a center of tourism, Chiang Mai has a sizable service industry, and was found to be in demand of female skilled labour in the tourism and business sectors.<sup>11</sup>

During 1998-1999 the Chiang Mai Skill Development Centre was remodeled. Facilities were made suitable to house several “women-oriented” training workshops such as commercial cooking, hotel service, child and elderly care, sewing and garment design. Women’s bathrooms and dormitories were built. After being fully operational, the centre also began experimenting on gender-conscious career counseling, where prospective trainees can assess their skills interest and aptitude through an interactive computer programme.

By the end of 2001, the Chiang Mai WFC had 20 staff: eleven permanent officials and nine temporary employees. Of this number, 15 (4 men and 11 women) were involved in training. It should be noted that all nine temporary employees were female trainers and training staff. As a pilot project aiming to increase women’s participation in the vocational training programmes, the Chiang Mai WFC targets women and girls with secondary education who are unable to continue in the formal education system. However, the centre also provides services to any other interested individuals. The centre provides standard 2-10 month pre-employment training, 18-20 hour skill-upgrading training, as well as skill-testing programmes. Table 4.1 shows a list of standard pre-employment training courses offered at the Chiang Mai Women’s Friendly Centre.

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<sup>11</sup> According to 1998 statistics, Chiang Mai had a population of 1.58 million (49.8 male and 50.2 female). As the centre for tourism in the Northern part of Thailand, Chiang Mai had over 200 hotels and guesthouses to accommodate 3.2 million visitors a year (Chiang Mai Skill Development Centre).

Table 4.1 Institution-based pre-employment training courses provided by DSD's Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre

Curriculum (by skills cluster)	Educational Pre-requisite	Duration (months)	
	P = Primary level S = Secondary level	In-house training	In-plant training
<b><u>Business and Services</u></b>			
Office Management	S.3	10	2
Restaurant Service	S.3	3	1
Commercial Cooking	S.3	10	2
Housekeeping S.3	2	1	1
Elderly and Child Care	S.3	6	2
Thai Cooking P.6	2	1	1
<b><u>Industrial Art</u></b>			
Clothing Design & Dressmaking	S.3	4	2
Industrial Sewing	P.6	2	1
<b><u>Industrial</u></b>			
<i>Electrical &amp; Electronics</i>			
Computer Repairing	S.3	4	2
Air-conditioner Repairing	S.3	6	3
Electrical	S.3	6	3
Electronics	S.3	10	2
<i>Automotive</i>			
Motorcycle Repairing	P.6	6	3
Agro-mechanics P.6	6	3	3
<i>Construction</i>			
Construction Foremanship	S.3	10	2
Advertisement Drawing	S.3	10	2
Furniture Craftmanship	P.6	6	3
Aluminum Frame Fitting	P.6	6	3
Painting	P.6	6	3
Plastering	P.6	6	3
<i>Welding and Sheet Metal</i>			
Arc Welding	P.6	6	3
Sheet Metal Products Processing	P.6	6	3

Source: Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre, Department of Skill Development

The tailor-made courses for women resulted in a higher percentage of women's enrollment at the Chiang Mai WFC. In 2001 the percentage of women's enrollment in the pre-employment, skill-upgrading and skill-testing programmes was a constant 39 per cent from 2000. The percentages were higher in the pre-employment and skill-upgrading programmes (43 % and 46% respectively). The number of women taking standard skills tests remained low, at only 17.5 per cent in 2001. In absolute terms, the number of women increased from 1,135 of 2,849 total enrollment in 2000 to 1,224 of 3,137 total enrollment in 2001.<sup>12</sup> However, women's enrollment in the pre-employment training programmes rose significantly from merely 17 per cent in 2000, the first operational year of the centre, to 43 per cent in 2001. The completion rates of both male and female trainees are roughly the same at 80 per cent for 2001.<sup>13</sup>

<sup>12</sup> In 2000, the last year of the World Bank loan project, 1,000 people were trained in addition to the regular training programmes, 758 of whom were women.

<sup>13</sup> Does not include 259 trainees in the in-house pre-employment training programme, who were continuing on to the next year.

The Chiang Mai WFC relies on market demands as a guide in providing skill training. This market-based provision of skill training is used in conjunction with gender-conscious career guidance provided to prospective trainees at the time of their application (e.g., prospective trainees are advised that they can choose any skills irrespective of their sex). In order to promote gender equality, the staff in the centre also displays pictures of young women and young men performing non-traditionally male and female skills respectively at the centre. Prospective trainees can view these pictures along with other information about different training courses at the time of application. (Application is required to be done in-person.)

In addition to the regular training curricula, the Chiang Mai WFC also provides other training courses such as English and computer, as well as life skills such as self-defense, labour laws, HIV/AIDS and drug prevention, etc. Occasionally, trainees take educational and recreational field trips. Personnel have also received training in gender equality. The centre collects data of trainees disaggregated by sex.

Since 2001, due to promotion of the centre through national television stations and newspapers, the centre has seen an increase in interest from other parts of the country. Due to its superb equipment and facilities, the centre has developed a reputation for being among the best public training institutions in commercial cooking in the country. Some of the trainees taking this course come from other regions in the country. The centre has had to turn down a number of applications due to limited places available.

The obstacles to gender equality from the perspective of the Director and staff can be summarized as follows:

1. Although the Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre has adopted some innovative measures in promoting gender equality in skill training, the measures do not always work in practice. For instance, the interactive computer programme that can help prospective trainees assess their interest and aptitude is not useful to many, because a large number of trainees are still unfamiliar with computer technology.

2. A number of trainees still hold traditional values which often prevent them from taking non-traditional courses. For instance, young girls themselves believe that the female sex is the weaker sex and hence should not work in jobs considered to be physically strenuous. This is seen as a difficult barrier that can be changed in the long run.

3. Employers do not give opportunities to women to work in non-traditional jobs. For instance, the centre was informed by the employers that no female welders would be taken for in-plant training because facilities were unsuitable for women, e.g., co-ed dormitories and bathrooms did not provide privacy for women. The physical limitations of the female sex were also often cited as a reason for not hiring or admitting females in certain jobs, including food and beverage services. For example, the heavy lifting of (large Chinese dining) tables was claimed by employers to be part of the job that made it unsuitable for women. However, the director of the centre believes that the employers' resistance can be overcome if it is demonstrated to them that women can perform equally well in non-traditional jobs. The problem is rather how to convince girls to go into non-traditional jobs in greater numbers.

The Chiang Mai WFC collects systematic data concerning trainees for its database. Upon application, trainees are required to fill out a systematically coded one-page personal profile. As a result, detailed information on each trainee is recorded in the centre's computer system, disaggregated by age, sex, education, place of origin, etc.



### DPW's Lampang Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women

This centre is the largest of the seven welfare and vocational training centres for women in the DPW system. In 2000, this centre provided training services to 1,805 trainees (most other centres of the same kind under the DPW have served fewer than 1,000 trainees with the exception of the Chonburi Centre, see Table 3.2). The overwhelming majority of trainees in this centre are women. In the second round of training in 2001, there were roughly 50 male trainees (10%) of about 500 total trainees.

The Lampang Centre offers 13 skill training programmes, which by and large provide home-based, traditionally female-oriented skills such as dressmaking, tailoring, industrial sewing, artificial flower making, barber, hairdressing, and cooking. Recent additions of training courses are primarily service and tourism-based skills, including computer, hotel and restaurant services, traditional Thai massage, and small engine (motorcycle) repairing. Motorcycle repairing and hotel services are courses attended by male trainees.

Like other DPW's training centres, the Lampang Centre adopts the standard training curricula. It offers both short-term and long-term courses. Generally courses in standard training programmes are 6-month in duration, or 88 training days plus two months of in-plant training or internship, which is arranged between the centre and local private enterprises. Short-term (1-2 months) training courses are provided by the mobile unit for women in villages.

Trainees in the Lampang Centre enjoy free room and board, 50 baht/day subsistence allowances and other services provided as a standard assistance package to trainees of all DPW's training centres (see details in Section 3.4.2 in Chapter 3). This has allowed many poor young women and some young men to obtain vocational skills and jobs that would otherwise not have been accessible to them without this assistance.

The training focus of the Lampang Centre – like that of other DPW's centres – is two-fold: vocational skills and life skills development. Trainees not only receive vocational skill training, but are also provided knowledge and skills in both personal life and work. Life skills form as much as 30 per cent of the training curriculum. Girls and young women are trained about personal safety and worker's rights, for instance. Industrial discipline is also instilled in trainees, as this is deemed important by the management; young trainees, particularly those from the rural areas are unfamiliar with working in the formal economy and found it hard to adjust to strict rules in the workplace. In addition, trainees also have an opportunity to pursue non-formal education while taking training courses. A large number of trainees also enroll in the secondary-level non-formal education programme. Trainees are provided opportunities to take recreational trips.

One key aspect of the Lampang's training services is its 2.5-year training programme (primarily in advanced dressmaking and fashion design). Upon completion of this programme trainees receive a certificate equivalent to a Lower Vocational Skill Certificate (Thai: *Por Wor Shor*), which allows the graduates to obtain better jobs. This program is organized in cooperation with the Non-formal Education Department under the Ministry of Education. There were 115 young women in the first group in this programme in 2001.

In general, the Lampang Centre exudes an atmosphere of family-like friendliness. The facilities, although rather old, are well maintained. An important strength of the Lampang Centre seems to lie in its management and the professional dedication of its staff. From focus groups and questionnaires, the trainees in this centre were very satisfied with the services they received. No major problems and

obstacles were expressed. According to the Director of the centre at the time, the direction of the centre was towards community-based training provided by mobile units.

### **4.1.3 Standard Practices**

#### Department of Skill Development

The Nakorn Ratchasima Skill Development Institute and the Lampang Skill Development Institute were selected as standard practices for review. Both are large skill training institutes with a regional institute status, as opposed to merely a provincial centre. The former was established in 1993 and has five provincial centres in the Northeastern region under its responsibility. It has three teams designated for the three areas of coverage within Nakorn Ratchasima Province. The Institute has a total of 65 staff members (37 government officials, 23 permanent employees and 5 temporary employees).

The Lampang Institute was established in 1996. It is responsible for six provincial centres in the North. However, with more provincial centres having been established in several Northern provinces (Chiang Rai, Phayao, Lamphoon, and Chiang Mai), it now serves primarily Lampang and Mae Hong Son, although its trainees come from other northern provinces where provincial centres exist. The trainees at the Lampang Institute reported that they were drawn to the centre largely because it provides a wider range of skill training courses and has better equipment than the centres in their home provinces. The Institute has a total of 81 staff members (32 government officials, 48 permanent employees and 1 temporary employee).

As a rule, the two training institutes adopt standard training programmes and curricula. This means training courses are still largely male-oriented with heavy industrial skills being the mainstream skills offered, and some industrial arts and service-based skills having been newly added.

The enrollment of men and women in both institutes is unequal, with the majority being male. In the 2000 fiscal year, the Nakorn Ratchasima Institute provided pre-employment, skill-upgrading and skill-testing services to a total of 10,053 people. Of this figure, only 1,573 or 15.7 per cent were women, with even a smaller percentage (10.5 %) in the pre-employment programme. The skill-upgrading programme had a higher participation of women, at 19.6 per cent. In the 2001 fiscal year, the Lampang Institute aimed to provide pre-employment and skill-upgrading training to a total of 3,225 trainees (1,200 in pre-employment and 2,025 in skill-upgrading). The sex-disaggregated data of trainees were not readily available, although a site visit suggests an extremely small percentage of women at the Lampang Institute – perhaps no more than 10 to 15 per cent attending training courses on campus. At the time of the field visit, only a few small trainers' houses were converted into female dormitories, all together accommodating fewer than ten female trainees.

The findings from these two DSD centres clearly illustrate the overall problem within the DSD vocational training system with regard to providing equal access of women and men to training. Gender inequalities in the participation of male and female trainees occur because of the type and structure of the training programmes. That is, women are discouraged to participate because the programmes available are not appealing to them. In addition, the facilities (dormitories and training shops) and the general atmosphere are not friendly to women. In both institutes facilities for women trainees can be improved (dormitories and bathrooms).

One significant problem in standard practices in the DSD system is the DSD's institutional philosophy towards trainees. At virtually all DSD's training institutions under study, particularly these two institutes, trainees complained about overly strict rules adopted by the institutes. In focus groups

and questionnaires, a number of both male and female trainees expressed that they felt the rules were “too restricted” in that they had very limited personal freedom and felt they were treated as if they were “potential problems” by the training staff. This created a negative atmosphere for many trainees, especially young men.

Also, a significant number of trainees in these two institutes complained about lack of seriousness on the part of some trainers in their jobs. Trainees in the Nakorn Ratchasima Institute reported inadequate number of trainers, resulting in “good” trainers being unavailable for all training sessions.

#### Department of Public Welfare

Examples of standard practices selected by the DPW are the Central Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Nontaburi Province near Bangkok and the Southern Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Songkla in the South. These two DPW’s centres adopt standard programmes and practices similar to those described for the Northern Centre in Lampang: providing standard six-month and short-term 1-2 months vocational training programmes in traditionally female dominated skills and comprehensive life skills free-of-charge to disadvantaged groups of young girls and women.

Established in 1988, the Nontaburi Centre is the second largest centre after the Lampang Centre in terms of training capacity. In 2001, the centre had 56 staff members: 15 officials with civil servant status, 38 permanent employees, 2 temporary employees, and one printing official. The Nontaburi Centre has provided vocational skill training in its standard programmes to about 1,000-1,200 (largely female) trainees per year since 1995 (see Table 3.2).

Like other agencies under the MOLSW departments, the DPW’s Nontaburi Centre was given ministerial policy directives to adopt poverty alleviation measures following widespread unemployment as a result of the 1997 economic downturn. In addition to disadvantaged young girls and women, especially those at risk of prostitution, the centre expanded its target groups to include the unemployed and increased provision of services to women in rural communities. Targeted and short-term vocational training services through mobile units were introduced and expanded substantial to more rural villages from 1997. The poverty alleviation initiatives were backed by substance budget increase for the 1997 fiscal year, from 7.8 million in 1996 to 13.3 million in 1997.<sup>14</sup>

Compared with other training sites studied in this project, with the exception of the DSD’s good practice, the Chiang Mai Women’s Friendly Centre, the DPW’s Nontaburi Centre seems to have a more systematic information management system. Under the training and vocational training division, the Nontaburi Centre has four units: (1) vocational training, (2) registration and statistics, (3) examination and assessment, and (4) non-formal education. The centre compiles detailed statistics of trainees disaggregated by age, sex, education, place of origin, etc. The data are compiled for all programmes and activities carried out by the centre. Rates of completion have been recorded and tracing of graduates has been attempted. However, data about graduates are collected up to only 6 months through surveys and questionnaires. Rates of response from graduates have been at 50-60 per cent.

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<sup>14</sup> Excluding personnel salaries and transportation costs. The annual budget returned to former levels in 1998 and 1999 (at 8.5 and 9.6 million respectively).

From the statistics presented by the centre, in the fiscal year 1999 the centre recorded 1,470 trainees in the standard 6-month and short-term vocational training programmes.<sup>15</sup> In the same year, an additional of 578 persons received vocational training services in special programmes, including 82 in the unemployment alleviation programme in the rural areas, eight in the vocational training programme for the unemployed and 488 by vocational training mobile units.

It should be noted that vocational training services provided by the Nontaburi through the standard 6-month and short-term (1-2 month or 50-200 hours) programmes typically serve up to 1,000 trainees per year. In contrast, targeted training services such as services provided in rural communities through mobile units tend to be piecemeal. For instance, the 488 trainees, largely female, receiving training through mobile units received the total of 18 sessions of training, each session lasting one day (or at a frequency of 1 and a half day per month). In 2000, the mobile units targeted 700 prospective trainees as recipients of 36 training sessions, given 3 times a month.

The Songkla Centre has followed similar vocational training practices to those in other DPW's centres, e.g., 6-month standard in-house training and 1-3 month training both in-house and in local communities. In terms of promotion of women's participation, it implemented special measures to promote equal access to training to women and the disadvantaged in the 14 southern provinces, by sending mobile units to provide training for poor village women in Saba-Yoy in Songkla and targeting the HIV-positive group in Ranoad District in Songkla Province. While this measure has improved skills and generated income for some groups, there remain some obstacles: the training centre or chosen locations for training in the villages are far and some trainees feel that travel to the centre is inconvenient and even unsafe.

Because the southern part of Thailand is primarily Muslim and has connections with Malaysia and other Muslim nations in the region, headscarf sewing proves to be a productive and profitable industry since Muslim headscarves are in demand in Malaysian markets. Dressmaking skills are also thought to be in high demand, especially in Brunei, where as many as 3,000 dressmakers were needed, according to a source at the Songkla site. Other skills that are expected to be in high demands in the South and especially for foreign markets (Malaysia and Singapore) include traditional Thai massage, elderly care in residential homes and in hospitals.

#### **4.1.4 Cultural-specific Practices**

##### DSD's Naratiwas Skill Development Centre

Established in 1992, the Naratiwas Skill Development Centre is a provincial centre primarily responsible for providing training services in Naratiwas Province. In 2001, the Naratiwas Centre was staffed by 12 officials and 12 permanent employees. It provides standard pre-employment and skill-upgrading training and skill-testing programme. In the pre-employment programme, trainees can obtain 4-12 months training, including 1-2 months in-plant training. The centre also provides 2-4 months of training to special target groups such as prisoners, conscripted soldiers and youths in the remote or security-sensitive areas. Training courses in the skill-upgrading programmes are generally 30-90 hours.

Naratiwas is one of Thailand's four southern provinces with a largely Muslim population and is geographically connected to Malaysia. Over 90 per cent of the population in Naratiwas's 13 districts are Muslim and the main language is *Yawi* – not Thai. The majority of the population lives in remote

<sup>15</sup> This number exceeds the 1999 figure reported by the Department of Public Welfare, as shown in Table 3.2.

areas. The Muslim culture is different from the mainstream, Buddhist Thai culture in that Muslim women are largely confined to playing the role of family caretakers and have more limited roles in the public, considered the male domain. In other words, Muslim women are less active outside their home than most non-Muslim Thai women. Modesty is of importance for Muslims, particularly for women, and this is reflected in the dress code (little exposure of bare skin for women) and in the way male and female relations are strictly defined (strictly segregated). As a result, sex segregation in vocational training is more heavily emphasized in the Muslim-dominated area like Naratiwas, where women prefer home-based skill training such as sewing, dressmaking and batik making, while men prefer technical skills such as engine repairing, electronics, constructing, and welding.

Like other DSD's training sites, the Naratiwas Centre follows the standard training curricula that are heavily male-oriented. Three out of 18 training courses are traditionally female-oriented skills (dressmaking, industrial sewing and batik making). Measures adopted by the Naratiwas Centre to promote equal access to training among men and women are 1) giving opportunities to both sexes to participate in all training programmes, 2) providing separate bathrooms for men and women, 3) teachers adopting a proactive role in preventing relationships of a sexual nature among trainees, and 4) providing additional training to both male and female trainers on social issues, including drugs, and HIV/AIDS. However, in practice training is almost completely segregated due to religious beliefs and traditional views towards gender roles in the Muslim communities. Not only do men and women still receive training in complete physical segregation, they also prefer different types of skills: sewing for women and motorcycle repairing for men. In terms of expanding services to the disadvantaged groups, the Naratiwas Centre defines the "disadvantaged" groups as the disabled, the poor, and women without income. The centre has provided motorcycle repairing and batik making skill training to men and women among these groups.

It must be noted that despite the religious views towards gender roles and strict sex segregation in the Muslim communities, the participation rate of women in the Naratiwas Centre has been higher than in other non-Muslim sites. In 2001, women made up almost half (208 of 461 or 45%) of all trainees in the pre-employment programme, although they participated in only dressmaking and industrial sewing, whereas men were spread across eight other industrial training courses. There were no men in the two courses where women attended. Even more women participated in the skill-upgrading programme: exactly half (513 of 1024) took part in several skill-upgrading courses. As many as 70 per cent took computer programming courses, while the rest spread across courses such as dressmaking, Thai cooking, mirror art design, and batik making. The majority of men (68%) also took the computer programming course and the rest spread across all other courses including those preferred by women as mentioned.

As a result of special job creation measures employed by the Government following the 1997 crisis, the Naratiwas Centre was able to train as many as 2,954 in the pre-employment programme and 4,859 in the skill-upgrading programme in 1998 and 2,255 and 2,455 in the pre-employment and skill-upgrading programmes respectively in 1999. In 2000, the centre provided training to only 423 in the pre-employment programme, 1,646 in the skill-upgrading programme, and 425 under the World Bank-funded poverty alleviation programme. The figures decreased further in 2001, and came closer to the pre-1997 level, to 461 in the pre-employment programme and 1024 in the skill-upgrading programme. The rises and falls of number of trainees are reflected in the sizes of budget for the centre during the period as follows (in million baht): 5.5 in 1996, 10.3 in 1997, 11.8 in 1998, 14.8 in 1999, 11.2 in 2000, and 7.6 in 2001 (Naratiwas Skill Development Centre, 2001, 15 September).

For 1998, the Naratiwas Centre reported training 179 children aged 13-15 under a disadvantaged children development programme. However, there were no reports of children trainees for the subsequent years. In addition to providing vocational training, this centre has also provided other social training to trainees, particularly HIV/AIDS and drug prevention. The Naratiwas Centre considers some of its community-based training programmes successful, particularly the sewing group in Kubu Village, 20 meters outside of Naratiwas city centre. The Kubu Village industrial sewing group created jobs and income among women in the village, starting with 25 women receiving training from the centre in 1996. The products of this home-based sewing group earned a reputation for quality from neighbouring provinces and neighbouring countries. Similarly a home-based sewing group in Cho-rae Village and a batik-making group in Sa-kor Village have also created income for women, who turned to sewing headscarves and traditional dresses for Muslim women, sewing school uniforms, and machine embroidery. Income generated from these industrial-based activities has substituted for dwindled income from the villagers' traditional farming and fishing jobs and has also boosted the income-earning capacity of women in the area. Nonetheless, cultural values prevent Muslim women from earning income outside their home. Strict dress codes for women (long dress with maximum coverage of skin) are considered to make Muslim women "unsuitable" for working in industrial work places and it was reported that many employers in this region prefer men as industrial workers anyhow. In contrast, in neighbouring Malaysia, where the same values prevail, women make up the majority of the workforce in the electronics and textile factories. As a result, most Muslim women who have received training work at home, individually or in a group, as sub-contracted or own account workers, earning income on a piece-work basis.

#### DPW's Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre

The Mae Hong Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre is a relatively old institute, established in 1964. As an agency under the DPW, the centre aims to provide welfare services to hill tribe communities under its responsibility. Employment creation and vocational skill training form part of its wide-ranging social welfare services and development activities.

Despite its small administrative headquarter located in Mae Sariang District in Mae Hong Son, the centre has a large number of staff whose work involves conducting activities with hill tribe communities in remote villages in the mountainous areas of Mae Hong Son. The total of 160 staff members comprise 42 government officials, 62 permanent employees and 56 temporary employees, who serve approximately 33,000 members of five hill tribes in 162 villages. The Karen ethnic group makes up the majority of the hill tribe communities, which also comprise Lahu, Hmong, Lua, and Lisu. Currently, the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Centre reached only about one-thirds of the total hill tribe ethnic population under its coverage.

The work of the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Centre is wide-ranging, corresponding to important concerns among its target groups, which range from inadequate supplies of food and water, health, illiteracy, transportation, to drug dealing and addiction, HIV/AIDS epidemic, exploitation of hill tribe women, unemployment, and lack of agricultural productivity (DPW, Hill tribe Welfare and Development Centre, Mae Hong Son, 2000). Two types of development work carried out by the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Centre are social development and vocational training, also known as economic development. The centre liaises between governmental agencies and the target groups in areas such as education, health and environment. It helps provide pre-primary school education to children, and information concerning HIV/AIDS and drugs.

Historically, the centre has provided guidance to hill tribe villagers in growing crops in order to draw them away from engaging in opium plantation. In addition to technological consultation, assistance in money and in kind (e.g., plant seeds and fertilizers) are provided to the hill tribe villagers, who have been advised to grow alternative crops suitable for the high altitude of Mae Hong Son and other areas where they live – crops such as lychee, mangoes, jackfruits, red beans, as well as tarots, ginger, and coffee, etc. The centre also provides knowledge about marketing (e.g., selecting seasonal crops and finding a market).

In 2001 the centre continued to provide agricultural training activities to its target groups in its coverage, but it had no non-agricultural vocational training activities. In 2000, the centre proposed a 12.5 million baht (US\$ 337,837 at 37 baht per US\$ 1) budget but only 62.5 per cent (7.6 million baht) was approved largely for social development programmes and agricultural training. The centre's 3.3 million baht budget proposal for non-agricultural vocational training programmes was not approved. Yet, the centre organized one, very small, non-agricultural vocational training programme in 2000 with only 18,000 baht (US\$ 486) total budget under the Community Building and Drug Prevention Programme. The programme provided training in bamboo weaving, broom making, and cloth weaving to 75 people. In the past, part of the funding to the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Centre for vocational training activities was used to enroll hill tribe people in vocational training by other agencies, primarily the DSD's Lampang Institute and the DPW's welfare centre in Mae Hong Son. The centre continued to receive no funding for non-agricultural training services in 2001.

Considering that training agencies in other regions continued to receive funding, although in some cases budgets were cut, the budget cut for the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Centre suggests that vocational skill training not related to agriculture for hill tribe minorities is not a priority for the Thai Government. The Director of the centre explained that at the policy level the hill tribes are classified as among the least important of the "disadvantaged" after children, women, the disabled, and the elderly and as a result were often the last to get funding. The Director cited three major problems that concern non-agricultural skill training for the hill tribe communities:

(1) The hill tribes are primarily involved in agriculture (rice and crops farming and animal husbandry). Therefore they will only be interested in learning non-agricultural skills in the non-agricultural season and see the skills to be supplemental, consequently;

(2) If the skill training is not related to upgrading their traditional skills, they are less likely to be interested in developing them to the point that the skills will be usable and useful in generating additional income; and

(3) The products they make often lack consistency of standards required for commercial markets. Therefore, they are unable to compete with the lowlanders.

## **4.2 Training Premises**

### **4.2.1 General Observations**

#### Physical training structures

Generally, from field observations at the main campus of each of the participating training institutions, the training facilities in both DSD and DPW systems meet minimum requirements. For example, all have solid and secure buildings and roof structures; there is sufficient seating in terms of

number of chairs and sufficient work space, as well as adequate air circulation and lighting. Some training institutions have newer structures than others such as the DSD's Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre where all buildings were built during 1998-1999, and the facilities were in superb condition. Other institutions have older building, for instance 25-year-old buildings in the case of the DSD's Lampang Skill Development Institute. Largely the DPW's training centres are many years old but are better maintained compared with those of the DSD.

One observation at many training sites concerns the issue of safety. Many sites had on-going construction and in several instances, safety precaution seemed lacking. For instance, there was inadequate safety protection for trainees, especially when construction was going on inside or near the training workshops. The construction areas should have been blocked away or at least properly demarcated.

#### Accessibility

The training campuses are on average accessible for trainees in the local areas by personal or public transportation. Travel time to most training sites ranges from five-ten minutes on foot for residents living in the same neighborhood to up to 30 minutes to an hour for local residents living in the vicinity by motorcycles and bicycles or by local buses. The situation is different for the DPW's Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Development Centre, which serves hill tribe residents living in the mountainous areas. However, the Mae Hong Son Centre provides more training in communities than campus-based training. As a rule, trainees who live in remote locations stay in dormitories inside the campuses free of charge during the duration of training. Transportation problems were reported for the DPW's Songkla in the South, where the training is far from the community.

#### Dormitories and bathrooms

On-campus accommodations for male and female trainees vary among the sites visited. The Women's Friendly Centre in Chiang Mai has separate newly built dormitories for male and female trainees in equal capacity and in equally excellent condition. Other DSD's institutions tend to have accommodation more suitable for male trainees, although limited accommodation for women is available (usually smaller dormitories or small houses converted from trainers' housing facilities). In the case of the Lampang Institute, a modern female dormitory was built with a capacity of up to 100 but it has not been used to house female trainees. According to interviews with the Director and site officials, there were only a small number of female trainees, who are put in a few trainers' housing facilities. Male trainees, on the other hand, are housed in an extremely old building structure, which seriously needs maintenance. The DPW's welfare and vocational training centres for women generally do not provide on-campus housing for male trainees, except for the Lampang Centre.

The DPW's institutions have limited number of male bathrooms, while some DSD sites have an inadequate number of female bathrooms. The 3-4 bathrooms for women in each of the workshops at the DSD's Lampang Institute were converted from originally male bathrooms, with male urine equipments still standing, or sub-divided from the male bathrooms with a not so unclear view between the male and female bathrooms. In addition, location of female bathrooms in some DSD's sites is problematic (including Chiang Mai, the DSD's good practice centre, where female bathrooms are located too close to the workshops heavily attended by men and in the path of high traffic. Female trainees in the focus group complained of having to walk past the men's section in the shared bathroom. Bathroom cleanliness is a concern in some DSD's sites, particularly at the Lampang Institute. Only the DSD's Nakorn Ratchasima Institute has two bathrooms designed for the disabled.



### Training equipment

Most institutions have minimum training equipment, although the slow processing of equipment procurement tends to be a problem across the DSD institutions. As for the DPW institutions, equipment tends to be in comparison old and out-dated. Training materials are provided free of charge to trainees but tend to be limited in quantity. In many cases, trainees reported having to buy their own raw materials.

DPW institutions tend to be much smaller and better maintained than those of DSD, while the latter have more modern equipment in larger quantities. The equipment in the DPW Songkla Centre is particularly old and out-of-date. This reflects the different nature of the two departmental mandates mentioned above, i.e., simply put, the DSD is in the business of training, while the DPW is not. The DPW provides minimum equipment and training materials to trainees to meet basic requirements for elementary skill training provided as part – albeit a principal part – of the package of other social services. On the other hand, DSD institutions operate primarily as a place to provide training services and provide little or no other social welfare services. DSD institutions in general have professional-standard or near professional-standard training equipment.

The ADB loans have enabled the MOLSW to provide new and expensive equipment to a number of DSD training centres and institutes. Nonetheless, due to bureaucratic red tape, a large amount of equipment was kept locked away in air-conditioned storage or in the training workshops, waiting to be inspected by officials from Bangkok, hence could not be used for several months.

### Child care services

No training sites visited provide childcare services.

### Cultural considerations

As a rule, male and female trainees train in a co-ed environment with strict dormitory visitation rules (no visitors of opposite sex allowed). However, male and female trainees socially mingle. Sex segregation during training is only practiced in the two southern training centres in Naratiwas and Songkla, which serve largely Muslim communities.

Table 4.2 summarizes the training facilities of all eight sites reviewed.

Table 4.2 Training facilities assessment

Facilities	DSD				DPW			
	CM	LP	NKM	NRW	LP	MHS *	NTB	SKL
Training building structure	4	2	3	3	3	N/A	3	3
Sufficient capacity	4	3	3	3	4	N/A	3	3
Adequate lighting	4	3	3	3	4	N/A	3	3
Air circulation & quality	4	1	2	3	3	N/A	3	1
Adequate equipment	3	2	2	1	3	N/A	3	1
Up-to-date equipment	4	4	3	1	4	N/A	3	1
Adequate training materials	4	3	3	3	3	N/A	3	3
Separate m/f bathrooms	3	2	3	3	4	0	3	3
Privacy for female bathrooms	2	2	3	3	4	N/A	4	3
Male dormitories	4	1	2	2	3	0	0	0
Female dormitories	4	2	2	2	3	2	3	2
Privacy for female dormitories	4	3	2	3	4	2	3	3
Childcare services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Notes: CM = Chiang Mai LP = Lampang MHS = Mae Hong Son NKM = Nakorn Ratchasima NRW = Naratiwas  
NTB = Nontaburi SKL = Songkla

0 = not available 1 = poor 2 = adequate 3 = good 4 = excellent

\* There were no training activities in Mae Hong Son in 2001.

### 4.2.2 *Specific Observations*

#### DSD's Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre

Having been newly constructed, the Chiang Mai WFC has comfortable, modern buildings and superb equipment. The equipment for restaurant and hotel services is of professional quality – comparable to those actually used in many business-class restaurants and hotels. Some facilities, such as computer rooms, were also used by local schools or community groups. It provides separate male and female bathrooms but there is little privacy from the perspective of female trainees, in that the bathrooms are very close together and also very near the workshops. There are no rest areas, except for the cafeteria, which is far from several workshops, and which is open only during given hours for different groups of trainees. As a result, trainees tend to gather in front of the bathrooms before and after training periods.

#### DSD's Lampang Skill Development Institute

The Lampang Skill Development Institute needs to move male trainees to a new dormitory as the present one is very old and seriously requires maintenance. The poorly maintained conditions of the building and facilities may present a safety hazard for resident trainees. A new dormitory building was built for female trainees but was used to provide accommodation to guests instead. The reason given was that the dormitory, although nearby, was located outside of the campus presenting security concerns for its residents. The officials at the Lampang Institute reported that male trainees might be moved into the new building some time in 2002.

Lack of safety precaution during training was observed during the site visits, e.g., trainees were not wearing safety goggles in the workshops. When asked in the focus groups, trainees reported available goggles were old and had too many scratch marks, making it hard to see. They also reported that trainers were aware of the lack of safety equipment but equipment and materials were often slow-coming. In addition, the ceramics workshop was located in the same building with heavy mechanic workshop. As a result, there were high levels of noise and dust.

#### DPW's Lampang and Nontaburi Vocational Training and Welfare Centres for Women

The DPW's Lampang site, although 25 years old, was very well maintained and exuded a very pleasant atmosphere. Facilities were adequate, clean and comfortable. There are additional facilities for trainees, e.g., a library, although library materials were largely old and out-dated, but still well-kept, a computer room, and a clinic with two trainers on night shift.

A large part of the equipment was very modern and up-to-date, particularly equipment for hotel service and industrial sewing courses. A building for traditional Thai cooking was near professional. Training equipment for the few traditionally male-oriented courses (e.g., motorcycle repairing) is old and lacking. However, due to high interest in sewing courses, there were more trainees than sewing machines, in which case trainees shared equipment. The Nontaburi Centre has smaller physical facilities located in the outskirts of Bangkok. It has similarly well-maintained facilities, but is somewhat lacking in terms of up-to-date equipment.

#### DPW Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre

Unlike most training sites, Mae Hong Son Centre has only the bare minimum of training facilities. This is understandable because the centre provides largely community-based training and the site is used as the administrative center. When training was provided inside the center, trainees used three basic buildings (one with only roof and walls, with open space inside) for training.

The centre has not operated any on-campus non-agricultural training since 2000, therefore the three training houses inside the centre were left idle and were closed. Parts of the training areas were being used for storage at the visit. Equipment, such as weaving equipment was stored in a different location. There were no chairs for seating. While training was in operation (last in 1999) open training spaces were used for training activities such as weaving; trainees sat on the floor. Trainees had access to only two traditional bathrooms in the centre, which were not separated for men and women. The centre does not have dormitories for trainees and has used the second story of a building used for training to accommodate trainees who could not travel to and from the training centre within one day. The second story has six beds and was used in the past to accommodate as many as twenty people.

A visit to training sites in a village up on the mountain revealed a similar lack of activities. The two buildings used for training villagers (one is a model traditional Karen house and the other is a small, one-story concrete structure) were left idle and dusty. These are part of a small compound located near a Karen village. The compound was constructed to display and sell local cultural artifacts and house cultural activities as part of a plan to draw tourists to the village. The plan did not seem to work, because, according to the officials from the centre, the project could not be sustained and maintained due to lack of serious interest from the local residents (who were also busy with their agricultural activities) and there were too few tourists.

### 4.3 Trainers

#### 4.3.1 Trainers' Demographic Profile

A total of thirty-two (32) trainers, four from each training institution, were interviewed for this research. Of the 32 trainers, 17 were men and 15 were women. The age range of the trainers was from 22 to 72 years old, with an average age of 36. Table 4.3 gives a breakdown of the courses taught by interviewed trainers by sex.

Table 4.3 Courses taught by male and female trainers interviewed

Training Courses	Course Duration	Sex		Total
		Female	Male	
<u>Industrial &amp; Automotive Skills Cluster</u>				
Car Repairing	10 months		2	2
Motorcycle Repairing	4-6 months		3	3
Welding & Sheet Metal	4 months		2	2
<u>Industrial Art &amp; Handicraft Skills Cluster</u>				
Bamboo Weaving	4 months		1	1
Basic Dressmaking	3-6 months	7	1	8
Ceramics	6 months	1		1
Cloth Design & Dressmaking	30 months	2		2
Cloth Weaving	4 months	2		2
Industrial Sewing	4 months	1		1
<u>Service Skills Cluster</u>				
Barber	6 months	1	1	2
Computer	30 hours	1	2	3
Electronics	6 months		1	1
Electronics & Computer	10 months		1	1
Hotel Services	6 months	1	1	2
Restaurant Service	3 months		1	1
Thai Cooking	2-3 months	2		2
<b>Total</b>		<b>17</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>32</b>

Training courses are grouped in three skills clusters: industrial and automotive; industrial art and handicraft; and services. It is clear that male trainers are concentrated in the industrial and automotive skills cluster (car and motorcycle repairing and welding and sheet metal), and female trainers are concentrated in the industrial art and handicraft skills cluster (bamboo weaving, ceramics, dressmaking and cloth design, cloth weaving, and industrial sewing).

It should be noted that although there seems to be more or less an equal representation of both sexes in terms of number in the service skills cluster (barber, computer and electronics, restaurant services, hotel services, and cooking), there remains a gender division in some respect. That is, of the five computer and electronics skill trainers there were four males and only one female.

Table 4.4 summarizes the breakdown of trainers by sex in training courses being taught by them. Table 4.4 shows that no female trainers were teaching male-dominated courses or courses where less than 50 per cent of trainees were female. However, half of the male trainers interviewed were teaching courses with medium or high numbers of female trainees. As Table 4.3 indicates, these courses are in the service skills cluster.

Table 4.4 Trainers and levels of women's participation in their training courses

Women's Participation	Sex		Total (%)
	Female (%)	Male (%)	
Little or no women's participation (below 25%)	0.0	53.3	25.0
Some women's participation (26-50%)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Greater women's participation (51-75%)	17.6	20.0	18.8
Heavy women's participation (76-100%)	82.4	26.7	56.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The employment status of interviewed trainers varied. Only one-fourth were government officials enjoying full government benefits. On the other hand, almost half (47%) were permanent employees with limited benefits, and fewer than one-third (28%) were temporary employees with no benefits.

It should be pointed out that there is a gender difference in employment status among the trainers interviewed (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Employment status of trainers by sex

Employment status	Sex				Total	(%)
	Female	(%)	Male	(%)		
Government official	3	17.6	5	33.3	8	25.0
Permanent employee	7	41.2	8	53.3	15	46.9
Temporary employee	7	41.2	2	13.3	9	28.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>100.0</b>

More male trainers had more secure positions with 33.3 per cent being government officials, compared with only 17.6 per cent among their female counterparts. More than half of the men have attained the permanent employee status, while 41.2 per cent of the women were permanent employees. In contrast, only 13.3 per cent of the men were temporary employees as compared to 41.2 per cent of the women, meaning they were hired on a contract basis and were paid by course, enjoying no benefits.

The gender difference in status of trainers exists despite little gender differences in terms of years of experience of trainers of the two sexes. The number of years of working experience as vocational trainer of the sample ranges from 1.5 to 20 years, with 7.7 years average. The majority of both male and female trainers had experience between 5 to 10 years. Two men and two women had more than 15 years of experience.

When looking at the number of years the trainers have been working in their current respective institution, a slight gender difference was found, although still insufficient to explain the stark difference in their employment status. About half (52.94%) of female trainers worked in the current institution for over five years, compared with two-thirds (66.67%) of their male counterparts. Roughly one-quarter of both had worked at least 10 years in the institution.

Again, when looking at the level of education of trainers, the gender difference is minimal (see Table 4.6). About two-thirds of both male (66.7%) and female (64.7%) trainers had at least a higher vocational certificate (equivalent to two years of college). In fact, a greater percentage of female trainers (47.1%) as opposed to 33.3 per cent of male trainers had a bachelor degree or higher. There is a slight difference, however, at the lower level of education. More female trainers (23.5%) had lower secondary school education or less, compared with only 6.7 per cent of male trainers.

Table 4.6 Trainers' educational attainment by sex

Education	Sex				Total	(%)
	Female	(%)	Male	(%)		
Primary	1	5.9	1	6.7	2	6.3
Lower Secondary	3	17.6	0	0	3	9.4
Upper Secondary or Lower Vocational	2	11.8	4	26.7	6	18.8
Higher Vocational	3	17.6	5	33.3	8	25.0
Bachelor or higher	8	47.1	5	33.3	13	40.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The level of education and gender differences in employment status of trainers can be partly explained by the observation that the female trainers with higher level of education tend to be young with fewer years of experience, while male trainers with a higher level of education tend to be those with more experience. This fact may also contribute to the male trainers having attained a more secure employment status. In addition, those female trainers with lower levels of education were women with recognized skills within the local community who did not have sufficient academic credentials to become permanent employees. Therefore, they were hired as temporary employees on a contract basis. The class sizes of courses taught by this group of trainers range from 5 to 54 trainees, with an average of 26 trainees per class. There is no gender difference in terms of class sizes of trainers.

### **4.3.2 Attitudes of Trainers on Women and Men, and Their Perceptions on Hill Tribe Trainees in Employment and Skill Training**

#### Trainers' assessment of training performance of male and female trainees

By and large, the age of trainees was more often cited as a factor in performance than their sex. Many trainers said older trainees (20 or older) were more serious and more responsible, whereas young trainees were immature, tended to have less specific goals in their lives, and as a result were not so focused. Some trainers believe that female trainees are usually more responsible about training and more conscientious, although some male trainers point out that female trainees are “slower” in learning than male trainees when it comes to practical performance. Several male trainers who teach in the mechanical and industrial skill areas think that female trainees have a better grasp of theories than male, but fall a little short and learn more slowly in practice.

The difference in assessment of trainees' performance was perceived among trainers in the North who had had hill tribe trainees, Lampang, Chiang Mai and Mae Hong Son. Generally, trainers cited language problems as the main barrier in the performance of hill tribe trainees, although this problem was not perceived to be a significant one. Most trainers who cited differences in characteristics between the highlanders (hill tribes) and the lowlanders (non-hill tribes) agreed that hill tribe trainees tended to be more serious and more hard-working. Some trainers explained that this should not be surprising because those hill tribe trainees who left home to come for vocational training were in general more focused about improving their lives. They knew that they were disadvantaged, economically and socially, so they were more determined than their lowland counterparts, more of whom came to receive training because they were sent by their parents and therefore were not so driven.

The language problem that exists seems to be cultural, reflecting a gap of cultural experience between the lowlanders and the highlanders, because with few exceptions, most hill tribe trainees, even in the remote areas, have gone through the formal school system where the standard Thai language is the official instructional language. Therefore, most hill tribe trainees, particularly those who graduated from Mor 3 (equivalent of Grade 9) understand standard Thai well. However, the standard Thai language is not spoken at home. In addition, although the lowlanders in the North also have their own variations of dialects, the dialects are much closer to the standard Thai language, than the hill tribe languages. Also, compared with the lowlanders, the hill tribe communities have limited access to mass media. As a result, they have less exposure and less practice. Some trainers cited the accents of hill tribe trainees as hard to understand, while others said they had no problem with the accents.

The language barrier becomes more pronounced in training for hill tribe trainees when it comes to knowing names of equipment and materials unknown to them and how to use them in training, while these were familiar items for their lowland counterparts. For example, some hill tribe trainees had not used irons or sewing machines before, or have not seen or heard of certain food items or utensils in a cooking class. Some trainers said that this made them learn at a slower speed at first, but because they were generally very hard working, they were able to catch up with their peers. A female trainer teaching dressmaking in the DPW's Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Lampang described her hill tribe trainees as follows:

They do good work, but a bit slow. Here you have to turn in your work on time, so they're sometimes frustrated.... So, you have to give them a little more time and give them a little more attention.... Yes, [on special cases]. Sometimes they turn work in late.... There will be some points deducted for that, [but] for exams, deadlines are absolute.... No, there's not much difference in points [because the hill tribe trainees] tend to turn in better work.... They are slow at first but once they get the idea, they work hard on improving their work and eventually can do just as well.... Some of them haven't seen an iron or a sewing machine before, so they're not familiar with these pieces of equipment. So, yes, they are at a disadvantage [in the beginning]. (Female trainer, the Northern Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women, Lampang)

### Stereotypes and values about gender roles

More than half of the trainers interviewed believed that men and women can do the same type of work. This is true particularly of trainers, regardless of their age, who taught service-oriented skills such as hotel and restaurant services, computer and electronics, Thai cooking, and among female trainers teaching traditionally female skills such as dressmaking, industrial sewing, cooking, etc. Nevertheless, despite this open attitude, there still exist traditional and stereotypical views towards gender roles among both male and female trainers. Virtually all male and female trainers believed that women can not perform as well as men when physical strength is required for the job. Women were also considered to be better in detail-oriented type of work. The trainers did not see any gender difference in the area of intellect.

Traditional values come into play in trainers' belief in gendered skill orientations: many trainers, particularly male, believed that women are the "sweet," "gentle," and "caring" sex. As a result, women are more suitable to working in fields considered to be non-physically strenuous, in which "female" meticulous and aesthetic tendencies are regarded as beneficial. The areas of work considered suitable for women cited by several male and female trainers are generally traditionally female-dominated areas where women's "nimble fingers" allow women to perform "better" than men such as handicrafts, sewing, and dressmaking. Many trainers, male and female alike, believe that men are more "naturally inclined" towards mechanical skills and they are more familiar with mechanical tools than women, resulting in the men being more fit for industrial and mechanical jobs. In addition, these jobs require physical strength considered lacking in women. All trainers agreed that women should be encouraged to learn more computer skills and believed that women can do as well or better in this area.

Stereotypical perceptions were also prevalent among trainers who explicitly did not condone gender discrimination in jobs. For instance, men were perceived to be more decisive and to have more leadership qualities than women. A young female trainer from a centre in the North, teaching Thai cooking, said that men and women could perform equally well in her course but there were differences in the characteristics of men and women and that as the job requires more responsibilities, it becomes harder for women.

Women work more slowly [because] they are overly concerned about little things. They have to know the exact measurement but the men just do it, so the men work faster. They are more decisive. They can lift heavy things. In this line of work, men do better. You can see most chefs are men because [chefs] also have to supervise. In more senior positions, men still have more leadership.... Yes, there are women chefs, but [there are] fewer [of them] because being a chef becomes a difficult job at one point, like when [women] get older, they start regressing. They have to change job or stop doing it all together.... I think, [men and women] have equal ability [as chefs], but women don't last in this line of work.... It's a tough job. Men can do better. You have to stand all day long [working as chefs].

.... After graduation, I think the chances of getting a job are equal for men and women. Anybody can be a chef assistant, but when you get to the supervisor level, men have a better chance. It could also be because women like to look pretty. It's dirty in the kitchen. (Female trainer, Thai cooking, Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre, Chiang Mai)

Most trainers were aware of the role of traditional values in vocational training, and how they affect trainees' choices. Although trainers also tended to subscribe to the traditional values themselves, they were largely open-minded about gender roles. Some trainers said trainees chose on their own to train in the area that was usually traditionally considered "appropriate" or "suitable" for their sex and they could not force trainees to choose what they did not like or thought suitable for them. (Interestingly, this view is echoed among directors of training institutions.) A male trainer teaching motorcycle repairing in the DPW's Lampang Centre said:

Women don't like to get dirty, and greasy from the oil, but they shouldn't be. [I think] when you get dirty, you can clean yourself up. Also, some work that's thought to be too tough [for women] may not really be so. They have to try. (Male trainer, motorcycle repairing, Northern Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women, Lampang)

Another male trainer teaching auto repairing in the DSD's Lampang Institute commented similarly that it may be true that heavy equipment makes it harder for women who have a smaller physical frame, but the fact that women are not generally interested in heavy industrial work, like auto mechanics, and do not have enough patience for it, is more a result of social values. He attested:

Women can work well [in auto mechanics], especially with the use of computers in designing work... I've been to other countries like Korea, where many women [work with heavy machines]. Why can they do it and Thai women can't? (Male trainer, car repairing, Northern Skill Development Institute, Lampang)

Traditional views towards women were more pronounced among ethnic hill tribe and Muslim communities – the views that are more limiting for women. For instance, women in Muslim communities are expected to be primarily involved in the private (family) sphere, rather than being active outside of their home. Meanwhile, hill tribe women in general, as in the surveyed Karen communities in Mae Hong Son, are subject to more traditional beliefs. One example is that women should not be in a higher physical place than men (for example, women should not go up on the roof, or climb up high places), otherwise, it is believed, the crops will not do well.

#### Efforts to encourage women's equal participation in training

Most trainers reported that they did not discriminate for or against women or any particular groups. However, there may be some special treatments for hill tribe trainees as mentioned above due to language barrier. The majority of trainers employed a standard group work strategy to encourage integration and cooperation among trainees of different ages and ethnic backgrounds. They considered this group work strategy appropriate and believed that it has worked well.

#### Harassment issues

Besides "usual," non-sexual teasing and joking around in class, the majority of trainers did not feel that sexual harassment or harassment of other kinds was an issue in their classes or in the training premises. They described the relations among trainees as "cordial," "friendly," and "family-like." In addition, strict codes of behaviors for trainees within the training premises were said to be very clear and an effective deterrent for any inappropriate behaviors.

Sexual harassment in general was therefore not a primary concern of trainers. A more important concern among trainers was rather drug abuse among trainees. Such concerns were expressed among some trainers at the DSD's institutions, and more strongly at the Lampang Skill Development Institute. According to one trainer:



Teachers could only help so much by talking to them, guiding them and pointing out the negative consequences of drugs. However, this problem [*yaa baa* or meta-amphetamine] is a problem of a national scale. We know some of our boys are falling victims to it, often as a result of associating with peers. Now, it's not just a problem for boys, the girls are doing it as well. (Male trainer, car repairing, Northern Skill Development Institute, Lampang)

#### Skills for women's future employment

Generally, considering the economic downturn, finding jobs in the formal sector would be more difficult than before. Trainers thought that women and men would do better to create jobs for themselves.

Many trainers thought that skills in sewing, dressmaking, food-preservation, cooking, and tourism-related services were good skills for women to acquire for employment in the next few years. Trainers in the northern region thought that sewing, restaurant and hotel services (commercial cooking, bartending, hotel maid) and traditional Thai massage would be skills that will generate good income because these skills are expected to be in demand.

Trainers in the Northeast thought industrial sewing and food preservation would be good for women, while in the southern Muslim areas, home-based sewing of Islamic women scarves were thought to be a good source of income for women. This is because there are high demands for scarves in Malaysia and Brunei. Batik making, traditional Thai massage and elderly care were also cited as good income earning skills in the South.

Elderly care was mentioned to be a job in high demand in all regions surveyed (North, Northeast and South), however few young women seem to be interested in this skill. Some trainers speculated that young women are not so interested in this line of job because being a care provider often requires home stay with employers and young women do not like to be confined.

## **4.4 Trainees**

### ***4.4.1 Trainees' Demographic Profile***

According to the research sampling design, 269 questionnaires filled out by trainees were selected for quantitative analysis. Of the total 269 trainees, 103 (38.3%) were male and 166 (61.7%) were female. Information gathered from 14 gender-specific focus groups conducted at seven training institutions contributed to more in-depth qualitative analysis. Personal data on participants in these groups were not included in the quantitative analysis in this report. Table 4.7 shows trainees by training institution and by sex.

Table 4.7 Breakdowns of trainees by training institution and by sex

Training Institution	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
<b>Department of Skill Development (DSD)</b>						
Chiang Mai Skill Development Centre	27	16.3	13	12.6	40	14.9
Lampang Skill Development Institute	-	-	29	28.2	29	10.8
Naratiwas Skill Development Centre	20	12.0	20	19.4	40	14.9
Nakorn Ratchasima Skill Development Institute	7	4.2	32	31.1	39	14.5
<b>Department of Public Welfare (DPW)</b>						
Lampang Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women	35	21.1	5	4.9	40	14.9
Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre*	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nontaburi Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women	39	23.5	1	1.0	40	14.9
Songkla Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women	38	22.9	3	2.9	41	15.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Note: \*No training activities in the year surveyed (2001)

The age range of trainees from both the questionnaire groups and the focus groups is from 13 to 50 years old. However, most trainees were young: 92.9 per cent were under 30 years old. The majority was youth: 86.2 per cent were under 25 years old and 68.8 per cent were under 20 years old. All trainees in the DSD system were fifteen or older, while a small minority of female trainees in some DPW's centres were under 15 years old.<sup>16</sup> This is because it is the DPW's policy to offer vocational training services to female prospective trainees aged 14-35. However, in practice the DPW's centres sometimes admit girls under 13-14 years old to their vocational training programmes under special circumstances. Most trainees (88.5%) were single. Only 9.7% were married and 1.8 per cent were divorced.

Most had little or no prior work experience, especially in the formal economy. Male trainees had had more work experience than female trainees. Sixteen and a half per cent (16.5%) of male trainees were also holding a job while receiving training, compared with 12.7 per cent of female trainees doing so, resulting in 14 per cent of total trainees working while receiving training. More than half (61.2%) of male trainees reported having worked before entering the training programme, as compared to 52.4 per cent of their female counterparts.

Those who have worked before tend to have worked in unskilled jobs, such as subsistence family farming, childcare, or as general hired labour. As Table 4.8 shows, a little over than half of those who have worked were general hired labour or employees of small businesses (convenience shops or factory workers) and the rest were family workers (in farming or small businesses).

<sup>16</sup> Due to inadequate statistics, it is difficult to give an exact percentage of children (young person under 15 years of age) in the DPW's training system. However, if the statistics collected by the Central Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Nontaburi can provide any indication, approximately 15 per cent of the DPW's vocational trainees are under 16 years old. The Nontaburi Centre compiled statistics of trainees in its standard training programme in 2-year age groups: 14.54 per cent, 16.81 per cent and 15.27 per cent were in the 14-15 age group in 1997, 1998 and 1999 respectively. It follows that up to 15 per cent were children 15 years or younger.

Table 4.8 Employment status of trainees

Employment Type	Number	Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Hired labour or employee	77	28.6	28.6
Family farming/family business	60	22.3	50.9
Hired labour/employee & family farming/family business	17	6.3	57.2
<i>Not working</i>	114	42.4	99.6
No answer	1	0.4	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

Those with comparatively higher education (high school or more) tended to have held an office job. This group (composed of both men and women) joined the vocational training programs to acquire additional skills, largely in computer, with an expectation that the added computer skills will enable them to find a better job (or advance from the current position).

Apart of the trainees' young age, the low level of education provides some explanation to their having been involved in largely unskilled work. As seen in Table 4.9 almost 80 per cent of trainees surveyed had lower secondary education (9 years of schooling) or less, with as much as 17.8 per cent with just primary education. A higher percentage of female trainees (79.5%) had lower secondary education or less, as compared to the male trainees (73.8%). An even higher percentage of female trainees had primary school education (22.3%), as compared to their male counterparts (10.7%). A higher percentage of men (21.4%) had upper secondary or lower vocational education (12 years of schooling) than women (15.7%). Only a very small percentage of men and women (5%) had tertiary education. More women had college education (4.2%) as compared to men (1.9%).

Table 4.9 Trainees' education by sex

Sex	Education											
	Primary		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary or Lower Vocational		Higher Vocational		Bachelor or higher		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
<b>Female</b>	37	22.3	95	57.2	26	15.7	1	0.6	7	4.2	166	100.0
<b>Male</b>	11	10.7	65	63.1	22	21.4	3	2.9	2	1.9	103	100.0
<b>Total</b>	48	17.8	160	59.5	48	17.8	4	1.5	9	3.3	269	100.0

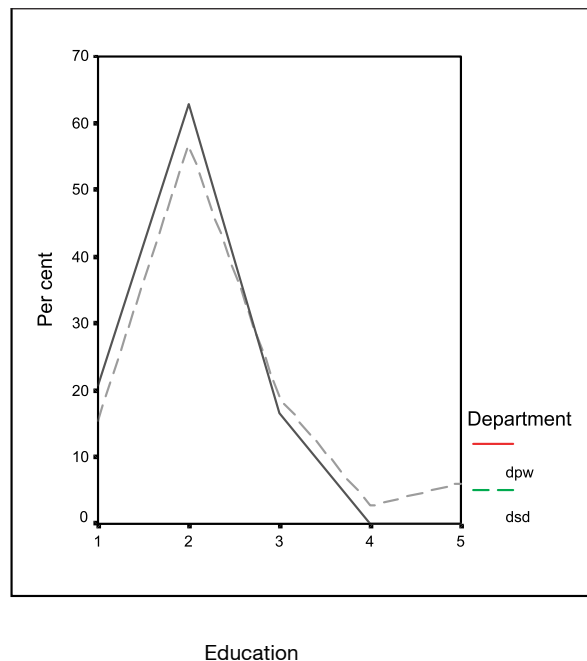
When considering regional differences, the figures suggest that trainees in the South had the lowest level of education, with as much as half of trainees having attained only primary education in Naratiwas and 29 per cent in Sonkla (see Table 4.10). This is perhaps due to cultural and religious reasons; the Muslim communities do not encourage women to be engaged in social activities where men and women mingle. Also, some Muslim parents prefer to have their children educated in Islamic schools. Almost one quarter of trainees in the DPW's Nontaburi Centre had primary education. Although there is no solid statistics to support this claim, this could be due to a high proportion of trainees coming from poor provinces, especially from the Northeast or Isan.

Table 4.10 Trainees' education by training institution

Training Institution		Education											
		Primary		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary or Lower Vocational		Higher Vocational		Bachelor or higher		Total	
Dept.	Institute/Centre	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
DSD	Chiang Mai	2	5.0	28	70.0	4	10.0	2	5.0	4	10.0	40	100.0
	Lampang	-	-	20	69.0	9	31.0	-	-	-	-	29	100.0
	Nakorn Ratchasima	1	2.6	22	56.4	11	28.2	2	5.1	3	7.7	39	100.0
	Naratiwas	20	50.0	14	35.0	4	10.0	-	-	2	5.0	40	100.0
DPW	Lampang	4	10.0	30	75.0	6	15.0	-	-	-	-	40	100.0
	Nontaburi	9	22.5	26	65.0	5	12.5	-	-	-	-	40	100.0
	Songkla	12	29.3	20	48.8	9	22.0	-	-	-	-	41	100.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>48</b>	<b>17.9</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>59.5</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>17.8</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.0</b>

There is a slight difference in the level of education of trainees between the DSD and DPW. Although the overwhelming majority of trainees in both training systems have primary to lower secondary education or equivalent, no trainees in the DPW system have education higher than upper secondary education whereas about 6 per cent of the DSD's trainees had at least a bachelor's degree (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1 Education of trainees in DSD and DPW institutions

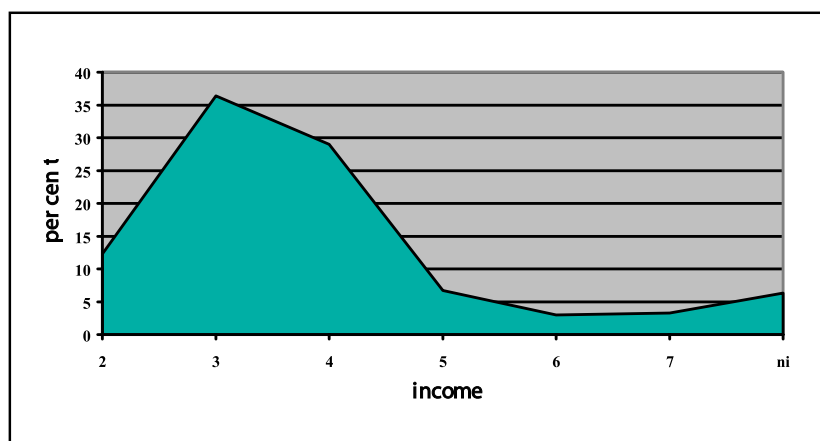


Notes: 1 = primary 2 = lower secondary 3 = upper secondary or lower vocational 4 = higher vocational (equivalent to Associate Degree) 5 = four-year university or higher

Source: Table 4.9

The low level of education of trainees in general is hardly surprising considering that the majority of their families are poor, with income less than 5,000 baht or a little over US\$ 100 per month (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Trainees' family income (per month)



Notes: unit = baht      1 = 0-500      2 = 501-1,000      3 = 1,001-3,000      4 = 3,001-5,000  
 ni = no answer      5 = 5,001-7,000      6 = 7,001-9,000      7 = over 9,000

By comparison, the DPW trainees' families were much poorer than the families of their DSD counterparts. The overwhelming majority of DPW trainees (86.8%) reported their family earning up to 500 baht or a little over US\$ 10 per month. This is below Thailand's official poverty line of 886 baht per month (1999 standard). Eighty-one per cent of DSD trainees reported theirs earning up to 3,000 baht or US\$ 66.67 a month (see Table 4.11). However, even the 3,000 baht per month income is still below the national minimum wage of at least 140 baht (US\$ 3.1) per day. The very low income of the trainees' families can be explained by the fact that about two-thirds of the DPW families and about half of the DSD families were engaged in farming or subsistence farming.

Table 4.11 Trainees' family income by department (per month)

Dept.	Family Income (per month)								Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	ni	
<b>DSD</b>	35 (23.6%)	44 (29.7%)	41 (27.7%)	10 (6.8%)	1 (0.7%)	-	3 (2.0%)	14 (9.5%)	148 (100.0%)
<b>DPW</b>	105 (86.8%)	3 (2.5%)	6 (5.0%)	5 (4.1%)	1 (0.8%)	-	-	1 (0.8%)	121 (100.0%)
<b>Total</b>	140 (52.0%)	47 (17.5%)	47 (17.5%)	15 (5.6%)	2 (5.6%)	-	3 (1.1%)	15 (5.6%)	269 (100.0%)

Notes: unit = baht      1 = 0-500      2 = 501-1,000      3 = 1,000 - 3,000      4 = 3,001-5,000  
 na = no answer      5 = 5,001-7,000      6 = 7,001-9,000      7 = over 9,000

Table 4.12 shows the relation between the trainees' work experience and the occupations of their parents. It is evident that there is a close link between the jobs that the parents do and the jobs done by this group of trainees. Half of their parents were reported to be farmers and 15-20 per cent general hired labour. Very few of the trainees' parents are civil servants (only 1.5% of fathers) or engaged in commerce (5.6% of fathers and 8.1% of mothers). Generally, civil servants and those engaged in commerce tend to have resources to keep their children in school past the compulsory level.

Table 4.12 Occupations of trainees' fathers and mothers

Occupation	Father		Mother	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Civil servant	4	1.5	-	-
Commerce	15	5.6	22	8.1
Dressmaking	-	-	5	1.9
Business employee	6	2.3	-	-
Farming	<b>141</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>138</b>	<b>51.3</b>
Farming & hired	5	1.9	9	3.4
Labour or pretty commerce				
Fishery	4	1.5	2	0.7
General hired labour	59	21.9	41	15.2
Homemaker	-	-	22	8.2
None or retired	6	2.2	14	5.2
Deceased	13	4.8	6	3.4
No answer	16	6.0	9	3.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.0</b>

#### 4.4.2 Trainees' Access to Training, Expectations of Benefits of Training Programmes and Future Plans

##### Access to training information and choice-making

Over half (56.5%) of 269 trainees – and more women (60.8%) than men (49.5%) – felt that it was easy for them to gain access to information about vocational skill training. Despite the difference in the perception of men and women about gaining access to training information, there are no significant differences between the information channels used by male and female trainees. Table 4.13 shows that the majority (82%) of trainees knew about the training services through their families and friends, with families being the most important source of information (60%). Other sources of information played a secondary role, including government agencies (16.%), media (16%), training centres' officials (11%), and local schools (8%).

Table 4.13 Information channels to training used by trainees

Channel	Number	% of total (269) trainees
Family members	161	59.85
Friends and neighbors	62	23.05
Governmental agencies (provincial, district, sub-district, village)	44	16.36
Media (television, radio, newspaper, Internet)	43	15.99
Training centre's officials	30	11.15
Schools	22	8.18
Others	1	0.37
No answer	1	0.37
<b>Total count</b>	<b>364</b>	<b>135.32*</b>

Note: \*Trainees were able to choose more than one option.

Focus group discussion confirmed the importance of the networks of family and friends in dissemination of information about vocational training. The majority of trainees in the focus groups already knew somebody – most often their relatives or friends – who had attended the training themselves or who had received information about the training. While all the information channels listed in Table 4.13 played a variable role providing information access to prospective trainees, it is obvious from the questionnaire results as well as from the focus groups, that family and friends were the most important sources of their information and played an important role in trainees' decision making about what courses to choose.

Trainees from several provinces, particularly rural and remote provinces, felt that information about training services and the training centre/institute was not readily available to them. Some said that, had they not had friends and family who gave them information, they would not have known about the availability of vocational training services. Some complained that they tried to get information from provincial vocational training centres, but officers were not very informative and helpful. Mass media, including radio, television and newspapers, were a minor but significant, and often the only, source of information about training services for some trainees. Many trainees just out of secondary school were informed about vocational training by the school career counselor or their teachers. Most trainees from the focus groups said that they made their own choices about the courses, but considered recommendations from family, friends, and from the orientation at the beginning of the training course typically provided by training sites.

#### Expectations of benefits from training programmes

By and large the primary reason for trainees to obtain vocational skill training is to get a job (90%). However, almost one-third of all trainees also expected to have social benefits of living with others (see Table 4.14).

Table 4.14 Expectations of training benefits by trainees

Expectations	Number	% of total
To get job	171	63.6
To get job and benefits of living with others	71	26.4
To get job and opportunity for education	3	1.05
To get job promotion	8	3.0
To get skills for supplemental careers	5	1.9
To learn and get benefits of living with others	8	3.0
No answer	3	1.05
<b>Total</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.00</b>

#### Future plans for employment and skill training

Around two-thirds of male and female trainees wanted additional training after completing current training courses (see Table 4.15.) A number of trainees thought that the training duration (2-6 months) was too short to provide them with adequate skills to obtain jobs.

Table 4.15 Trainees' needs for additional training

Need more training?	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Yes	110	66.3	66	64.1	176	65.4
No	55	33.1	34	33.0	89	33.1
No answer	1	0.6	3	2.9	4	1.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Male trainees in the DSD's training institutions tended to want additional training in computer and car or motorcycle repairing, while some female trainees expressed interest in computer training. Generally trainees would like to have additional training that complements their current skill training. For example, those taking computer technician courses would like to take electronics courses to widen and to strengthen their skills, and vice versa.

A number of female trainees in the DPW's institutions who were training in basic dressmaking would like to continue with advanced dressmaking (including fashion design) in order to make sure they could acquire adequate skills required to work as an employee of a dressmaking boutique, or to start a small business at home.

At the DPW's Northern Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Lampang, young trainees (17 years or younger) expressed concerns about not being of legal age to work. They saw a prospect of unemployment upon graduating from their training courses. In fact, both the DSD's and the DPW's training institutions allowed young trainees to continue training in other programmes even if they had completed more than one or even a few courses. The DPW's institutions in particular have accommodated several young trainees who need training until they come of legal age to work. Therefore, it can be surmised that young trainees are more likely to want additional training to complement or advance their skills and educational credentials. Many trainees surveyed, both male and female, concurrently took non-formal education courses towards upper secondary school diploma.



Upon completion of the training programmes, the majority of the trainees aimed to find employment (see Table 4.16). Almost half (46.8%) had a clear goal to become employees or to set up small business (16.4%), while about 11 per cent wanted to pursue higher education. About 15 per cent were not set on one particular path and wanted to do whatever possible, i.e., to be hired as employees, to have own business or to study.

Table 4.16 Job goals of trainees

Job Goal	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
To be hired as employee	61	36.7	65	63.1	126	46.8
To have own small business	30	18.1	14	13.6	44	16.4
To pursue higher education	26	15.7	3	2.9	29	10.8
To be hired as employee or to have own small business	15	9.0	14	13.6	29	10.8
To be hired as employee or to pursue higher education	12	7.2	1	1.0	13	4.8
To be hired as employee or to have own small business or to pursue higher education	2	1.2	-	-	2	0.7
No job goal	20	12.0	5	4.9	25	9.3
No answer	-	-	1	1.0	1	0.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Almost 10 per cent of trainees had no job goal and were uncertain about their plans. This group of trainees tend to be younger trainees who needed further consultation with their parents. In addition, some expressed the need for more information about the job market.

Those trainees who aspired to start their own small businesses planned to work for a few years in enterprises to gain work experience before starting their own business. Most also thought that one major barrier to setting up their own business (e.g., dressmaking, barber, hairdressing, motorcycle repairing, industrial sewing) is lack of capital. Generally problems and obstacles cited by trainees across the institutions for setting up small business were similar, including lack of start-up money, housing, obligations to family, and inadequate skills.

It should be noted that especially the female trainees who came from hill tribe communities were appreciative for the training opportunities they received. They were highly satisfied with the living conditions, training services, and fringe benefits of the training programme. They also tended to see the importance and necessity of setting up women's enterprise in their home community, often for their native cloth weaving, but some expressed concerns for lack of support from the local government as well as lack of capital for setting up the enterprises.

#### 4.4.3 Trainees' Views Towards Gender Roles in Employment and Skill Training

##### Types of employment and skill training for women

Table 4.17 shows that a higher percentage of male trainees believed that there are differences in skills performances between men and women. While almost half (48.8%) of female trainees believed there were no gender differences in skills performance, only slightly more than one-thirds (35.9%) of their male counterparts agreed.

Table 4.17 Trainees' views on gender differences in skills performance by sex

Gender differences in skills performance	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Yes	70	42.2	51	49.5	121	45.0
No	81	48.8	37	35.9	112	43.9
No answer	13	9.0	15	14.6	28	10.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100</b>

About half (49.5%) of the male trainees believed there were gender differences, compared with 42.2 per cent of female trainees. Generally, for those who believe in gender differences in jobs and skill performance, the differences between men and women are described along the line of traditional cultural values – similar to those believed among the trainers. For example, men are more suitable for physically strenuous work because women are the weaker sex and should not be subject to physically demanding work. Men are more mechanically inclined than women and have more physical and emotional stamina to endure stressful and strenuous work. However, women are cited to be more patient and more meticulous and to have better artistic abilities. Women are also considered to be more gentle and caring.

Male trainees in particular often describe their views about women as follows: *pu-ying rak-suay rak-ngam, mee khwam la-iayd-on, kuan cha tham ngan sabai sabai* [Women are concerned about beauty, are meticulous, and should work in comfortable jobs]. Some male trainees also compared women to flowers and described women as *pet mae* [literally, “mother sex”], hence they should be protected and primarily involve themselves in household work and family care. However, like the trainers, trainees did not see any differences in terms of intellectual ability between men and women.

These statistics suggest that while more men have traditional values about gender roles, a large proportion of young women in the focus groups also thought that girls and women should do traditionally women's jobs, such as sewing, dressmaking, cloth weaving, cooking, and food-related jobs. Yet, some may have practical reason, instead of or in addition to cultural reasons. For instance, several young women in the focus groups said that it was easy for women, especially young women, to find work in garment factory and that some garment factories only took female applicants. While traditional values about gender roles prevail among both male and female trainees, there was a significant minority of young female trainees who rejected the traditional notion of women's jobs and men's job. For instance, one female trainee at the Chiang Mai WFC who was originally from a province in the central part of Thailand said during the discussion on women in industrial jobs:

To say that women shouldn't be lying underneath the car is really silly. Before people thought women shouldn't drive, look now, there are women drivers everywhere. So, if women can drive the car, why can't they learn to fix it, too? (Female trainee, focus group, Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre)

When looking at religion as a variable, it appears that religious faith may have some effect on attitudes towards gender roles of the trainees, especially among Muslim men (see Table 4.18). Compared with the average percentage (49.5%) among men, a higher proportion of Muslim men (60.9%) believed there were gender differences in skill performance. In contrast, Muslim women were equally split at 47.7 per cent in their views towards gender differences in skill performance. This 47.7 percentage that saw no gender differences was close to the average 48.8 percentage among all women trainees. There were no Christian men among trainees available for comparison. Of the very small sample of Christian

trainees, 7 out of 8 female trainees (75%) saw no gender differences in skills performance. As for Buddhist trainees, 42 per cent of both sexes saw gender differences, while a higher percentage of women (47.3%) saw no gender differences compared with men (35.9%).

All in all, when combining men and women of all religious faiths, a slight reverse is evident. That is, more men than women believed there were differences between women and men in performing job skills. Interestingly, a significant percentage of trainees did not respond to this question, with a higher percentage among men (14.6% for men and 9.0% for women respectively). This is telling because most trainees responded to most questions in the questionnaire. It is speculated that trainees of both sexes who did not respond to this question did not have an opinion on this issue or did not understand the question.

Table 4.18 Trainees' views on gender differences in skills performance by religion

(in per cent)

Gender differences in skills performance	Buddhism		Islam		Christianity		Others		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Yes	42.2	42.0	60.9	47.7	-	12.5	100.0	50.0	49.5	42.2
No	35.9	47.3	39.1	47.7	-	75.0	-	50.0	35.9	48.8
No answer	17.9	10.7	-	4.5	100.0	12.5	-	-	14.6	9.0
Total (number)	100.0 (78)	100.0 (112)	100.0 (23)	100.0 (44)	100.0 (1)	100.0 (8)	100.0 (1)	100.0 (2)	100.0 (103)	100.0 (166)

While about half of female trainees thought that there were no gender differences in men's and women's skills performances and that women could do any work they like, there was less agreement with the idea of promoting women in traditionally male jobs because they viewed men's jobs as too physically strenuous for women. Table 4.19 shows that while men were overwhelmingly (80.6%) in favour of the idea to promote women's participation in traditionally male training courses, only about two-thirds (68.1%) of women agreed.

Table 4.19 Trainees' agreement with promotion of women's participation in traditionally male skill training courses

Agreement with promotion of women's participation in traditionally male skill training courses	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Yes	113	68.1	83	80.6	196	72.9
No	52	31.3	17	16.5	69	25.7
No answer	1	0.6	3	2.9	4	1.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The trainees' responses to this question are curious because they contradict with their responses to the earlier question (shown in Table 4.18). Considering that more men saw gender differences in skills performance, it would have been expected that fewer men would agree with the idea of promoting women in the traditionally male skill training courses. There may be a few plausible explanations for this discrepancy: (1) the female sample were averse to physically strenuous work which they associated

with traditionally men’s jobs, (2) the male sample did not see anything wrong with women trying the male fields *despite* their traditional view on gender division in work, and (3) some respondents did not understand or misunderstood the question (considering over 10 per cent did not give any answer to the previous question as shown in Table 4.18).

Testing the correlation between religion and opinion about promotion of women’s participation in traditionally male skill training courses did not yield any significant result. Trainees of Buddhist, Islamic and Christian faiths had roughly equal agreement or disagreement, with slightly more men than women of all faiths agreeing with the promotion of women’s participation.

#### Sexual harassment

A very small minority (8.9%) of both male and female trainees reported any knowledge, first-hand experience or awareness of any sexual harassment or any improper behaviors in their training classes or in the training premises in general. As seen in Table 4.20, 9.7 per cent of male trainees and 8.4 per cent of female trainees reported sexual harassment or improper behaviours.

Table 4.20 Trainees’ reported knowledge or experience of sexual harassment

Had experience or knowledge of sexual harassment?	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Yes	14	8.4	10	9.72	48	.9
No	150	90.4	88	85.4	238	88.5
No answer	2	1.2	5	4.9	7	2.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Generally when responding to and discussing sexual harassment during the questionnaire and focus group sessions, it seems that many trainees understood it in terms of “behaviors” between men and women or the same sex of any sexual nature that they deemed “inappropriate” that may or among many not be considered sexual harassment in the strict technical sense. For instance, several female trainees at the DPW’s Central Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Nontaburi listed “inappropriate” same-sex relationships among girls in the dormitory as an example of sexual harassment and an example of inappropriate behavior because the drama and jealousy caused some disturbance within the trainee community. Although the focus group discussion did not confirm the existence of “inappropriate” behaviors among girls, one trainer at the Nontaburi site also reported a similar incident where some girls had a crush on other girls and caused some small upset. However, this female trainer did not seem to view the incident as a sexual harassment act per se but as a slight disturbance, which she helped to calm down by discussing the matter with the girls involved and advising them to stay focused on the training and not to bother other trainees if the affection was not reciprocated.

The situation was slightly different at the Chiang Mai WFC which has a higher percentage of female trainees than other DSD’s training institutions (close to half in the pre-employment and skill-upgrading programmes). More female trainees were outspoken in the questionnaire and in focus group discussion about what they considered sexual harassment activities on campus. Inappropriate behaviours of a sexual nature reported are primarily (1) male trainees harassed female peers verbally and non-verbally and (2) sexual liaisons on campus and inappropriate touching and “practices” among male and

female trainees. Drug-related incidents were also reported. Several female trainees reported having been recruited to participate in drug activities. Those who reported these “inappropriate behaviors” felt that these activities were in violation of the institutional and dormitory rules and were disrespectful to others.

Sexual harassment concerns were not confined to only the training period but extended to after the training for some female trainees in the Chiang Mai WFC. Some young girls (under 18) who were training in child and elderly care program were concerned about their family who may not allow them to work in private homes for personal safety reason, particularly concerning mistreatment by employers in the cases where they would have to work in the employers’ own homes. Trainers at the Chiang Mai Centre emphasized that personal safety skills were also included in the training curriculum, and that the institution coordinated with other agencies in order to monitor safety of the graduates hired to work in private homes. Graduates of the Chiang Mai Centre were said to be encouraged to call their former trainers in the institution to counsel in case of safety concerns or problems. There has been one case where a young female graduate was advised to resign from her job due to sexual advances by the employer’s family member.

#### Overall training experiences

In general, girls at the DPW’s training centres tended to have very close relationship with their teachers/trainers, who often also lived on campus, and provided constant guidance to them. The trainer-trainee relationship appears to be more akin to that of mother and daughters. In fact, young DPW trainees customarily called their female trainers/teachers “*mae*” or “mother.” In contrast, there was much less of the “family” atmosphere at the heavily male-populated DSD’s institutions, where behavioural control of trainees seems to be central to the trainees’ relationship with the institution and the institution and their trainers.

In contrast to the DPW’s more caring environment (albeit with strict discipline and ground rules), the environment in the DSD’s institutions was by and large discipline-oriented. This discipline-oriented approach to trainees in the DSD’s institutions may have led to a high level of frustration among many DSD’s trainees, as expressed by questionnaire respondents and respondents in the focus groups. There seemed to be a sense of discontent especially among many male trainees during focus groups at the DSD’s Nakorn Ratchasima and Lampang sites about the way they felt they were treated in the institution. Although they did not complain directly about any specific things, some said that the strict rules were not sympathetic to their individual needs, for instance they could not cook in the dormitory (Nakorn Ratchasima) and the conditions of the male dormitory at the Lampang site were substandard as indicated earlier. Because of the substandard conditions and strict rules controlling behaviors, some trainees felt confined and unsupported. Some also complained about lack of communication among trainees or between trainees and trainers.

There are all kinds of people coming from many backgrounds. It is hard to live among a large group of different people like this especially when people don’t communicate. There isn’t much communication with the teachers either... Some people don’t know how to live among other people and are not considerate of others. It seems everyone is just for himself. (Male trainee, focus group, Northeastern Skill Development Institute, Nakorn Ratchasima)

However, generally the majority of trainees were more concerned about learning job skills and gaining employment. Generally, they had a positive view of their training experience and the opportunities to learn skills. They were appreciative of the training equipment and facilities and the in-plant training programmes which allowed them to train in the real situation in the work place. They also liked the fact

that the training institutions provided systematic job placement support, which helped a significant number of trainees (often more than half) to get jobs.

DPW's trainees had very few complaints about their training experience. They had an overwhelming positive response to the centre's "one-stop-shop" services (both welfare and vocational skill training), so much so that some of the trainees had stayed on longer than one term because, they said, they felt comfortable and felt that they could learn more skills while receiving free room and board. The Nontaburi Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women had a few (female) Muslim trainees who continued to train and work in the centre because it was safer to be in the centre than in at a work place. The Lampang Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women also provided special long-term care for a few very young (under 15 years) trainees with special needs. Although officials at the DPW's training institutions insisted that they encouraged trainees to leave the training centres to enter the workplace and learn to be on their own, they gave consideration to special cases especially very young trainees who were considered too young to work (under 18 years) and were unlikely to be hired by employers.

Some aspects of the training experience that some trainees considered negative include (1) lack of opportunity and support for pre-employment trainees to have advanced skill training courses, (2) lack of enthusiasm among trainers, and (3) lack of real attention to individual employment needs. Trainees argued that they should be given the opportunity to take other courses besides their primary pre-employment training courses because additional and advanced training can help them get full benefits because they did not feel that they received sufficient skills development in the pre-employment programs (DSD's Lampang Skill Development Institute). Some trainees at the DSD's training sites also complained about negative attitudes towards trainees from trainers, and the trainers being unqualified in their training areas and being inattentive in their jobs. Others complained about inconsistencies among different trainers (in the same subject), causing confusion. Many also felt that equipment was not well maintained and that good and equipment was not being used for fear of damage.

Other key complaints are often related to the living conditions in the training campuses. For instance, lack of a health office on campus and lack of sports facilities for trainees (DSD's Nakorn Ratchasima), uncomfortable dormitory (DSD's Lampang), or unpalatable food (DPW's Nontaburi).

## 4.5 Graduates

### Methodological Note

A total of 83 graduates of all eight participating training institutions were interviewed during the field research. Although graduates were to be selected from among those graduating in the years 1998 and 1999, in practice tracing of graduates proved to be difficult. This is largely because a number of graduates of given vocational training institutions were often not local residents but were from other districts or other provinces. After completing training courses graduates tend to disperse: they traveled to large cities for employment or returned to their home districts. Records of graduates maintained by training institutions were also usually lacking or were not up-to-date. Generally, available records were of recent graduates of no more than six months.

As a result, graduates were sampled conveniently, rather than systematically. Therefore, the sample of graduates here cannot be thought of as truly representative of the population of training programme graduates in general. Any conclusions drawn from this sample should not be generalized. However, some findings concerning this group of graduates may give useful indications of some important issues and trends concerning the future of graduates.

#### 4.5.1 Graduates' Demographic Profile

Of the total 83 graduates sampled, 31 (37.3%) were men and 52 (62.7%) were women. These were former trainees graduating during August 1997 to November 2001, with the exception of one graduate who completed training in 1992. Their ages range from 16 to 49 years, with an average age of 25.5 years. Two women and three men, or 6 per cent of total graduates, identified themselves as disabled. Two came from DPW training institutions and three from the DSD system.

About two-thirds of graduates were single and one-third were married. Comparing between the two sexes, a higher percentage of men (71%) than women (64%) were single, while a slightly higher percentage of female graduates were married (33% as opposed to 29%). The only two divorced and widowed graduates (4%) were women.

Approximately 10 graduates from each participating training institution responded to the questionnaire (see Table 4.21). Again, the gender composition of the graduates varied from one institution to another. While institutions under the DSD were able to provide a good mix of male and female graduates, with the exception of the Lampang Skill Development Institute, the graduate sample from the DPW institutions were heavily female, except the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Development Centre. Graduates from Nontaburi and Songkla Welfare and Vocational Training Centres for Women were all female.

Table 4.21 Breakdowns of graduates by training institution

Training Institution	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
<b>Department of Skill Development (DSD)</b> Chiang Mai Skill Development Centre	8	15.4	3	9.7	11	13.3
Lampang Skill Development Institute	1	1.9	9	29.0	10	12.0
Naratiwas Skill Development Centre Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women	5	9.6	5	16.1	10	12.0
Nakorn Ratchasima Skill Development Institute	6	11.5	3	9.7	9	10.8
<b>Department of Public Welfare (DPW)</b> Lampang Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women	7	13.5	4	12.9	11	13.3
Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Development Centre	6	11.5	7	22.6	13	15.7
Nontaburi Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women	9	17.3	-	-	9	10.8
Songkla Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women	10	19.2	-	-	10	12.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The sample of graduates had attended various skill training courses as listed in Table 4.22. The pattern of sex segregation along the line of skills is evident, i.e., women in services and handicrafts and men in industrial and technical areas. Only one woman was working in a traditionally male skill area as

an air-condition repairer and no men were found working in traditionally female skill areas. With regard to computer work a relatively new job field, it is noted that men in this trade were computer technicians while women did data entry or word processing.

Table 4.22 Training courses of graduates by sex

Training Course	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Air-condition repairing	1	1.9	2	6.5	3	3.6
Bamboo weaving	3	5.8	-	-	3	3.6
Barber	1	1.9	1	3.2	2	2.4
Batik making	2	3.8	1	3.2	3	3.6
Beautician	5	9.6	-	-	5	6.0
Beautician & hairdressing	4	7.7	-	-	4	4.8
Brick-making	-	-	7	22.6	7	8.4
Care-taking	6	11.5	-	-	6	7.2
Car repairing	-	-	3	9.7	3	3.6
Cloth weaving	2	3.8	-	-	2	2.4
Comforter-making	1	1.9	-	-	1	1.2
Commercial cooking	4	7.7	-	-	4	4.8
Computer technician	-	-	4	12.9	4	4.8
Computer data entry	3	5.8	-	-	3	3.6
Dressmaking	5	9.6	-	-	5	6.0
Hotel services	4	7.7	2	6.5	6	7.2
Industrial sewing	9	17.3	-	-	9	10.8
Motorcycle repairing	-	-	9	29.0	9	10.8
Restaurant services	1	1.9	1	3.2	2	2.4
Thai cooking	1	1.9	-	-	1	1.2
Welding	-	-	1	3.2	1	1.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The majority of graduates (75%) had lower secondary education or lower (see Table 4.23). As much as one-third (32.5%) had primary education or less.

Table 4.23 Educational attainment of graduates by sex

Education	Sex				Total	(%)
	Female	(%)	Male	(%)		
Below Primary	4	1.7	3	9.7	7	8.4
Primary		23.1	8	25.8	20	24.1
Lower Secondary	23	44.2	12	38.7	35	42.2
Upper Secondary or Lower Vocational	13	25.0	6	19.4	19	22.9
Higher Vocational	-	-	2	6.5	2	2.4
Bachelor or higher	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

While there was little difference in terms of educational attainment between male and female graduates, difference in educational attainment emerged when comparing between the lowland majority (i.e. those who live in towns and villages) with the ethnic hill tribe minority, who in this case were primarily Karen in Mae Hong Son. Table 4.24 shows that of all 17 hill tribe graduates – representing



11 per cent of all graduates – thirteen (77%) had primary education or less, compared with only 21 per cent of lowland graduates. None of the highland graduates had more than nine years of education (lower secondary school), compared with almost one-third (31.8%) among lowland graduates.

Table 4.24 Comparison of educational attainment of highland and lowland graduates

Education	Highland Graduates		Lowland Graduates	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Primary or lower	13	76.5	14	21.2
Lower Secondary	4	23.5	31	47.0
Higher Secondary or Lower Vocational	-	-	19	28.8
Higher Vocational	-	-	2	3.0
Bachelor Degree or higher	-	-	-	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>100.0</b>

#### 4.5.2 Graduates' Work Paths After Training

An overwhelming majority of graduates (93%) were in the workforce at the time of research, i.e., they were working for money at least one hour per week or looking for work. Men were proportionately more engaged in the labour market than women (97% as opposed to 90%). It should be noted that because the graduates sampled were from rural provincial areas, they were largely engaged in agricultural activities. Of the overwhelming majority who said they were either working regularly or were looking for work because they were underemployed, 53 per cent were engaged in subsistence farming, more than half of whom (56%) were women.

When looking at the number of working hours reported by graduates, more women (25%) than men (13%) reported being underemployed, i.e., having fewer than 29 hours of paid work per week (see Table 4.25). More men (74%) than women (56%) reported having more than 30 hours of work per week. This may have some correlation with more women being engaged in subsistence farming, which for most graduates it means being underemployed in the agricultural off-seasons. Yet, it must be noted that because the graduates were largely engaged in the informal economy, the number of hours reported were approximate rather than actual and should be taken with caution.

Table 4.25 Reported paid working hours of graduates by sex

Workload	Sex				Total	(%)
	Female	(%)	Male	(%)		
0 – 15 hrs/wk	4	7.7	-	-	4	4.8
16 – 29 hrs/wk	9	17.3	4	12.9	13	15.7
>30 hrs/wk	29	55.8	23	74.2	52	62.7
No answer	10	19.2	4	12.9	14	16.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 4.26 shows that graduates were primarily engaged in the informal economy. About half of men and women were general hired labour and were paid per day, e.g., in construction, restaurant cleaning, farming and harvesting for agricultural farms. Of this category, only a small minority – mostly from the northern provinces – were hired as employees in enterprises with a fixed salary. The other half had other employment as hired labour or owned a small business besides their own family/subsistence farming. Women who reported being self-employed were often doing home-based business such as sewing or selling food stuff at home or at the local market. There is little difference in types of work between men and women.

Table 4.26 Types of work of graduates by sex

Type of Work	Sex				Total	(%)
	Female	(%)	Male	(%)		
Hired labour or employee	26	50.0	16	51.6	42	50.6
Family farming or self-employed	11	21.2	7	22.6	18	21.7
Hired labour and family farming or self-employed	9	17.3	7	22.6	16	19.3
No answer	6	11.5	1	3.2	7	8.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Differences in graduates' types of work appear when comparing between the lowland majority and the highlanders or the ethnic hill tribes. As shown in Table 4.27, over 70 per cent of ethnic hill tribe graduates in this study (who were largely ethnic Karen in Mae Hong Son) were involved in more than one type of activity, whereas over half (59%) of their lowland counterparts were either hired labour or employees in enterprises.

Table 4.27 Types of work of highland and lowland graduates

Type of Work	Highland Graduates		Lowland Graduates		Total	(%)
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)		
Hired labour or employee	3	17.6	39	<b>59.1</b>	42	100.0
Family farming or self-employed	1	5.9	17	25.8	18	100.0
Hired labour & family farming or self-employed	12	<b>70.6</b>	4	6.0	16	100.0
No answer	1	5.9	6	9.1	7	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The fact that ethnic hill tribe graduates were farmers or subsistence farmers and were doing other types of work does not mean that they were doing better than their lowland counterparts. When looking at income levels by type of work (see Table 4.28), it is evident that having more types of work means having a lower income. In other words, because farming alone was not sufficient, they had to “scrap by” by finding any available work to supplement income often as daily hired labour or they had to sell food stuff, sew or make anything that would be sellable.

Table 4.28 Income levels of graduates by work type

Income Level (baht)	Work Type						Total	(%)
	Hired labour/employee	(%)	Family farming/self-employed	(%)	Hired labour & farming/self-employed	(%)		
1 (0 – 500)	-	-	-	-	<b>6</b>	<b>46.2</b>	6	8.6
2 (501 – 1,000)	2	5.0	2	11.8	<b>3</b>	<b>23.1</b>	7	10.0
3 (1,001 – 3,000)	9	22.5	<b>6</b>	<b>35.3</b>	2	15.4	17	24.3
4 (3,001 – 5,000)	<b>23</b>	<b>57.5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>35.3</b>	2	15.4	31	44.3
5 (5,001 – 7,000)	5	12.5	1	5.9	-	-	6	8.6
6 (7,001 – 9,000)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 (over 9,000)	1	2.5	2	11.8	-	-	3	4.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The Director of the Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre in Mae Hong Son indicated that the Karen hill tribes were primarily engaged in farming, often subsistence farming, and few were able to produce enough crops to sell. While the centre aimed to help the Karen and other ethnic hill

tribes do more productive farming, they still had very low incomes. The Karen graduates themselves said during a questionnaire session that there were very few opportunities to work as hired labour. Many said they had no work or worked only once or a few times a month outside the agricultural seasons when they could still get work as harvesting labour for other farmers with larger farming production. (During the field visit, some Karen villagers interviewed were working as daily labour in a large cabbage farm not far from the Hill Tribe Centre.)

The irregularity of work as hired labour was reported by lowland graduates as well. As a result, those who worked as hired labour *in addition to* their primary farming or self-employment, had high work irregularity. As seen in Table 4.29, the highest percentage of graduates in Mae Hong Son (61.5%) reported having irregular work. This is a stark difference from other northern graduates in Chiang Mai and Lampang, 60 to 80 per cent of whom reported to have regular work.

However, it seems that graduates in other regions did not do as well as the non-hill tribe northern graduates.<sup>17</sup> Over half of graduates in Nakorn Ratchasima Province located in the Northeast and Nontaburi near Bangkok reported having no regular work, while those in the two southern provinces, Naratiwas and Songkla, had very low percentages of graduates with regular work as well, 20 per cent in Naratiwas and 40 per cent in Songkla. However, it should be noted that high percentages of graduates in Naratiwas and Songkla did not respond to this question (50% and 30% respectively).

Table 4.29 Work regularity of graduates by institution

Training Institution	Regular		Irregular		No answer		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
<b>Department of Skill Development (DSD)</b>								
Chiang Mai	7	63.6	1	9.1	3	27.3	11	100.0
Lampang	8	80.0	2	20.0	-	-	10	100.0
Naratiwas	2	20.0	3	30.0	5	50.0	10	100.0
Nakorn Ratchasima	4	44.4	5	55.6	-	-	9	100.0
<b>Department of Public Welfare (DPW)</b>								
Lampang	9	81.8	-	-	2	18.2	11	100.0
Mae Hong Son	5	38.5	8	61.5	-	-	13	100.0
Nontaburi	3	33.3	5	55.6	1	11.1	9	100.0
Songkla	4	40.0	3	10.0	3	30.0	10	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>50.6</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>32.5</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

This pattern of work regularity may be affirmed to a limited extent by the statistics collected by the DPW's Nontaburi Centre. It seems that fewer graduates were able to secure jobs after graduation, if the Nontaburi's statistics can be extrapolated. In 1997, as much as half of the Nontaburi graduates (52% of 400 graduates) took jobs through the Nontaburi Centre's job placement programme. Only 42 per cent (of 271) did so in 1998. The number went down even further to 18 per cent (of 381) in 1999. This is presumably due to the economic downturn, severely affecting Bangkok during the years

<sup>17</sup> Of the 83 graduates sampled, 17 were ethnic hill tribe, 13 of whom were from Mae Hong Son. The remaining four ethnic hill tribe graduates came from training sites in Chiang Mai and Lampang, where the overwhelming majority of graduates were still non-hill tribe.

immediately after the 1997 crisis. As a result, more and more trainees returned to their homes upon graduation during that period, from about half in 1997 to 80 per cent in 1999. Work irregularity in the northeastern region may be explained by slower economic recovery, compared to other regions in the country. However, there is no apparent explanation for the high degree of work irregularity in the South, except that the job market in general has not recovered and there were few jobs available on the countryside.

There is a stark gender difference in terms of work regularity: only 38.5 per cent of female graduates reported they worked for pay on a regular basis, compared with 71.0 per cent of their male counterparts. This can be explained by the fact that most women are still responsible for the bulk of unpaid work, household chores and taking care of family and, therefore, are less able to be engaged in paid work on a full-time basis. And in addition, like the men, women of limited education are less likely to have a regular, salaried job, although the men had more freedom to work full-time in the field or as hired labour. As already shown in Table 4.23, women reported having fewer hours of paid work or non-household work that had productive value (such as toiling in the field).

Despite the difference in the work regularity and number of hours, there is little difference in income of male and female graduates. This can be explained by the fact that many graduates worked on their own fields and did not get paid in salary. Of all graduates, 70 per cent owned a piece of farmland (77% of men and 65% of women). However, only 42 per cent of all graduates reported earning from their farm crops and it is interesting that more women (46%) than men (36%) had earnings from crops, although fewer women had farm ownership. In any respect, this statistics suggest a few possibilities: 1) not all farmlands were used for farming, 2) not all farmlands yielded income, 3) if all or most farmlands were used, many were used for subsistence purposes.

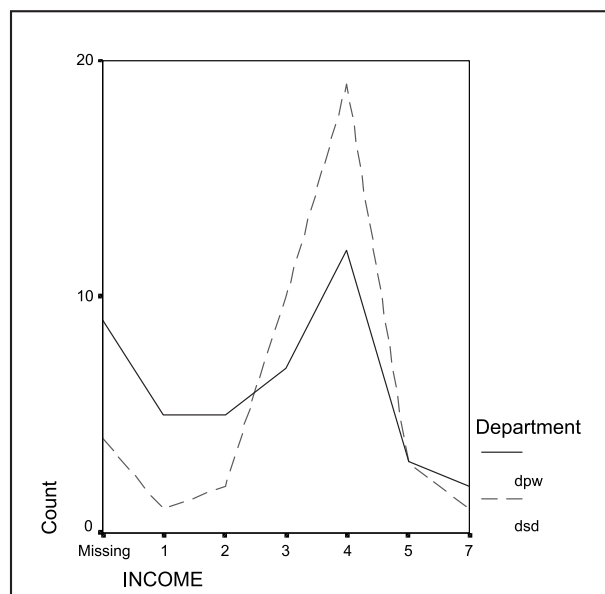
In terms of income, women graduates seemed to be doing slightly better than men graduates, although all of them were in the lower income brackets. The majority of graduates earned between 1,000-5,000 baht per month (see Table 4.30). A higher percentage of men (50%) earned 3,001-5,000 baht per month, compared with 40 per cent of women. Roughly equal percentages of men and women were in the low end of the income scale (under 3,000 per month) – 45 per cent for women and 40 per cent for men. However, more men were in the lowest end of the scale (under 1,000 baht per month), 23.3 per cent for men and 15 per cent for women.

Table 4.30 Income levels of graduates by sex

Income Level (baht)	Sex				Total	(%)
	Female	(%)	Male	(%)		
1 (0 – 500)	2	5.0	4	13.3	6	8.6
2 (501 – 1,000)	4	10.0	3	10.0	7	10.0
<b>3 (1,001 – 3,000)</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>30.0</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>16.7</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>24.3</b>
<b>4 (3,001 – 5,000)</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>40.0</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>50.0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>44.3</b>
5 (5,001 – 7,000)	4	10.0	2	6.7	6	8.6
6 (7,001 – 9,000)	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 (over 9,000)	2	5.0	1	3.3	3	4.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.0</b>

As discussed above (see Table 4.28), the income pattern suggests that agricultural activities were not a strong source of income for graduates, although it could be assumed that some may use the land for subsistence farming, i.e., to produce food for the family rather than to produce income. This may also explain the extremely low level of income (0-1,000 baht per month) among some respondents (trainees and graduates) in that cash earning is substituted by subsistence family farming. When comparing incomes between graduates of DSD's and DPW's institutions, as demonstrated in Figure 4.3, the DSD's graduates earned more than their DPW counterparts. These income differentials paralleled the differentials in educational attainment found between the trainees in the two systems, i.e., DSD's trainees had higher education than DPW's trainees (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.3 Comparison of incomes of DSD and DPW graduates



Notes: unit = baht      1 = 0-500      2 = 501-1,000      3 = 1,001-3,000      4 = 3,001-5,000  
 5 = 5,001-7,000      6 = 7,001-9,000      7 = over 9,000

#### 4.5.3 Skill Relevance and Employment Opportunities for Graduates

Over three quarters (78%) of graduates answered yes to the question: whether the skill training they received was relevant to their livelihood and their employment. A slightly smaller percentage of female graduates (77%) felt the skills they received were useful compared with their male counterparts (81%). An even smaller percentage of female graduates (60%) felt that the skill training they received increased their opportunities to gain employment or changed the way they operated their small businesses compared with the men (74%).

Regional/institutional differences are pronounced in graduates' perceptions of the usefulness of skill training – in a very close parallel with regional/institutional differences in work regularity of graduates. Only graduates from the three training institutions where graduates reported higher percentages of work irregularity, namely DSD's Nakorn Ratchasima, DPW's Mae Hong Son and Nontaburi Centres, responded negatively to a question whether they thought the skills they learned were useful in their livelihood.

Specifically, as seen in Table 4.31, almost half of the graduates of the DPW's Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre who had the least regular work (62% work irregularity) also thought that the skill they received were not useful. Of course, this is not surprising because it was apparent from observation and interviews that the skills provided to the Karen hill tribe members such as brick-making and broom-making were not applicable to the life style and local economy of the Karen in Mae Hong Son. The Karen live on the hills where most houses are made of wood and bamboos, not concrete. Being primarily farmers and a people who prefer to live close to home, the Karen do not like to go into town to work as construction workers.

Also, in the subsistence economy like that of the Karen, making brooms will not help improve their income because most Karen villagers make their own household products, hence there is no market in their villages. Some Karen villagers mentioned during a field visit that they used the brick making skills to make bricks that were later used to build public buildings such as schools. Some used the skill to build their own bathroom.

Table 4.31 Usefulness of skill training perceived by graduates by institution

Training Institution	Regular		Irregular		No answer		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
<b>Department of Skill Development (DSD)</b>								
Chiang Mai	9	81.8	-	-	2	18.2	11	100.0
Lampang	10	100.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
Naratiwas	10	100.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
Nakorn Ratchasima	7	77.8	2	22.2	-	-	9	100.0
<b>Department of Public Welfare (DPW)</b>								
Lampang	8	81.8	-	-	2	18.2	11	100.0
Mae Hong Son	7	53.8	6	46.2	-	-	13	100.0
Nontaburi	4	44.4	3	33.3	2	22.2	9	100.0
Songkla	9	90.0	-	-	1	10.0	10	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>78.3</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>13.3</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Graduates from other northern institutions, namely DSD's centres in Chiang Mai and Lampang and DPW's Lampang centre, who responded to the question all thought that the skills they learned were useful. (Two graduates from the DPW's Lampang centre and the DSD's Chiang Mai centre did not respond to this question.) This is in line with the earlier finding that graduates from the Chiang Mai and Lampang sites had the most regular work of all graduates. As for graduates from DSD's Naratiwas and DPW's Songkla centres, while a significant percentage did not respond to whether they had regular work, they responded overwhelmingly positively that the skills were useful to them, i.e., 19 responded positively and only one did not answer.

The same pattern continues, particularly for Mae Hong Son and to a lesser extent for Nakorn Ratchasima, Naratiwas and Songkla. As demonstrated in Table 4.32, Mae Hong Son graduates who found the skills the least useful also overwhelmingly (85%) thought that the skills did not increase their (paid) employment opportunity. Two-thirds of Nakorn Ratchasima graduates (56 per cent of total had no regular work) also felt that the skills they learned did not help them gain employment, whereas a minority of graduates of the two southern sites, Naratiwas (30%) and Songkla (20%), did so, even though they saw the usefulness of the skills (as shown in Table 4.31). Therefore, from these two sets of responses, it is apparent that while skill training can be applicable to the livelihood of trainees, it may not improve their opportunities to gain paid employment.

Table 4.32 Skill training and increase in employment opportunity perceived by graduates by institution

Training Institution	Regular		Irregular		No answer		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
<b>Department of Skill Development (DSD)</b>								
Chiang Mai	9	81.8	-	-	2	18.2	11	100.0
Lampang	10	100.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
Naratiwas	7	10.0	3	30.0	-	-	10	100.0
Nakorn Ratchasima	3	33.3	6	66.7	-	-	9	100.0
<b>Department of Public Welfare (DPW)</b>								
Lampang	9	81.8	-	-	2	18.2	11	100.0
Mae Hong Son	2	15.4	11	84.6	-	-	13	100.0
Nontaburi	7	77.8	-	-	2	22.2	9	100.0
Songkla	7	10.0	2	20.0	1	10.0	10	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>65.1</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>26.5</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The majority of graduates (89.2%) contributed to their family income in varying degrees. There is little difference in the levels of contribution of men and women to family income. Table 4.33 shows that graduates of both sexes allocated roughly equal proportions of their incomes to their families: 15.7 per cent gave all; 9.6 per cent gave about three quarters; 27.7 per cent gave about half; 36.1 per cent gave about one quarter; and only 9.6 per cent contributed no income to the family.

Notwithstanding the small sample, it is interesting to note that a higher percentage of men (16.1%) provided no income of their own to the family, compared with women (5.8%). This would seem to confirm that women, particularly those in the lower income brackets are expected to contribute to sustaining family livelihood, while men have more freedom in using income for themselves.

Table 4.33 Degrees of contribution to family incomes by graduates

Contribution as appx. proportion of own income	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
None (0%)	3	5.8	5	16.1	8	9.6
<b>About 1 quarter (25%)</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>36.5</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>35.5</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>36.1</b>
<b>About half (50%)</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>32.7</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>19.4</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>27.7</b>
About 3 quarters (75%)	4	7.7	4	12.9	8	9.6
All or almost all (100%)	8	15.4	5	16.1	13	15.7
No answer	1	1.9	-	-	1	1.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

A closer inspection into how graduates identified the principal family income earners may shed some light into the gender roles in sustaining family livelihood among the sample. When asked to identify the principal income earner in their family, a little over two-thirds (34.9%) said their fathers were the most important providers, followed by themselves (30.1%), their spouses (16.9%), their mothers (9.6%), and other family members (8.4%) (see Table 4.34). The graduates' responses to this



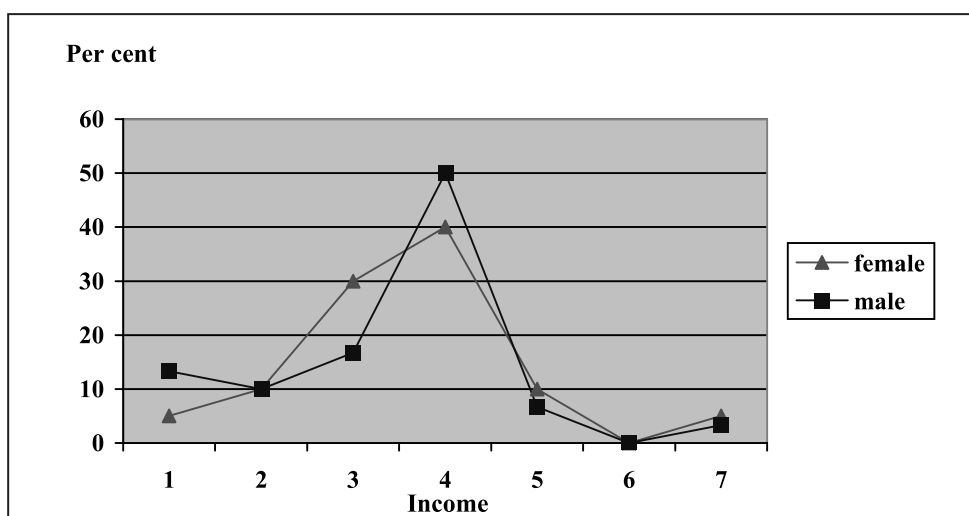
question seem to contradict with their own responses to the question regarding the proportion of their own contribution to the family incomes, which reveal no substantial difference between the male and female roles in providing for the family, i.e., most of both sexes provide at least some to all of their own roughly equal income to the family purses in roughly similar proportions. Yet, why is there a difference in the identification by men and women of the family's main income earner?

Table 4.34 Principal family income earners identified by graduates

Principal income earner identified	Female		Male		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Self	9	17.3	16	51.6	25	30.1
Spouse	13	25.0	1	3.2	14	16.9
Father	20	38.5	9	29.0	29	34.9
Mother	6	11.5	2	6.5	8	9.6
Other family member	4	7.7	3	9.7	7	8.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>

As Table 4.34 shows, only 17.3 per cent of females said that they were the principal income earners, although 23.1 per cent said they contributed three quarters of their income or more to the family purse. This is a contradiction to the case of the male graduates, half of whom (51.6%) said they themselves were the principal family income earners, whereas only 29 per cent said they contributed the same amount of their income to the family purse as the women did (75% or more). This raises a question whether the responses given were facts or graduates' perceptions of appropriate roles of the men and women as breadwinners of the family, although among this group of graduates there is no substantial disparity between the levels of income between men and women, as demonstrated in Figure 4.4. Both men and women earned between 1,000-5,000 baht brackets, with slightly more men in the 3,000-5,000 baht bracket and slightly fewer in the 1,000-3,000 baht bracket.

Figure 4.4 Income comparison of male and female graduates



Notes: unit = baht 1 = 0-500 2 = 501-1,000 3 = 1,001-3,000 4 = 3,001-5,000  
5 = 5,001-7,000 6 = 7,001-9,000 7 = over 9,000

Results on questions regarding loans are not reliable because, due to the questionnaire structure, only graduates who identified themselves as self-employed were asked whether they took out any loans or had any debt. This resulted in fewer than half of the sample providing any information about loans (36.5% of the female sample and 41.9% of the male sample), making the sample too small to make any meaningful conclusions. Nevertheless, if the information provided can be of any use, a few observations can be provided.

First, the loan amount taken in the year before the research (October 2000-September 2001) by those who reported ranges from 5,000 to 50,000 baht (US\$ 111 – 1,110), with 10,000-30,000 baht (US\$ 222 – 666) being the common range, for both men and women. Second, 23 per cent of 52 women said they took any loans, compared with 32.2 per cent of 31 men; on the other hand, more women (13.5%) reported not having taken any loans in 2001, compared with only 9.7% of the men. Third, half of the men who took loans (16.1% of all male sample) reported they had not repaid the loan at all, compared with fewer than 10 per cent of the women. Several graduates took loans from the government's agricultural promotional funds or the Bank of Agriculture and Cooperatives, while some took loans from private sources at higher interest rates. Many who were unable to pay back the loans, particularly those who took them from the government's assistance programmes, cited failure in their farming endeavor as the primary reason. As high as 74 per cent of graduates said they needed further assistance in terms of capital for business investment and additional training (male 77% and female 71%; DSD 80% and DPW 68%).

#### **4.5.4 Tracer Study Observations**

Although every training institution participating in this study had some measure of collecting data about its training and trainees, the data collection practices varied from one institution to another and none had a complete and systematic database of trainees, and even less so for graduates. Not every site had data disaggregated by sex. Virtually every director of the training institution interviewed admitted that data collection was inadequate and research and development capacity was seriously lacking. Generally, the training staff were involved in training activities and had no time nor sufficient knowledge in conducting systematic follow-up research of graduates. The difficulties in conducting tracer studies of graduates are two-fold: (1) lack of resources and capacity of the staff and (2) frequent migration of graduates.

The DPW centres generally conduct two follow-ups with graduates, once after three months and again after six months. Survey with graduates are carried out through letters, telephone, and inquiries through friends and employers. The DSD institutions practice variable degrees of data collection of graduates. Information gathering about graduates is usually not a high priority among most training sites and is particularly difficult for some sites that serve a high percentage of trainees from other provinces. This is because, more often than not, when trainees graduate they tend to return to their home villages or move to another city, making them hard to trace. Often, telephone communication is not available and there is no certainty that the follow-up letters or forms sent to graduates will actually reach them because addresses of graduates are not always up-to-date.

The DPW's Central Welfare and Vocational Training Centre for Women in Nontaburi have many trainees from northeastern provinces or Isan, the majority of whom tend to return home upon graduation, especially during economic recession. Many trainees at DSD and DPW training centres in Lampang and Chiang Mai also come from many provinces in all regions of the country. In addition, for some sites like the DPW's Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre in Mae Hong Son, when data

about graduates and trainees are kept, they are often not for the purpose of follow-up but are kept as financial records to verify the disbursement of funds for budgetary purposes.

Given this, there is certainly a need to develop a more usable information database of both trainees and graduates. During field research, several staff members at the training sites acknowledged the problem of lack of usable database and expressed interest in learning research skills and information management skills.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **Lessons Learned and Policy Recommendations**

#### **5.1 Lessons Learned**

##### **5.1.1 Summary of Findings**

Women's labour participation rate has always been large in Thailand, comprising 45 per cent of the adult labour force in the country. Over the last fifteen years, rapid industrial growth has provided more job opportunities for Thai women in the manufacturing and services sectors where they predominate in low-skill, low-pay, low-quality, and low-status job. For example, the garment and food processing industries, which belong to the top seven manufacturing industries, generate high revenues and have been main engines of economic growth for the country, rely largely on poorly educated and low-skilled women workers. In the event of the major economic downturn following the Asian financial crisis in 1997, more Thai women entered the service sector to mitigate the effects of the crisis on their households. The service sector readily absorbs female labour, especially within the tourism and entertainment industries, since jobs in these establishments are considered traditionally female. Indications are also picked up in manufacturing.

Women have been generally associated with low-level skills since their work is often understood as an extension of their reproductive and domestic roles. Their work – both paid and unpaid – is thus undervalued and, in many instances, under-enumerated. If wages are used as an indicator of the value given to women's work, it was discovered that women's earnings are generally lower compared with men even in sectors where women are concentrated such as in manufacturing, services and home-based work in the informal economy. In a study recently conducted on factory women and men, unskilled men earned more in the run of their careers than both skilled and unskilled women. Further, many of the skills women learn in public and private training institutions largely reproduce the gender stereotypes. Thus they have been pigeonholed to do certain types of work under lower wage scales.

The gender segregation in the labour market is mirrored in the vocational training systems provided to men and women who are outside the formal educational system. Field assessments of the DSD and DPW vocational skill training services reveal that the DSD and DPW have provided opportunities for a number of men and women, especially youth, who otherwise have few educational and occupational alternatives, to obtain vocational training skills that allow them to participate in the labour force and to have an improved quality of life. However, despite some progress both in terms of expansion of services to more targeted groups in urban and rural areas by both departments and increased attention to gender equality in access to vocational training, there remain serious gender disparities that are structural as well as attitudinal in the government's vocational training systems provided by the DSD and DPW.

Sex segregation between the DSD and the DPW training and unequal access to training courses remain significant barriers to gender equality in skills development in Thailand. Only one-third or 37 per cent of the DSD trainees are women and less than 10 per cent of trainees in the DPW system are men. There is also a clear disparity in the capacities of the two systems, given the unequal numbers of training facilities under the DPW and the DSD systems. The DPW capacity is severely limited compared

with that of the DSD, i.e., the DPW runs only seven welfare and vocational training centres located in different regions of the country, whereas the DSD runs as many as 11 regional vocational training institutes and 31 provincial vocational training centers around the country. During the 1990s the DPW system provided training services to far below 10,000 trainees a year, merely a fraction of the DSD's capacity, at around 200,000 per year. As a result, women have had more limited access to training compared to men.

The institutional sex segregation and the unequal access of men and women to vocational training are rooted in the history of the two institutions. Historically the DSD has been entrusted with responsibilities to develop skills of the national labour force in order to feed skilled workers into the growing industrial sectors of the economy. Because industrial skills have been traditionally male-dominated skills, the DSD vocational training system has, as a consequence, catered more to the needs of the male population who plan to enter or who are already in the labour force. This philosophy has not changed much until recently, when the DSD began adding non-industrial skill courses and has attracted more female trainees.

On the other hand, the DPW was established with a mandate to serve the welfare needs of disadvantaged populations, including children, the elderly, people with disabilities, ethnic minorities, *and women and girls in need*. Providing vocational training to women has not been the primary mandate of the DPW but has been offered to target groups *as part of* larger social welfare services in order for them to be self-sufficient. As a result, the skill training courses offered in the DPW system tend to be basic and short-term, and lead to self-employment, rather than to wage employment as is the case for the DSD system. The DPW has not been endowed with the budget and expertise to provide vocational skill training on a comprehensive scale. Moreover, compared to the DSD, which offers a wide range of training courses in many industrial and service-based skill areas, skill selection in the DPW training system is often confined within traditionally female skills such as fashion design, dressmaking, sewing, hairdressing, and handicrafts.

The courses which women attend in the DSD system also tend to be shorter than those attended by men. Men continue to dominate courses that are traditionally male skills such as automotive, construction, welding, electrical, and electronics. Introduction of new occupational skills in the service sector have diminished somewhat the traditional sex segregation; there is more equal participation of men and women in newly introduced skill areas, such as hotel and restaurant services, commercial cooking, computer, and electronics. However, the tendency of sex segregation persists in the care-based and entry-level service-based courses such as child and elderly care, traditional Thai massage, office assistance, and hotel maid services – courses largely attended by women. These tendencies reflect the underlying gender values in the society expressed by the majority of trainers and trainees interviewed.

Gender disparities in vocational skill training have been recognized by both the DSD and the DPW. Initiatives to encourage women's participation in skill training have been created within both systems that come in three forms:

- (1) adding new courses deemed attractive to women, to the existing list of skill training curriculum
- (2) adapting general training facilities to accommodate women and girls such as building women's dormitories and women's toilets
- (3) creating women-specific projects such as the DSD's Chiang Mai Women's Friendly Centre and the DPW's "Creating New Life for Rural Women" Project.

In the DSD system, a 30-per cent target has been set to increase women’s participation in institution-based pre-employment training programme, while the DPW continues to focus on providing services to disadvantaged women (poor, rural and at risk of prostitution) through the Creating New Life for Rural Women Project, through which it provides services to about 3,000 women per year.

Despite the reality of women making up half of the entire work force, policy does not treat women as the important half of the work force that also need skills development. Women remain to be treated at the policy level as members of the “other” groups, that require special attention, rather than part of the mainstream work force. Skill development programmes for women tend to be ad hoc, piecemeal and short-term. Women-oriented training programmes have largely been conducted on a project basis such as the Creating New Life for Rural Women Project by DPW. This type of projects has benefited specific target groups, particularly poor women and girls in rural communities. However, this approach does not address the issue of low participation of women in existing vocational training programmes that provide long-term, standard quality training that provides greater opportunities for employment in the formal sector.

### ***5.1.2 Analysis of Training Practices***

In general, all institutions reviewed, including those expected to engage in good practices, share the same pitfall in segregating men and women along the skill line according to the local and traditional views towards gender roles at work. Although many executives and trainers have progressive views towards gender equality, most still have traditional views about roles of men and women in employment. The same views are shared by trainees of both sexes. By and large, trainers and trainees still believe in physical limitations of women and as a result believe that women should work in less physically strenuous field, i.e., in care or services sectors, although actual practices are different. In many instances, industrial work no longer requires physical strength and work in the service sector can be quite strenuous.

Success or failure of the training system is in a large part affected by the philosophical and attitudinal factors ingrained in each institution, although it is evident from the DSD Chiang Mai Women’s Friendly Centre “good practice” that clear policy directives and well-defined goals and measures can form a good framework for successful implementation.

The Chiang Mai Women’s Friendly Centre (WFC), as a pilot project that has become a model for the DSD to replicate in other regions of the country, has an advantage with a clear policy directive, (i.e., to promote participation of women in skill training). It has enjoyed policy as well as financial backing. Apart from having new facilities and equipment, it also has specifically laid-out measures. In other words, an important factor behind its success is a clear blueprint – which it has followed. The DPW’s good practice in Lampang has operated following the DPW’s comprehensive social services or “social welfare” approach. An important distinction of the DPW’s Lampang centre is a long-term (2.5 years) vocational training programme for girls, which is effective in providing more standardized and higher quality skill training for girls and women that is lacking in other centres. In addition to obtaining work skills and life skills, trainees also have an opportunity to gain education that allows them to advance further in their chosen career path. Yet, even these two good practices are still unable to avoid the larger problem of sex segregation along the skill line. At the Chiang Mai WFC, while men have made inroads into newly added service skill areas such as cooking and hotel and restaurant services, women have yet to cross over to the traditionally male, i.e., industrial and technical skill areas.

Despite limited capacity, the integrated training approach that combines both work and life skills adopted by the DPW has proved effective for skill development of its young female target group, who also require other social welfare services. However, there is a question whether this approach will prove effective with different target groups that do not require social welfare services, although it is evident in assessment of DSD institutions that vocational skill training without life skills is inadequate for many young trainees – male and female.

The DSD's heavy emphasis on discipline and little attention to the development of life skills among trainees has had a negative effect on the personal development and sense of self-esteem of trainees. The social and human dimension of the training such as opportunities to engage in social activities, career as well as personal counseling, and positive relationships with other trainees and trainers is important particularly for young trainees, but is lacking in the DSD institutions. In terms of equality in access to vocational training among different social and cultural groups, it is apparent that ethnic minorities, particularly the hill tribes, have not been given proper attention at the policy level. The hill tribes and to a lesser extent former trainees in the northeast and southern regions have not received full benefits of training in that the skills they have obtained have not improved their employment opportunities.

In terms of “cultural-specific practices,” the DSD training centre in Naratiwas, which serves a largely Muslim population, can be considered to have a fair amount of success in responding to the needs of the Muslim communities and in identifying appropriate skills for that area. It is not possible, however, to draw meaningful conclusions about the DPW cultural-specific practice by the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Welfare and Development Centre because it was not operating any vocational training programmes during the time of research, other than providing advice on agricultural activities for the hill tribe communities. The community-based sewing and batik groups in Naratiwas have created employment and generated income for local Muslim villagers. Home-based skill training is popular among Muslim women (e.g., sewing head scarves, batik making) is responsive to market demands from neighboring countries. However, the capacity of training remains limited.

From the policy perspective, it is apparent from this research that ethnic or cultural minorities do not rank high in the skills development policy agenda. The Naratiwas Centre can perform better with more resources, in terms of up-to-date equipment. As for the hill tribe communities in the North, the fact that the budget proposal for non-agricultural training programmes was not approved reflects lack of support from the government. This presents a serious problem for minorities, especially ethnic hill tribes. The Director of the Mae Hong Son Hill Tribe Centre explained that in addition to poverty and rampant unemployment, the hill tribes are also burdened with social injustice. As a disadvantaged group living in the physical and social periphery, they are often marginalized by policy. Nevertheless, skill training for the hill tribe may be more problematic at the practical level as well. That is, even when skill training is available to them, it seems that not enough consideration is given to the relevancy of skills. As testified by the Karen graduates in Mae Hong Son, the skills they have received were not useful in their livelihood.

## **5.2 Challenges and Barriers to Equal Access to DSD and DPW Vocational Training Services**

Despite the relative success of the training systems of both departments in reaching and providing skills and opportunities to gain employment among low income youth, there exist challenges and barriers to gender equality in access to skill training and consequently employment. At the two-day policy workshop in December 2001, DSD and DPW officials who had been involved in the action research

summarized problems and obstacles in promoting gender equality in their respective vocational training services as follows:

#### Department of Skill Development

1. Employers' resistance against women in non-traditional areas of work
2. Physical limitations of women
3. Lack of understanding on gender equality issues and gender sensitivity among training staff and executives that results in inability to provide appropriate guidance and counseling to trainees
4. General social and cultural values and beliefs that hamper promotion of women in non-traditional fields
5. Inadequate knowledge and understanding about how to create training curricula and provide a training environment such as equipment procurement and a safe workplace that are appropriate for women
6. Young age of trainees
7. Information dissemination not reaching all target groups
8. Lack of continuity and system of personnel training and development

#### Department of Public Welfare

1. Institutional and local culture not conducive to gender equality
2. Inadequate linkage between skill training and labour market demands, i.e., training is supply- rather than demand-driven
3. Because vocational training is not the primary area of expertise of DPW, DPW lacks sufficient capacity to provide quality skill training
4. No clearly-set standards of training and hence unsystematic training operation and assessment that is not supported by systematic studies and research

The most significant barriers and challenges to gender equality as a result of comprehensive review of the DSD and DPW training systems and from field assessments are summarized as follows.

### **5.2.1 Institutional Gender Bias**

Sex segregation in training programmes remains a significant issue. Gender is a divider along skill and institutional lines. Current overall women's participation in DSD training system is at 37 per cent, while men's participation in the DPW training system is about 5 per cent. In other words, DSD-affiliated training centres remain a place for male youth, while DPW continues to cater to female youth with the DSD having a training capacity that is 20 times larger than the DPW. In both DSD and DPW training systems, there is still a narrow range of skills in vocational training for women. Training courses taken by women and girls are generally traditional "women's skills" such as fashion design, dressmaking, sewing, hairdressing, and handicrafts. The courses in the DSD system which are mostly attended by women also tend to be shorter than those attended by men. On the other hand, men continue to dominate courses that are traditionally "male skills" such as automotive, welding, and the electrical trades. Men also predominate in training on construction and electronics, considered "male" skills even if women form the majority of (unskilled) workers in the electronics industry and are regularly found on constructions sites.

Introduction of new occupational skills in the service sector has diminished somewhat the traditional sex segregation; there is more equal participation of men and women in newly introduced skill areas, such as hotel and restaurant services, commercial cooking, computer and electronics.



However, the tendency of sex segregation persists in even the newly introduced skill training courses such as office assistance, child and elderly care, traditional Thai massage, and hotel maid, while in the computer field women tend to enroll in using software and men tend to learn programming and hardware operation and repair. These tendencies reflect the underlying gender values of the society expressed by the majority of trainers and trainees interviewed.

### ***5.2.2 Inadequate Responsiveness to Training Needs***

Most trainees, especially youths who make up the majority of trainees surveyed in this research, participate in vocational training with the expectation to gain employment and increase their income. A minority obtain training in order to have skills for secondary or supplemental jobs. Despite this, those within the vocational training systems often view the provision of skill training as a means to help trainees to find supplemental income. As a result, the vocational training programmes provided, especially the community-based training programmes that usually target women in the rural areas, were too short (1 day to three months) and insufficient to help trainees learn skills and gain meaningful employment.

While many of the trainees believe that the skills they receive through training are beneficial to them and potentially increase their opportunity to acquire a job, a certain segment of trainees and graduates feel that they have not been able to find jobs that match the skills they have acquired. This is particularly true for ethnic hill tribe communities. Therefore, thought must be given to how one makes skills and training applicable to the trainees in specific regions or those from cultural groups.

As a result of learning inappropriate or inapplicable skills, those who have participated in skill training continue to struggle at the subsistence levels through seasonal farming or as daily hired labour for small farming enterprises. Another problem cited concerning unemployment after training is inadequate duration of the programme. With respect to hill tribe minorities the preliminary research suggests that the efficacy of the training and counseling could also be enhanced by at least partial training in local dialect. The data collection practices are weak among the training institutions surveyed. Most systematic data collection and analysis, especially on trainees and graduates, could better enable training institutions to serve the needs of trainees.

### ***5.2.3 Philosophical and Attitudinal Bias***

While traditional gender values play a role in the selection of courses by trainees, the lop-sided participation of men in DSD and of women in DPW training institutions is a direct result of departmental philosophy and programme designs. DSD has traditionally offered male-dominated vocational skills to feed skilled labour into the growing industrial sector of the economy, whereas DPW has provided its training services to mainly women and does so as a part of their primary responsibilities to provide social services to the needy and the destitute. The DPW institutional culture does not consider vocational training as its primary mandate. Although the DSD and DPW systems are theoretically open to any groups, the types of skills offered in the training programmes discourage interested prospective trainees from participating in non-traditional courses. For instance, girls who are interested in automotive repair training are discouraged by the small or non-existent number of women in the class, and as a result choose to train in other courses that are usually traditionally female. Furthermore, girls can be discouraged by unsuitable facilities at most of the DSD-affiliated training centres.

### 5.3 Policy Recommendations

Thailand has generally prospered by pursuing economic growth through labour-intensive export-led industrialization fueled by cheap, often female, labour. The financial crisis, as well as recent world market trends, signal the need for this strategy to shift in order to adopt more advanced technologies and diversify its production portfolio if Thailand is to re-position itself as one of the region's leading economies. Skills development and vocational training systems would need to be pro-active and provide future workers with quality skills.

In response to the changing economic reality and the existing problems and challenges, outlined below are recommended measures to improve the DSD and DPW vocational training policies and programmes to ensure equality between men and women in access to the labour markets:

1. *Competitive skills development* – Policymakers need to create and advance training and skills development programmes for industries with the highest potentials for competitiveness in order to respond to the changing economic reality by upgrading the skill level of its workforce. While basic skill training for new entrants and for existing unskilled workers remains an important component of the skills development programmes, more emphasis is needed for higher-level skills development for both men and women in order for the Thai workforce to be competitive in the world market.

2. *Inclusion of women in mainstream, longer-term training programmes* – Women should have more equal access to standardized skill training and improved opportunities to enter the labour market with quality skills and, as a result, improved employment opportunities. Specifically, the DSD must continue and expand its initiative to increase women's participation in the pre-employment training programme, even after the initial target of 30-per cent women's participation is achieved. Also, many more women need to have access to the skill-upgrading and skill-testing programmes. The DPW should encourage men to participate in its training programmes. Equal gender participation can be achieved through meaningful inclusion of both men and women in the full range of standard training programmes, rather than through addition of traditionally male- or female-oriented skills. It is recommended that the practice of streaming of candidates into the programmes on the basis of their sex and corresponding gender stereotypes be reconsidered.

3. *Re-evaluation of departmental mission and strategic approach to skills development* – Because of the institutional gender bias as well as the philosophical bias that underline inequitable access between men and women in the vocational skill training systems of the DSD and the DPW, it is recommended that both departments re-evaluate their mission, responsibilities and strategic approach to skills development for better effectiveness and equity. It is clear that there is a need to increase meaningful participation of women and other marginalized groups (e.g., hill tribe and ethnic members, the disabled) in the standard vocational training programmes and more attention given to ethnic minorities and their specific needs. For instance, the DSD must have a clearer mission that it is responsible for developing skills for *both the male and female* workforce. The DSD needs to re-evaluate its discipline-oriented approach to training that seems to have had a negative impact on personal development and sense of self-esteem, on both male and female youth. For the DPW, although the social welfare approach may be appropriate for specific target groups, particularly disadvantaged youth, who require a greater amount of social services, it needs to re-evaluate whether this approach is appropriate for all target groups. If the DPW aims to provide meaningful skills development, it needs to develop a higher level of professionalism and higher standards of skill training services (in terms of delivery, equipment and assessment). However, if it continues to see its role as a social welfare agency, it should seek other

measures to achieve higher standards of training. This can be done through closer cooperation with the DSD and other vocational training agencies.

4. *Explicit equal opportunity goals and measures* – Both DSD and DPW should adopt more concrete targeting measures. For example, targets for the incremental increase of women’s participation in given courses or skill areas can be set either in percentage or in number for each year. Clear priorities can also be drawn in the departmental and institutional annual plans and communicated among staff. Measures to increase participation of particular social groups, especially the disadvantaged, can be set through providing scholarships and assistance packages through regular budget or through outside funding sources. Good initiatives can start with specific support projects on regular budget for specially disadvantaged groups, such as ethnic and cultural minorities, and women in non-traditional trades.

5. *Informational and attitudinal campaign* – Public media campaign and interpersonal campaigns can bring about a change in attitude towards the DSD and the DPW as professional agencies that provide quality vocational development for the public. The public campaign may help minimize the stigma and boost self-esteem of trainees and create interest among the wider public, as well as present a better image of the DSD and DPW training institutions among the private sector. Campaign for gender equality in employment such as “equal pay for equal work for women and men” can create public awareness and help change the traditional views on men’s and women’s roles that currently hamper promotion of gender equality in training and in employment.

6. *Incorporating a gender dimension to skills development* – Given existing inequalities, gender-responsive skills development requires an explicit gender-sensitivity component that may comprise the following measures:

- ❑ Clear equal employment opportunity directives set at the top ministerial level and communicated to relevant departments and training institutions. Training institutions should also be made accountable for implementation.
- ❑ Revise training curricula to avoid gender stereotyping. New revision of curricula should encourage girls and women to participate in non-traditional fields in order to break the existing pattern of job segregation. Skills in all areas should be introduced to trainees of both sexes. For examples, efforts should be made to introduce technical and industrial skill areas to women and service and care skills to men, and life skills should be provided to both men and women.
- ❑ Particularly the DSD institutions need to create a more women-friendly environment through adapting existing facilities to accommodate women’s needs and through providing advanced training equipment that are more friendly to women. All training institutions should have male and female dormitories and toilets.
- ❑ The discipline-oriented focus in many DSD institutions needs to be complemented by a more client-centered approach to benefit the young men from low-income groups. It is also vital to attract and retain young women, especially if they pursue a career in a traditionally “male” skill area. Specific career counseling or other pro-active measures, such as special awards can be low-cost but effective measures to promote women’s entry into non-traditionally “female” skill areas.
- ❑ Develop flexible training programmes for adult women with family responsibilities in terms of design, delivery and location. The provision of childcare services may be an integral part of such programmes.

- Obtain external gender expertise from women’s organizations to build internal capacity, and to plan and design gender-specific programmes. The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare should evaluate existing training courses and modules and bring in a more integrated gender dimension to the design and implementation of the training programmes.

7. *Integrated and responsive training programmes for specific groups* – Distinction between training for wage employment and self-employment needs to be made. Integrated training needs to be provided to those who are or will become self-employed. Business management training needs to be delivered as part of a larger package of business development services (BDS), including the identification of business opportunities, marketing support, business development services and access to credit and new technology. In addition, special tailor-made training is appropriate for vulnerable groups of rural workers who are prone to migration to foreign countries or to major domestic markets and as a result vulnerable to exploitation. Basic life skills, realistic information, as well as awareness of workers’ rights should be incorporated in training for all workers and especially this target group.

8. *Partnerships with employers and other partners* – Training alone is often inadequate in ensuring employment for trainees. Therefore, training needs to be combined with employment programmes, which can be done more efficiently through cooperation with the employers and other relevant organizations, such as chambers of commerce, workers’ groups, etc. Partnerships between training agencies, and individual employers and social partners can strengthen the training programmes at, at least, two levels: job search assistance/job placement and financing. Although job search assistance may not guarantee employment for trainees, it can be effective in improving job opportunities as well as complement training and work experience. In terms of financing, the employers can ease the financial burden and financing cooperation can potentially improve skill development. With respect to promoting gender equality in employment, measures can be devised to ensure employers’ commitment, e.g., providing financial incentives for employers who offer jobs for trainees.

9. *Systematic monitoring and evaluation and research capacity building* – It is evident from this research that systematic data analysis, monitoring and evaluation is lacking in both DSD and DPW systems. This will not be possible without a more complete and more systematic information database of trainees and of graduates both at the decentralized institutional and at the national levels. The database should be updated quarterly or at least biannually, or as information becomes available. Research and development capacity needs to be developed, particularly for regional institutions and institutions in major cities, which should be more involved in decentralized policymaking and planning of vocational training programmes that are more responsive to local needs and local market demands, and provide adequate information to the national level. Finally, in view to increase capacity among personnel to evaluate effectiveness of vocational training programmes and to develop a gender tracking system for national vocational training systems, a gender perspective must be integrated systematically in the overall research and skill training system for staff.



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## Annexes

### *Annex 1:*

**Policy Formulation Workshop  
Action Research:  
Gender Dimension of Vocational Skills Development in Thailand  
December 6-7 2001  
ILO/EASMAT, ILO Conference Room, 11<sup>th</sup> Floor  
United Nations Building, Bangkok**

#### Thursday December 6, 2001

9:00 – 9:30	Registration
9:30 - 9:50	“Gender Equality in the World of Work and Vocational Skill training” by Ms Nelien Haspels, ILO/EASMAT Senior Specialist on Gender and Women Workers’ Issues
9:50 – 11:50	Presentation on research methodology by Dr. Busakorn Suriyasarn, Dr. Bernadette Resurreccion and Dr. Penpak Thongthae
11:50 – 13:00	Lunch
13:00 – 14:45	Brainstorming session: To discuss lessons learned from the research by DSD and DPW focal points, e.g., staff’s needs, strengths and weaknesses, and capacity building potential
14:45 – 15:45	Group presentation
15:45 – 16:30	Executive summary of research, guidelines for tomorrow discussion on policy analysis with respect to program effectiveness in creating and promoting gender equality in access to training and employment, staff capacity building issues, knowledge-based policy recommendations, plan of action for national measures for gender equality promotion in skill training and employment, and institutional capacity building programs

#### Friday December 7, 2001

9:00 – 11:00	Presentation on overall research findings by Dr. Busakorn Suriyasarn and Dr. Bernadette Resurreccion
11:15 – 12:00	Group discussion (DSD, DPW) on departmental needs analysis
12:00 – 13:00	Lunch
13:00 – 15:00	Policy Formulation and Action Plan session
15:15 – 16:00	Conclusions: syntheses of lessons for future policy and program development

## ***Annex 2:***

### **Discussion Guidelines**

#### **For Discussion on Policy Formulation to Promote Gender Equality In Access to Skill Training and Employment**

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Based on your conclusion of the existing programs and policies regarding gender equality promotion in skill training in your department and training institutions:

Question 1: What are the lessons learned from current policies and practices?

Question 2: What are strengths and weaknesses of these policies and programs?

Question 3: What do you propose to be areas of improvement?

Action: Draft an Action Plan for future policy and program development for your Department and Training Institution in terms of promotion of gender equality and equity in access to skill training and employment.

The following considerations may help you in forming ideas and an action plan:

- Women's participation in long-term, standard (institution-based) training (in pre-employment, skills upgrading and independent enterprises)
- Equal participation in more fields: industrial, technical, services, and domestic-based and care.
- Equal participation in all skill-level employment
- Career counseling and job placement
- Cooperation between training institutions and employers in putting gender as part of the agenda
- Gender sensitivity training for personnel
- Distribution of training information to wider population and reaching target groups
- Measures responding to needs of special groups such as migrant and registered foreign workers (who work in low-skilled jobs not wanted by Thais)
- Training for high level-skilled employment
- Increasing number of trainees and/or areas of skills
- Integrated training (package skill training, including job skills, knowledge about business/employment opportunities, marketing, access to credits and new technology, rights, production cost analysis, etc.)
- Tracer study for graduates and database development
- Effectiveness and appropriateness of training courses and programs for target groups
- Rights-based training: rights in employment, rights against sexual and physical abuse and harassment, and rights to organize

**Annex 3.1**

**Research Tool 2:  
Questionnaire for Person in charge of Training Policies and Programmes of Concerned  
Institution**

**Introduction**

The purpose of this research is two-fold. First, the study aims to find out whether and how the trainees and graduates benefit from the skills and knowledge acquired during training course: whether the training is relevant and whether it has helped them find employment, set up a business, and improve their living standards, working conditions and income. Second, the study explores whether improvement in training programmes and curricula may be needed to suit the needs of trainees.

Specific information given by a particular respondent will be kept confidential and will be used only for the purpose of this study. Data will be analysed and reported in aggregates.

Thank you for your time and cooperation in this effort.

**Note for interviewer:**

Often policy and management executives have limited time to respond to lengthy interviews or questionnaire. It is suggested that this tool be used as a guideline for questions in a semi-structured interview with this group of respondents. Before the interview, the interviewer should prepare by reading relevant literature published by or about the organization, e.g., annual reports, project or activities reports, etc. The interview should last no longer than 1.5 hours.

**Profile of Respondent**

1. Name of respondent: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Institution: \_\_\_\_\_
3. Respondent's position in institution:  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Year when respondent assumed said position: \_\_\_\_\_

**Profile of Institution**

5. Nature (public/government; private; mixed): \_\_\_\_\_
6. Coverage (national; regional; others): \_\_\_\_\_
7. Major objectives, functions, responsibilities:

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**Training activities**

8. Basis of mandate to undertake training (e.g. law, policy governing institution):

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9. Mode of action (check appropriate box; multiple answer choices):

<input type="checkbox"/>	implements directly training
<input type="checkbox"/>	finances and/or implements through others
<input type="checkbox"/>	designs policies, co-ordinates, supervises and/or monitors
<input type="checkbox"/>	others

10. Financing of training institution (indicate %)

<input type="checkbox"/>	State budget, national
<input type="checkbox"/>	State budget, local
<input type="checkbox"/>	mandatory levy on wage payroll
<input type="checkbox"/>	voluntary corporate contribution
<input type="checkbox"/>	external grants
<input type="checkbox"/>	external loans
<input type="checkbox"/>	mixed funding (public/private)
100%	

11. Cost of training (indicate % of courses)

<input type="checkbox"/>	free of charge
<input type="checkbox"/>	direct payment by trainee
<input type="checkbox"/>	direct payment by employer
<input type="checkbox"/>	compensation for employer's contribution
<input type="checkbox"/>	state subsidy (scholarships)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Others (specify)
100%	

## 12. Participation by social actors (check appropriate box)

	in policy definition	in identification of types of training	in training delivery
State			
corporate chambers, employer's organizations			
trade unions			
private training providers			
enterprises			
Others (specify)			

## 13. Annual budget for training

1996 \_\_\_\_\_  
 1999 \_\_\_\_\_  
 2001 \_\_\_\_\_

***Women's participation in vocational and technical training***

14. Does your institution currently have any specific measures, guidelines or initiatives to increase, upgrade or ensure female participation in its enrolment?

- Yes (go to Question 15)  
 It did, but discontinued (go to Question 23)  
 No (go to Question 25)

15. If yes, specify what these guidelines or initiatives are:

recommendations	
directives (policy, institutional level)	
specific programmes	
pilot activities	
others	

*Please use additional pages, if necessary.*



16. Please describe them further in terms of the following:

dissemination and promotion	
vocational guidance	
study of labour market to identify training needs, opportunities, alternative entry points	
review and/or adaptation of curricular development	
review and/or adaptation of teaching materials	
teaching staff and/or institutional awareness	
changes in training premises/facilities	
trainee targeting or selection procedures	
specific strategies (courses to level off differences in academic preparation; easing of entry requirements; scholarships; support for child minding services; coordination with other training or community entities; credit support; etc.)	
evaluation and follow-up	
support to find employment	
others (please specify)	

*Please use additional pages if necessary.*

17. When did such activities begin? \_\_\_\_\_

18. What were reasons for implementing them?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

19. Which were their main achievements?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

20. Which were greatest difficulties they encountered?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

21. Have there been substantive changes in women's participation?

21.1 In all courses:

- |      |                          |       |
|------|--------------------------|-------|
| i)   | Enrolment rates          | _____ |
| ii)  | Dropout rates            | _____ |
| iii) | Training performance     | _____ |
| iv)  | Graduations/ completions | _____ |
| v)   | Self esteem              | _____ |
| vi)  | Access to employment     | _____ |

21.2 Women's enrolment in traditionally male dominated courses

22. What are the expectations and/or provisions of your institution regarding future development of gender policies in training?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Go to Question 25.

23. Please describe them and explain the reasons why they were discontinued (go to Question 25).

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

24. Why has it not been deemed necessary so far to promote women's participation? Is there an intention or interest in doing so in the future?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

***Participation of other social groups***

25. Does your training institution currently have any specific measures, guidelines or initiatives to increase or upgrade the participation of a particular social group (s) in society? (For example, a specific ethnic community)

- Yes (Go to Question 26)
- It did, but were discontinued (Go to Question 27)
- Planned: specify which social groups

\_\_\_\_\_

26. If yes, what social group (s)?

\_\_\_\_\_

26.a. Please describe these guidelines or initiatives according to the same boxes as Question 14 and Question 15 on initiatives for women’s participation. (Please replicate same boxes for each social group identified.)

recommendations	
directives (policy, institutional level)	
specific programmes	
pilot activities	
others	

*Please use additional pages, if necessary.*

26.b. What were the reasons for implementing these guidelines or initiatives?

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26.c. In which year did these activities begin?

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26.d. What were their main achievements?

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26.e. Which were the greatest difficulties they encountered?

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Go to Question 28

27. What were they and why were they discontinued?

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***Management***

28. Does your institution have information on results regarding the training performance of:

28.a. men and women participants in its courses?

- Yes  
 No  
 planned

28.b. social groups mentioned in Question 26?

- Yes  
 No  
 Planned

Please state any clarifications about management information on training performance of social groups: \_\_\_\_\_

---

28.c. How often do you give advice and provide counselling to trainees? Is there any difference in the frequency of counselling to male and female trainees?

---



---

29. As regards women's and men's academic performance: Have any differences been detected between men and women? If so, which are the most outstanding? (drop-out, repetition, time of graduation, etc.)

---



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30. Does your institution have any information on results regarding access to employment for men and women?

Yes (Go to Question 31)

No

Planned

31. Have any differences been detected in access to employment between women and men?

Yes

No

31.a If yes, what is the relative tendency among women and among men to enter self-employment or towards wage employment? Is there a difference between them in this regard?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

31.b As regards to access to self-employment or micro entrepreneurship, what are the differences between men and women as regards access to? (For example: time for setting up business/trade; type of business or trade; earnings generated; etc.)

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

31.c As regards access to wage employment, what are the differences between men and women? (for example: time for searching for job, type of occupation, wages, etc.)

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

32. Have changes been detected in the employer's perception of female work performance and in training demands for women? Please specify.

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

33. What mechanisms or procedures have been applied in the last five years for curricular updating? Have such mechanisms taken into account the specific situation of women?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

34. In your opinion, what would be the areas (economic activities, job clusters) offering the best possibilities to women for employment and vocational development in the next two years?

What should be done to promote or improve women's participation in them?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_



## ***Annex 3.2***

### **Research Tool 3: Interview Guide for Trainers**

#### ***Introduction:***

The purpose of this study is to find out how skills and knowledge acquired by women and men students are used and help graduates of training courses improve their chances of finding or improving their employment and income, and to get trainers' (teachers') views on how benefits from training courses can be improved for women and men. Information and views expressed by respondents will be kept confidential; data will be reported in aggregate terms.

#### ***Notes for Interviewer***

1. It is important that trainers who teach female-dominated courses/subjects and male dominated courses are selected and interviewed; and that there should be same number of male trainers and female trainers. It is also important, where possible, to interview male trainers teaching "female" subjects and female trainers teaching "male" courses.
2. This interview guide is meant to be administered personally. The interviewer should probe and try to elicit answers that are clear, precise and complete.
3. On question 12, it is important to document the nature of composition of the classes taught along ethnicity, caste, religion, etc. if any of these factors are significant in the country or area. The national consultant for this research should design the appropriate multiple choice responses. This could follow the multiple choice responses of Question 11 on age composition.
4. The interviewer should note down observations regarding the interview situation that might have had an influence on the responses of respondent.

**Trainer's Profile**

1. Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Surname: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Institution: \_\_\_\_\_
3. Profile of courses taught:
  - Subject: \_\_\_\_\_
  - Duration of course: \_\_\_\_\_ months \_\_\_\_\_ days
  - Number of students: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Type of contract:
 

Part-time _____	Full-time _____
Temporary employee: _____	Permanent employee: _____
5. Year since employed in institution: \_\_\_\_\_
6. Sex \_\_\_ female \_\_\_ male
7. Age: \_\_\_\_\_
8. Educational attainment: \_\_\_\_\_
9. Length of work experience as trainer: \_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months

**Composition of classes taught (rough description)**

10. Percentage of women in classes
  - \_\_\_ less than 25 %
  - \_\_\_ 25-50 %
  - \_\_\_ 50-75 %
  - \_\_\_ 75-100 %
11. Age composition of classes
  - \_\_\_ predominantly (60 % and more) less than 25 years old
  - \_\_\_ predominantly (60% and more) 25-35 years old
  - \_\_\_ predominantly (60% and more) 35 years old and above
  - \_\_\_ very few or no one above 35 years old
  - \_\_\_ relatively evenly distributed across ages
12. Composition on other important factors (multiple answers are possible).
  - 12.1 geographical origins:
 

_____ Central	_____ North	_____ Northeastern	_____ South
_____ Highland (tribal community)	_____ Others (specify) _____		



12.2 language facilities:

\_\_\_\_\_ Standard Thai      \_\_\_\_\_ Northern Thai dialect      \_\_\_\_\_ Isan(Lao)  
\_\_\_\_\_ Southern Thai dialect      \_\_\_\_\_ Yawi      \_\_\_\_\_ Chinese  
\_\_\_\_\_ Hill tribal dialect (specify) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

12.3 religion:

\_\_\_\_\_ Buddhism      \_\_\_\_\_ Christianity      \_\_\_\_\_ Islam      \_\_\_\_\_ Hindu  
\_\_\_\_\_ Animism / ancestors worship      \_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

12.4 education attainment:

\_\_\_\_\_ no schooling or did not complete primary school  
\_\_\_\_\_ primary school      \_\_\_\_\_ lower secondary school  
\_\_\_\_\_ upper secondary school      \_\_\_\_\_ lower vocational training  
\_\_\_\_\_ upper vocational training      \_\_\_\_\_ bachelor degree or higher

***Training performance of women and men***

13. Have you observed differences between the academic performance of women and that of men in the classes you teach? For example on the basis of attendance, dropout rate, repetition rate, performance in exams, graduation, etc. Please elaborate.

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14. To what reasons would you attribute these differences?

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15. Have you observed other differences in training performance among different groups of your students? (For example, young versus older students; one ethnic or indigenous group versus another).

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16. To what reasons would you attribute these differences?

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17. As a trainer, have you tried to narrow these differences? In what way?

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***Skills needs and opportunities of women and men***

18. What do you think are the strong and weak points of women and men respectively?

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19. Do you believe women are more suited for certain job or trades? What might these be?

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20. What are the reasons for your belief that certain skills are more appropriate for women?

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21. Have you tried to encourage women and men to enroll in non-traditional courses? In what way?

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22. Does your institution currently have any specific guidelines or initiatives to increase or upgrade female participation in its male-dominated training courses and vice versa? What are your views on these guidelines or initiatives?

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***Classroom Climate***

23. Do you encourage participation from women students in especially male-dominated class and vice versa? What are some of the ways in which you do?

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24. In your classes or in your training institution, are you aware of any incident involving sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature that was unwelcome, unreasonable, or offensive to the recipient?

---

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25. Please indicate whether you are aware of each of the following incidents happening in or around your training centre:

	No	Yes	Frequency
Telling sexual jokes			
Sexual comments about someone's body or clothes			
Repeatedly asking someone out who has made it clear she or he is not interested			
Belittling remarks regarding one's gender group in the form of jokes and stereotypes			
Paying unwanted attention to someone (eg. leering, staring)			
Unwanted touching of clothes, hair, or body			
Exposing oneself or touching or rubbing oneself around another person			

26. Does your training institution or centre have any guideline regarding sexual harassment<sup>18</sup> and complaints that might be filed by students against another student or teacher?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

27. As a trainer, what would you do if one of your female student told you that she had been sexually harassed by one of male students in your class?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

<sup>18</sup> Key elements of sexual harassment are:

- (i) Conduct of a sexual nature and other conduct based on sex affecting the women and men, which is unwelcome, unreasonable, and offensive to the recipient;
- (ii) Where a person's rejection of, or submission to, such conduct is used explicitly or implicitly as a basis for a decision which affects that person's job (access to vocational training or employment, continued employment, promotion, salary or any other employment decision); and
- (iii) Conduct which creates an intimidating hostile or humiliating working environment for the recipient.



### **Annex 3.3**

#### **Research Tool 4: Focussed Group Discussion (FGD) Guide for Current Trainees/Students**

##### ***Introduction:***

The purpose this study is to find out how skills and knowledge acquired through training courses such as yours help women and men trainees improve their chances of finding or improving their employment and income, how trainees use these skills and knowledge, and trainees' own views about training they have received. Graduates as well as current trainees/students like yourselves will be interviewed. With the information obtained through these interviews, we hop to be able to identify measures for improving the relevance and usefulness of training courses for people like you.

##### ***Notes on FGD Guide:***

1. The FGD Facilitator should document how the participants were selected, the atmosphere during the FGD, questions which participants hesitated to answer, questions which were found difficult to answer.
2. A participants Information Form should be prepared beforehand following the suggested information items. Tome before the FGD itself should be devoted to the completion of this form. The form should be explained to the whole group.
3. Multiple choice income categories should be set up by national consultant-researcher for Questions on individual and household income under the Participants profile, based on conventional and comparable categories in the country. Indicate exchange rate with US Dollar. Also indicate local concept of "household".
4. Information about religious affiliation and ethnicity is suggested in countries/areas where these are important enough to possibly determine rights and access to resources and opportunities, and differences in gender-based norms and relations.
5. It is often more effective to hold separate FGDs for women and for men.
6. Facilitators of FGDs must have had previous experience and training in facilitating such exercises.

The facilitator should pass around the ***Basic Information Sheet***, which is attached as Annex, to each participant before or after the focussed group discussion.

In each group, at least 10 trainees should be secured for future tracer studies

## FGD identification

Institution:

Training class or classes:

Date of FGD:

Venue:

Facilitator(s) of FGD:

## Focussed Group Discussion

### Access to information about training

1. How did you come to know about this training course?
  - \_\_\_\_\_ through media (radio, newspapers, etc.)
  - \_\_\_\_\_ through announcement at a local government/administration office
  - \_\_\_\_\_ through personal contacts (relatives, friends, groups)
  - \_\_\_\_\_ others; specify: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Would you say that it is relatively easy to obtain information about training courses around or near your community?
3. How did you come to attend this training course? Please explain.
  - 3.1 Did you choose to register in this course? Why?
  - 3.2 Did someone suggest or persuade you to attend this course? Who?
  - 3.3 Did you apply and then were selected by a “screening or selection” committee?  
Do you know the criteria used for selection?
  - 3.4 What other alternative training courses did you choose from?

### Expected benefits

4. What new skills and knowledge have you learned? or expect to acquire by the time you complete this training?
  - 4.1 What other benefits do you expect to gain from this training?
5. What do you plan to do after completing this training? Do you think the skills and knowledge learned here will be useful for achieving plans? How?
  - 5.1 Do you foresee any problem which might hinder you in achieving your plans?

6. If certain trainees do not have plans or don't know what to do after training, probe why this is so, and pose: Do you need information on what is worthwhile doing? Do you need advice and guidance? Are your plans dependant on the views of
7. If you had the money and resources to obtain the training you wanted and needed, would you have preferred another training? If yes, what training would that be?

### **Perceived suitable skills and jobs**

8. In your opinion, which skills and knowledge do women in your community need? Why are these skills and knowledge necessary?
9. Which jobs or trades should women be trained to do? Are there differences between jobs and trades that women can be trained to do and those that men can be trained to do?
10. Some say that we should encourage women to obtain training in a wide range of skills, and to do a wide range of trades or jobs, even those often done by men. Do you agree or disagree with this?

### **Training context and environment**

11. What do you consider your most rewarding or satisfactory experience during this training period?
12. What was your most unpleasant experience? Can you identify top three difficulties that you encountered. How did you deal with these faculties?
13. Have you heard of any incident of sexual harassment in this training centre, or do you know of anyone who has experienced this? (explain forms of sexual harassment; refer to ILO definition).
  - 13.1 What would you do if this happened to you? Is there a way of seeking help from your teacher or the training management?

**Basic Information Sheet**  
**For participants in Focussed Group Discussions**

1. Name (may be fictional, unless participant volunteers to be in the future tracer study):

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

2. Training course: \_\_\_\_\_

3. Training cycle or period: \_\_\_\_\_

4. Date due to complete training course: \_\_\_\_\_

5. Sex \_\_\_\_\_ female \_\_\_\_\_ male

6. Age: \_\_\_\_\_ years

7. Civil status:

\_\_\_\_\_ married

\_\_\_\_\_ widow/widower

\_\_\_\_\_ divorced or seperated

\_\_\_\_\_ never been married

8. Number of dependants (children and/or others without incomes)

9. Geographical origins:

\_\_\_\_\_ Central \_\_\_\_\_ North \_\_\_\_\_ Northeastern \_\_\_\_\_ South

\_\_\_\_\_ Highland (tribal community) \_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

10. Language facilities:

\_\_\_\_\_ Standard Thai \_\_\_\_\_ Northern Thai dialect \_\_\_\_\_ Isan(Lao)

\_\_\_\_\_ Southern Thai dialect \_\_\_\_\_ Yawi \_\_\_\_\_ Chinese

\_\_\_\_\_ Hill tribal dialect (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

11. Religion:

\_\_\_\_\_ Buddhism \_\_\_\_\_ Christianity \_\_\_\_\_ Islam \_\_\_\_\_ Hindu

\_\_\_\_\_ Animism / ancestors worship \_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

X12. Education attainment:

\_\_\_\_\_ no schooling or did not complete primary schoo

\_\_\_\_\_ primary school \_\_\_\_\_ lower secondary school

\_\_\_\_\_ upper secondary school \_\_\_\_\_ lower vocational training

\_\_\_\_\_ upper vocational training \_\_\_\_\_ bachelor degree or higher



12. Previous training courses attended. Specify:

In which skill area, for what occupation:

\_\_\_\_\_

Duration (in weeks): \_\_\_\_\_

Venue of training: \_\_\_\_\_

Completed or not? \_\_\_\_\_

Certificates obtained? \_\_\_\_\_

13. Currently working or not? \_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_ No

14. Worked before training? \_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_ No

If yes to either 13 or 14, specify:

\_\_\_\_ wage employee

\_\_\_\_ own-account

\_\_\_\_ proprietor-employer  
(with at least 1 paid employee)

\_\_\_\_ helping family business

\_\_\_\_ others

nature of business: \_\_\_\_\_

place of work:

\_\_\_\_ homebased

\_\_\_\_ fixed location outside home

\_\_\_\_ mobile, no fixed location

15. Total number of years of work experience \_\_\_\_\_

16. Do you pay for any expenses related to this course?

\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_ No

17. If certain costs are covered by trainee: how do you finance these costs?

\_\_\_\_ from your personal funds/savings

\_\_\_\_ financial support from family (parent, spouse)

\_\_\_\_ other source, specify: \_\_\_\_\_

18. Income earned personally (per month)

\_\_\_\_\_ - \_\_\_\_\_ baht

19. Income of household (per month)

\_\_\_\_\_ - \_\_\_\_\_ baht

- 
20. Work done by father: \_\_\_\_\_  
21. Work done by mother: \_\_\_\_\_

### Future Tracer Study

1. Would you be interested and willing to participate in a future study? We would like to know what your experiences will be after you have completed this training, so that we can suggest how training can be improved or what support graduates require after training.  
\_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      \_\_\_\_\_ No

2. If yes, please give

- 2.1 Current residential address:

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Telephone: \_\_\_\_\_ E-mail: \_\_\_\_\_

- 2.2 Permanent residential address (your best contact within year)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Telephone: \_\_\_\_\_ E-mail: \_\_\_\_\_

## ***Annex 3.4***

### **Research Tool 5: Tracer Study of Graduates**

#### ***Introduction:***

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out how graduates of the training course/programme have used the skills and knowledge acquired through the training course, whether the training received was relevant or not, whether it helped graduates find employment or set up a business, or improve their living and working conditions, and which conditions helped or hampered graduates in improving employment and incomes.

Specific information given by a particular Respondent will be kept confidential and will be used only for the purpose of this study. Data will be analysed and reported in aggregates.

Date of interview: \_\_\_\_\_

Interviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

#### ***Notes for Researcher/Interviewer:***

1. This questionnaire is meant to be administered personally. Although most questions provide for possible responses, there are a number of questions which are open-ended. Open-ended questions need precise and clear answers so that these can be classified during data analysis.
2. The national researcher and her/his team could suggest multiple choice response categories based on known local situation in order to minimize open-ended questions.
3. Probing is critical to minimize “no answer” response.
4. It is expected that this questionnaire will be translated and adapted to local situation.
5. The interviewer is expected to document observations about the interview situation.

**Graduate identification**

1. Name: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Address: \_\_\_\_\_
3. Course identification  
course title: \_\_\_\_\_  
date course was completed: \_\_\_\_\_

**Graduate profile**

4. Sex            \_\_\_\_\_ Female    \_\_\_\_\_ Male
5. Disabled      \_\_\_\_\_ Yes        \_\_\_\_\_ No
6. How old are you?  
    \_\_\_ 18-20  
    \_\_\_ 21-25  
    \_\_\_ 26-30  
    \_\_\_ 31-40  
    \_\_\_ above 40
7. What is your marital status?  
    \_\_\_ never married  
    \_\_\_ currently married  
    \_\_\_ widowed  
    \_\_\_ divorced/separated/abandoned
8. Do you have children?    \_\_\_ Yes    \_\_\_ No
- X 9. Geographical origins:  
    \_\_\_\_\_ Central        \_\_\_\_\_ North        \_\_\_\_\_ Northeastern        \_\_\_\_\_ South  
    \_\_\_\_\_ Highland (tribal community)        \_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
10. Language facilities:  
    \_\_\_\_\_ Standard Thai        \_\_\_\_\_ Northern Thai dialect        \_\_\_\_\_ Isan(Lao)  
    \_\_\_\_\_ Southern Thai dialect        \_\_\_\_\_ Yawi        \_\_\_\_\_ Chinese  
    \_\_\_\_\_ Hill tribal dialect (specify) \_\_\_\_\_  
    \_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
11. Religion:  
    \_\_\_\_\_ Buddhism        \_\_\_\_\_ Christianity        \_\_\_\_\_ Islam        \_\_\_\_\_ Hindu  
    \_\_\_\_\_ Animism / ancestors worship        \_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

12. Education attainment:  
\_\_\_\_\_ no schooling or did not complete primary school  
\_\_\_\_\_ primary school                      \_\_\_\_\_ lower secondary school  
\_\_\_\_\_ upper secondary school        \_\_\_\_\_ lower vocational training  
\_\_\_\_\_ upper vocational training        \_\_\_\_\_ bachelor degree or higher
13. What did your mother do for a living? \_\_\_\_\_
14. How many years of schooling did she have? \_\_\_\_\_
15. What did your father do for a living? \_\_\_\_\_
16. How many years of schooling did he have? \_\_\_\_\_

### Questions on income

17. When you have to work, do you pool your earnings with the household?  
\_\_ Yes \_\_ No
- 17.1. If Yes: what percent of your earnings did you contribute to the pool last week or in the last week worked?  
\_\_ none  
\_\_ about  
\_\_ about  
\_\_ about  
\_\_ all or almost all
- 17.2. If Yes: what share of the total household income is your earnings?  
\_\_ less than  
\_\_ about  
\_\_ about  
\_\_ about  
\_\_ all or almost all
18. Including yourself, how many in your household earn for a living? \_\_\_\_\_
19. Who is the main income earner in your household?  
\_\_ Respondent  
\_\_ spouse  
\_\_ father  
\_\_ mother  
\_\_ other male family member  
\_\_ other female family member
20. Do you need further assistance to improve your employment or income situation, to find a job or to start a business?  
\_\_ Yes \_\_ No
- 20.1. If yes: what form of assistance? \_\_\_\_\_

## Occupational Safety and Health

21. Have you ever become sick while you were working?  
Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_
22. If yes, what type of sickness have you experienced (multiple answers)?  
Feeling weak and exhausted \_\_\_  
Back pains \_\_\_  
Respiratory problems (asthma, lung pains, etc) \_\_\_  
Eye troubles \_\_\_  
Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
23. In your opinion, what was the cause of your specific illness (ex. Long working hours, bad light, etc)?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
24. Have you ever had an accident at work?  
Yes (specify) \_\_\_\_\_  
No \_\_\_
25. Have you worked at any time during the past year, whether paid or unpaid?  
Yes\_\_ (Use Form A: Questions for those currently engaged in economic activities)  
No \_\_ (Use Form B: Questions for those without any economic activities)

### Form A

#### Questions for graduates currently engaged in economic activities

26. What did you do to earn money for a living during the past year? (multiple answers possible)
- Activity 1: \_\_\_\_\_  
Activity 2: \_\_\_\_\_  
Activity 3: \_\_\_\_\_
27. Do/did you use any of skills and knowledge taught in the training course?  
\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_ No
- 27.1. If Yes: what skills do/did you use? For what activity, function, task?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 27.2. If No: why not?  
\_\_\_ skills and knowledge not relevant to what you do/did  
\_\_\_ did not know how to apply skills/knowledge in your work  
\_\_\_ application needed resources (cash, etc) which I did not have these  
\_\_\_ this needed business decisions over which I had no or adequate control  
\_\_\_ other reasons

28. Which of the above activities that you mentioned is your main activity?

---

29. Do you get paid for your main activity?

Paid\_\_\_\_ (go to next question)Unpaid\_\_\_\_(go to A1)

30. How would you classify yourself:

\_\_ self-employed or doing own business (may be own-account, involved in family business, or partner in a business) (Go to A2)

\_\_ employed as a wage worker (Go to A3)

\_\_ member of a producers' cooperative or a group (Go to A2)

\_\_ combination of the above (Go to A2)

31. On average, how much do you spend on each of these activities per month (baht)?

Household maintenance (utilities, household appliances): \_\_\_\_\_

Rent or mortgage payment: \_\_\_\_\_

Family care (nutrition, education, child care, etc): \_\_\_\_\_

Health care (medical treatment, check-ups, etc): \_\_\_\_\_

Transport, petro, car/motorcycle payment: \_\_\_\_\_

Dept payment: \_\_\_\_\_

Other expenses (clothes, entertainment, etc): \_\_\_\_\_

**A1: Respondents doing non-remunerative work**

32. What are the main activities you were engaged in during the past 12 months? (Multiple answers possible)

Activity 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Activity 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Activity 3: \_\_\_\_\_

33. What are your main sources of income?

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**A2: Self-employed respondents**

34. Can you please tell me more about your own business. If you have/had several business activities, let us talk about the most important one. Are/were you:

own-account (does not hire paid employee on regular basis; perhaps engages unpaid family workers)

owner-employer of a business (hires regularly at least one paid employee)

partner/co-manager/helper in a business run by a family member

co-owner/partner in a business outside of household or family

35. When did you start this business, or participate in this business?

after training (give month, year): \_\_\_\_\_

before training (give month, year): \_\_\_\_\_

during training (give month, year): \_\_\_\_\_

36. Did you put in funds to start the business?

Yes  No

36.1. If No: who put in the funds to start the business: \_\_\_\_\_

36.2. If yes, where did you get the funds (multiple answers) ?

personal savings

spouse

parent

money lender

government programme:

+ grant (no need to pay back) (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

+ loan (to be re-paid) (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

NGO programme (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

+ grant (no need to pay back) (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

+ loan (to be re-paid) (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

cooperative (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

commercial bank

37. What was the amount of money that you invested? \_\_\_\_\_

38. How many loans have you taken in the past 12 months to operate your business?

\_\_\_\_\_

38.1. How large were each of these loans?

A. \_\_\_\_\_

B. \_\_\_\_\_

C. \_\_\_\_\_

D. \_\_\_\_\_



38.2. What were the sources of these loans (multiple answers)?

- personal savings
- spouse
- parent
- money lender
- government programme:
  - + grant (no need to pay back) (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
  - + loan (to be re-paid) (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
- NGO programme (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
  - + grant (no need to pay back) (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
  - + loan (to be re-paid) (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
- cooperative (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
- commercial bank
- others (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

38.3. What is the main reason for your taking these loans?

- for business
- for emergencies
- for daily livelihood
- others (specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

38.4. How often do you take loans?

- daily
- a few times a week
- once a week
- twice a week
- monthly
- as needed

38.5. What is the status of your loan repayment?

- completed
  - on schedule:
    - experiencing no difficulty in repayment
    - experiencing some difficulty in repayment
  - not on schedule/ in debt
- (explain reasons: \_\_\_\_\_)

39. **For Respondents who set up business BEFORE training:** Did you observe any difference in the way you managed/operated your business before and after training?

Yes  No

39.1. If Yes: what was/were the difference (s)?

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39.2. Did this difference help improve your business in any way?

- volume of production
- product quality and design
- volume of sales
- new/diversified markets
- revenue net of cost of production
- less fatigue, less drudgery
- higher earnings

40. What problems or difficulties have you encountered in doing this business?

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### A3: Wage employees

41. I would like to talk about your job. Can you describe what you do/did?

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42. Please give employer's name (an enterprise, a family or an individual).

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43. When were you employed in this job?

- after training (give month, year)
- before training (give month, year)
- during training (give month, year)

44. How did you come to know about this job?

- through family
- through friends and neighbours
- through local government
- through NGO
- others; specify: \_\_\_\_\_

45. For Respondent who found the job AFTER the training: Did the fact that you had completed the training course help in any way for you to get the job?

- Yes  No

46. For Respondent who found the job BEFORE the training course: Did you observe any difference in the way you performed your job before and after training?

- Yes  No

46.1. If Yes: can you please explain what are differences? \_\_\_\_\_

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47. Do/did you work regular hours or irregular hours?  
\_\_\_\_\_ regular \_\_\_\_\_ hrs. per day  
\_\_\_\_\_ irregular depending on: \_\_\_\_\_ numbers of hours on demand of employer  
\_\_\_\_\_ own availability for work
48. How many hours did you actually work on this job  
most recent week \_\_\_\_\_  
most recent quarter \_\_\_\_\_

THANK YOU!

### **Form B**

#### **Questions for graduates without any economic activity**

#### **If Respondent had no activity at all to earn a living within the past 12 months:**

49. Did you try to find a job?  
\_\_ Yes \_\_ No
- 49.1. If No: why not?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 49.2. If Yes: what were the reasons why you could not get a job? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
50. Did you try to start a business?  
\_\_ Yes \_\_ No
- 50.1. If No: why not? \_\_\_\_\_
- 50.2. If Yes: what were the reasons why you could not do so?  
\_\_\_\_\_

THANK YOU!

**Annex 3.5****Research Tool 6:  
Guide for Site Visit of Training Premises****Introduction:**

The purpose of the site visit of premises where training programmes are being conducted is to determine whether or not facilities present certain barriers to equal participation of women and men in training courses, and/or encourage women's participation.

**Training site identification**

Training site being visited: \_\_\_\_\_

Date visited: \_\_\_\_\_

Visit done by: \_\_\_\_\_

**Type of training premises**

1. Type:
  - fixed
  - mobile (site selected for a particular training)

**Physical condition of training site**

2. Shelter from sun, rain, winds, etc:
  - adequate
  - inadequate (specify condition) \_\_\_\_\_
3. Lighting:
  - adequate
  - inadequate (specify condition) \_\_\_\_\_
  - \_\_\_\_\_
4. Ventilation:
  - adequate
  - inadequate (specify condition) \_\_\_\_\_
5. Seats:
  - no seats
  - adequate number
  - inadequate number (specify condition) \_\_\_\_\_

**Occupancy**

6. Number of rooms devoted to delivery of training courses: \_\_\_\_
7. Total number of trainees who can be trained in one given day: \_\_\_\_

### Training equipment and materials

8. Is there a sufficient number of equipment per trainee?  
Yes \_\_\_  
No (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
9. Is the equipment up-to-date in terms of technology and use?  
Yes \_\_\_  
No (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
10. Are there sufficient training materials per trainee? (Examples: fabric for sewing classes, clay for pottery classes, etc)  
Yes \_\_\_  
No (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

### Toilets

11. Separate toilets for women and men  
\_\_\_ yes            \_\_\_ no
12. Number of toilets accessible to female trainees \_\_\_\_
13. Number of toilets accessible to male trainees \_\_\_\_
14. Do toilets for women provide adequate privacy?  
\_\_\_ yes            \_\_\_ no  
14.1. if no: in what way privacy not adequate?  
\_\_\_\_\_

### Sleeping quarters for lived-in trainees

15. Existence of sleeping quarters for women  
\_\_\_ yes            \_\_\_ no
16. Existence of sleeping quarters for men  
\_\_\_ yes            \_\_\_ no
17. Sleeping quarters for women provide adequate privacy  
\_\_\_ yes            \_\_\_ no  
17.1. If no: in what way privacy not adequate?  
\_\_\_\_\_
18. If there are no sleeping quarters: if trainees cannot go home every night, what arrangements are available to them? \_\_\_\_\_

### Physical accessibility of training site

19. Considering the geographical coverage that training site is expected service, how can trainees coming from the farthest possible point reach the site?  
\_\_\_by foot: average number of minutes \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_by public transport: average number of minutes \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_by personal transportation: average number of minutes \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_by other means \_\_\_\_\_: average number of minutes \_\_\_\_\_



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