

การปรับตัวด้านความเป็นอยู่และการทำงานของแรงงานอพยพไทยในไต้หวัน



นางสาวชู่หึง ชาง

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ADAPTATION TO LIVING AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT OF THAI
MIGRANT WORKERS IN TAIWAN



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งานชุดหลัง : การปรับตัวด้านการใช้ชีวิตและการทำงานของแรงงานไทยในไต้หวัน(ADAPTATION TO LIVING AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT OF THAI MIGRANT WORKERS IN TAIWAN) อ.ที่
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การศึกษาวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาสถานการณ์ของระดับการปรับตัวของแรงงานไทยในไต้หวัน, เพื่อวิเคราะห์ระดับการปรับตัวของแรงงานไทยในด้านการทำงานที่ไม่ปลอดภัยและสภาพความเป็นอยู่ซึ่งมีความแตกต่างกันไปตามขนาดของสถานที่ทำงานในไต้หวัน และเพื่อศึกษานโยบายและบริการที่กำหนดโดยรัฐบาลไต้หวันเกี่ยวกับสิทธิประโยชน์และการคุ้มครองแรงงานไทย ในการศึกษานี้ได้ตั้งสมมติฐานไว้ว่าแรงงานไทยในไต้หวันซึ่งทำงานอยู่ในสถานประกอบการขนาดกลางและเล็กมีระดับของการทำงานและการปรับตัวในการใช้ชีวิตที่ต่ำกว่าแรงงานไทยที่ทำงานอยู่ในสถานประกอบการขนาดใหญ่ ภาพรวมของการศึกษามุ่งประเด็นที่ผลกระทบของสถานประกอบการขนาดใหญ่, กลางและเล็กที่มีต่อการปรับตัวของแรงงานไทยในไต้หวันได้อย่างไร

การศึกษาใช้แบบสอบถามเป็นเครื่องมือเก็บข้อมูลกับกลุ่มตัวอย่างซึ่งเก็บได้จำนวนทั้งสิ้น 373 ราย กลุ่มตัวอย่างทั้งหมดเป็นแรงงานที่ทำงานแบบมีสัญญาจ้างถูกต้องตามกฎหมาย และทำงานอยู่ในเขตหุนหลิน ภาคกลางของไต้หวัน ในการประยุกต์ใช้สถิติ ผู้วิจัยได้นำข้อมูลมาวิเคราะห์และทดสอบสมมติฐานโดยใช้การวิเคราะห์แบบ t-test โดยกำหนดอัตราค่าอัลฟาอยู่ที่ระดับ 0. 05 สมมติฐาน(H1)ได้รับการยอมรับ แต่สมมติฐานข้อ H0 ไม่ได้รับการยอมรับ

แรงงานไทยที่ทำงานอยู่ในสถานประกอบการขนาดใหญ่จะมีค่าการปรับตัวสูงอยู่ในระดับสี่ซึ่งชี้ให้เห็นว่าแรงงานไทยเหล่านี้โดยเฉลี่ยแล้วปรับตัวได้ง่ายกว่าแรงงานไทยที่ทำงานอยู่ในสถานประกอบการขนาดกลางและเล็กซึ่งมีค่าการปรับตัวที่ต่ำอยู่ในระดับสองและชี้ให้เห็นว่าแรงงานไทยเหล่านี้มีการปรับตัวที่ยากลำบาก ดังนั้นข้อค้นพบของการวิจัยนี้จึงได้รับการเห็นด้วยตามสมมติฐานที่ได้ตั้งไว้

นอกจากนั้น นโยบายและการให้บริการ, สิทธิขั้นพื้นฐานและตัวชี้วัดต่อเนื่องได้ถูกนำเสนอไว้ใน “รายงานการคุ้มครองสิทธิของแรงงานต่างชาติ”

สาขาวิชา : เอเชียตะวันออกเฉียงใต้ศึกษา

ลายเซ็นนิสิต..... 

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ลายเซ็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก..... 

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KEY WORDS: ADAPTATION, MIGRANT WORKERS, CULTURAL COMPETENCE

TZU-LING CHANG: ADAPTATION TO LIVING AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT OF THAI MIGRANT WORKERS IN TAIWAN. THESIS PRINCIPAL ADVISOR: PROF. DR. SUPANG CHANTAVANICH., 142p.

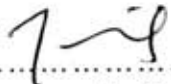
The objectives of this research are to investigate the general situation of adaptation level of Thai migrant workers, to analyze Thai workers' adaptation level to unsafe working and living environment which varied with different sizes of manufacturing companies in Taiwan and to study what policy and services have been offered by Taiwanese government to the migrant workers' rights and protection. In this research, it is hypothesized that Thai migrant workers in Taiwan who are working in small and medium manufacturing companies have lower level of working and living environment adaptation than those who are working in large manufacturing companies. The overall research focuses on how large and medium and small manufacturing companies affect the adaptation level of Thai migrant workers in Taiwan.

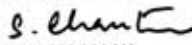
Questionnaire is the main tool to collect data from respondents. Totally, 373 Thai migrant contracted workers have been selected in Yun Lin County in Taiwan. Inferential statistic analysis is applied and test of hypothesis is analyzed by t-test. The alpha risk set at 0.05. The hypothesis (H1) is accepted and null hypothesis (H0) is rejected. Thai migrant workers in large company are in the fourth level of high level of adaptation which indicates that they are in average easy to adapt whereas Thai migrant workers in small and medium companies are in the second level of low adaptation level which indicates that they are in average difficult to adapt. Therefore, the finding of this research has confirmed the hypothesis in this study.

With regard to policy and services, the basic rights and the related measures are provided in the "Report on Protection of the Rights of Foreign Workers".

Field of Studies: Southeast Asian Studies

Academic Year: 2008

Student's signature.....

Principal Advisor's signature.....

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Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Rationale

In this age of globalization, we are seeing an increasing number of immigrants and people seeking work abroad. “Instead of migrating to the Middle East for jobs, more Asians are migrating from one country to another within Asia for temporary employment”. Martin, Mason & Nagayama (1996). Although Taiwan has both white- and blue-collar foreign workers, if you look at the numbers, the less than 10,000 white-collar workers who come from mainly the US, Japan, and Europe make up far less than half of Taiwan's more than 300,000 foreign workers related by Tsai.¹

Statistics of Ministry of the Interior show that the number of migrant foreigners in Taiwan has grown from 260,000 in 1994 to over 500,000 in June 2006. Of these 500,000 new arrivals, 430,000 are foreign laborers and immigrants from Southeast Asian nations. Still, the number of Southeast Asian laborers and spouses continues to grow. Within this huge group of foreign laborers and immigrants, Thais make up the largest percentage with 33.9%, while Filipinos come in second with 28.7.²

For Thailand, labor migration reduces local unemployment and makes a huge amount of remittances each year. Remittances are a source of income to rural people. For workers, to improve their living conditions, they can get higher wages and save some money after paying off debts by the high recruitment fees. However, the high recruitment fee was a major disadvantage to workers, as they have to work 8 to 12 months to break even.

As Thailand is a typical fast-growing developing country, the new economic theory of migration (Stark, 1991) might be a suitable alternative in accounting for the migration of Thai workers. In this perspective, the decision unit of migration is the household. Household members collaborate by sending familial members out as a

¹ (<http://www.taiwanembassy.org/us/nyc/ct.asp?xItem=29368&ctNode=3483&mp=62>).

² Ibid

mean of minimizing household risk and loosening market constraints. In sharp contrast to the cost-benefit calculation of the human capital theory, the new economics of migration theory views migration as triggered by household feelings of relative deprivation (Tsay& Lin, 2001). A person will feel relatively deprived if his income falls below the mean income of his reference group by a certain amount. The remittances received by the families with out-migrants would help increase their income. For the families without out- migrants, this would then intensify their sense of relative deprivation, which in turn would motivate them to start sending out some of their family members. Therefore, this theory suggests that an international labor migration process, once started, tends to be self- perpetuating. In this sense, the successful outcomes of Thai migrant workers in Taiwan would be crucial to the potential migrants staying behind in Thailand making decisions to move to Taiwan for work (Tsay& Lin, 2001).

Moreover, Thai workers are not considered to be adaptable to new working and living conditions (Conditions in Destination Countries, 2001). Many workers have experienced loneliness, homesickness and deteriorating physical and mental health.

Due to the reasons of cultural differences, fear of being sent back, employers' strict rules, language barrier, work tiredness and inconvenient transportation and entertainment, Thai workers have problems in adaptation. Once they suffered from adaptation problems, they also have difficulties to solve their problems in Taiwan due to lack of solutions to solve their problems. Indeed, the hardship of unsafe working and living adaptation which influence some Thai workers with the sense of inferiority, thus, they feel uncomfortable to communicate their problems with people.

In current literature, most authors have discussed cultural competence from the perspective of domestic workers. Based on such as perspective, the major inquiry in those studies has been how people in the domestic system (e.g. education and health care) could approach people from underrepresented groups. Such an inquiry started from the position of the majority or dominate cultural groups, and the major purpose of those articles was to find methods to help those educators, administrators, nurses, or physicians who belonged to dominant cultures to take steps toward minority groups (Chang, 2007). In this research, it focuses on the Thai migrant workers in Taiwan. These people personally work in a culture which they are not familiar with, the cultural competence is even more challenge for them to work

abroad. In contrast to those domestic health care people, Thai migrant workers are the minority in other countries. I choose Thai migrant workers as the research population, as cultural competence is basic equipment for those who physically go abroad and provide service to the destination countries. I believe that their experience can provide a different view in the knowledge of cultural competence.

As according to the concept framework postulated by Sjaastad (1962) and Todaro (1969, 1985), the pursuit of individual well-being should be taken into account when explaining the migration of Thai workers, therefore, for both the sending and receiving countries, it is important to understand the migration outcomes for Thai migrant workers in Taiwan. Since the successful outcomes of Thai migrant workers in Taiwan would be crucial to the potential migrants staying behind in Thailand making decisions to move to Taiwan for work. In addition, Thai workers pursuit to earn higher pay in Taiwan to improve their living standard, the priority concern is that they need to be in a good condition in order to make their earnings. From the point of view of country sending workers to Taiwan, it would be necessary to investigate the problems of adaptation to Thai migrant workers in Taiwan.

In addition, not giving a proper place in the imagination or discourse of the theorists and the states, these migrants have thus found themselves unprotected by laws, local and international, and vulnerable to exploitation and abuse at the hands of the syndicates. The human costs and sufferings will become immediately visible and graphic when one begins to visualize international migration as a lucrative industry of human traffic handled by powerful, well-organized, disreputable professionals always eager to exploit (Chan, Ong & Chew 1995). Therefore, in this paper, the protection policy provided by Taiwanese government for foreign migrant workers will be examined.

1.2 Statement of Problems

In recent years, migrant worker has been an emerging phenomenon in the contemporary labor market in Asia. Taiwan has also started importing labors since the late 1980s. Indeed, Thailand has a long history of sending workers abroad. More than half amount of Thai migrant workers knew the contract just partially or very little. This fact is probably due to their low education level and lack of experience in working abroad. It also means that the recruiting agencies did not perform well in

educating and orientating workers in pre-departure training sessions. The possible danger of this event is that workers might be deprived of certain rights and benefits in Taiwan.

Moreover, most of Thai migrant workers have complained about their dangerous job, hard and dirty, their supervisors' harassment, food and accommodations. Their working and living environments have threatened their life-security. They are residing in unsafe working and living environment while they have to adapt different culture, which let them stay under the pressure. According to the Foreign Labor Service Center, many of foreign workers work long hours and have very little time for a social life. Worse, many foreign workers are exploited in terms of working conditions. For example, some workers are forced to work overtime and only allowed one day off per month.³

According to the Foreign Labor Service Center's on-job satisfaction index, an overwhelming number of foreign workers in Taipei City said that they are unhappy with their jobs. (<http://www.taiwan.com.au/Polieco/Labor/Foreign/2006/0607.html>)

From the factors of personal reasons, employers and destination country's society and environments, Thai migrant workers have problems of adaptation. The most serious problem for the Thai workers as a whole is the feeling of loneliness. This feeling represents an important component of the psychological cost of migrating to work in Taiwan (Tsay & Lin, 2001).

1.3 Research Questions

1. What is the general situation to the Thai migrant workers in adaptation in Taiwan?
2. What is the relationship between the Thai migrant workers' adaptation level to working and living environment and different sizes of large and medium and small manufacturing companies in Taiwan?
3. What is the policy on rights and protection provided by Taiwanese government to foreign workers?

³ (<http://www.taiwan.com.au/Polieco/Labor/Foreign/2006/0607.html>)

1.4 Objectives

Research objectives are divided in the following:

1. To investigate the general situation to the Thai migrant workers in adaptation in Taiwan.
2. To analyze the adaptation level to unsafe working and living environment that is varied with the foreign labor protection policy provided by manufacturing companies of different sizes.
3. To survey what policy and service offered by Taiwanese government for the foreign migrant workers.

1.5 Significance of Study

The world's population is becoming increasingly transient as individuals from all walks of life take advantage of the opportunities for working and studying outside their home countries. Whether dictated by choice or by necessity, intercultural transitions are becoming more common for millions of people, including immigrants, refugees, and others who relocate permanently, as well as travelers visiting foreign countries for shorter periods of time and those who have a specific purpose – exchange students, government workers, business people, missionaries, volunteers for various aid organizations, and others. In light of these trends that reflect the globalization of businesses, increased diversity in many countries, and growing necessity for adopting an intercultural perspective for more effective integration into society, understanding cross-cultural adaptation experiences of individuals has become a necessity (Yana, 2008).

This study would be able to suggest that people in the domestic systems in Taiwan (e.g., ministry of education and health care) could approach people from underrepresented groups and provide further information to those educators, administrators, nurses, or physicians who belonged to dominant cultures to take steps toward minority groups, since the labor market adjustment policy is usually limited in the case of cross-border labor movement rather than internal migration. From the personal point of view, the problems of adaptation should be taking into account when investigating the migration of Thai workers, since Thai workers are working in unfamiliar environment, dangerous places and on difficult tasks.

As Thailand is a typical fast –growing developing country, the new economic theory of migration suggests that an international labor migration process, once started, tend to be self- perpetuating. This study would also be able to recommend that more efforts should be made by employers, recruiters, government and workers themselves in order to produce satisfied outcomes in the migrant workers policy.

The study will be helpful not just for the Thai workers but also can be applied to the other foreign workers. Hopefully the study can help Thai workers and their employers to have a better understanding between both sides on the difficulties of adaptation. Second, the study provides more useful information for Thai workers to use medical services in Taiwan. The paper will be helpful for governments in policy making both in Thailand and Taiwan. And, the result will be useful to the future migrant workers who plan to go to Taiwan. Similarly, this study can be a further reference for medical services in Taiwan concerning migrant workers and also can be a source for a further study about Thai migrant workers in the future.

1.6 Definition of terms

1.6.1 Conceptual definition

1. Intercultural competence: an adaptive capacity based on an inclusive and integrative world view which allows participants to effectively accommodate the demands of living in a host culture (Taylor 1994).
2. Migrant worker: refers to a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he or she is not a national. (United Nations Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families 1990)
3. Under represented group: a group of people who are inadequately represented. (Merriam-Webster)
4. Large companies: large companies are doing business mainly export. Large companies usually have contracted with small and medium companies for assembly parts and components and some particular services.
5. Medium and small companies: traditional small and medium manufacturing companies, law offices, accounting offices and supermarkets, scattered every where. For medium and small

manufacturing companies is particular difficult to be internationalized, as 80% of medium and small companies are mostly doing business within country (National policy foundation).

1.6.2 Operational definition

1. Intercultural competence: involves cultural savvy, astuteness, appreciation, literacy or fluency, adaptability, terrain, expertise, competency, awareness, intelligence, and understanding. Intercultural competence is the ability of successful communication with people of other cultures. This ability can or may be developed and improved. A successful intercultural communication needs emotional competence and intercultural sensitivity. And, emotional competence refers to a person's ability in expressing or releasing their inner feelings (emotions).
2. Migrant worker: foreign workers, contract workers, immigrant workers and alien workers, refers to contract workers who work abroad and holding legal documents of working and staying.
3. Under represented group: is a problem of social status and class prejudice; a group of people who represent the minority group of people and whose social status is not equal to the majority groups of people.
4. Large companies: companies which are public listed in the stock market.
5. Small and medium companies: companies which are not public listed in the stock market.

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Chapter II

Literature review

2.1 Early Migration

Most scholars trace the contemporary migratory epoch back to the third quarter of the nineteenth century when the industrial democracies of the transatlantic area began to regulate international migration (Miller & Martin 1996). In the past, people migrated to a place through word of mouth. They walked long distances to their destinations. In the year 1846 and 1852, more than a third of a million people set out to walk to the west. Knapp (1994) mentioned that in similar way, the desire to start a new life caused hundreds of thousands to make a sea journey of many weeks from England to Australia. So people on the move are people who think that a better life lies ahead in some other place (Knapp 1994).

2.1.1 Reasons to Migrate

There are few reasons for people on the move. Slavery was an early migration. One way to ensure that enough people were available to work the fields or dig in the mines was to force them to move (Knapp 1994). The Egyptians, the Romans and the Greeks, the Arabs, the Mongols and the Incas all have slaves (Knapp 1994).

When slavery was abolished cheap workers were still increasing. So poor people like Chinese and Indian farm laborers were offered free one-way passage in exchange for working overseas. Probably some 17 million people from India went to Southeast Asia and Africa. Several million Chinese ended up in Southeast Asia and the Americas (Knapp 1994). The settlers is another reason to migrate. Some places such as Australia, New Zealand and the Americas were populated mainly by immigrants. When colonies have become independent and the Communists system has broken down, different groups sought to gain power. Violence and wars have been a threat to the world. About 70 million people have been refugees at some time or another in the last 50 years, from India to Vietnam, Nigeria to Ethiopia, and from the former Yugoslavia to the Baltic States. People migrate also because of some disaster such as flood, drought or earthquake. From Knapp (1994), the move to the cities has been greatest in the developing world, where country people see city jobs as the only

chance of scraping a living. Most find that conditions are little better than in the places they have left. So, most people migrate from the countryside because they are pushed out rather than because they are attracted to the city.

2.2 Contemporary Migration

Indeed, migration for employment is viewed as the defining feature of the contemporary period (Miller & Martin 1996). There are foreign workers in the seven major labor importing Asian areas: Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand, and most of them come from China, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand. The factors that increase labor migration in the Asia-Pacific Region are such as uneven population and economic growth, the recruitment of both professional and unskilled migrant workers, the growth of tourism, labor smuggling, stop-go policies that first tolerate and then crack down on illegal workers and labor shortages. Today, most Asian migration discussion refer to labor migration within Asia, as workers move from one Asia nation to another, such as Filipinos to Hong Kong or Singapore, or Chinese to Japan (Miller & Martin 1996).

2.2.1 Types of migration in East Asia

The migration in East Asia is of three types. First, there is a large amount of emigration of settlers from Asia to North American and Australia for seeking economic opportunity. Second is humanitarian migration within and from the region. The most significant humanitarian migrations within the region include, according to UNHCR, some 2.6 million Afghan refugees in Iran and Pakistan, 300,000 Vietnamese in China and over 200,000 Burmese in Thailand and Bangladesh (Miller & Martin 1996). The most visible refugee migration from the region was the movement of over one million Vietnamese and Cambodians to the U.S. and Canada after 1975 (Miller & Martin 1996). Third type of migration is labor migration. Labor migration in Asia began with the export of workers to Middle Eastern oil exporters. According to one estimate, only 10,000 Asian workers left Asia for the Middle East in 1971, but labor exports then exploded to one million in 1981 (Huguet, 1994).

2.3 More labor migrations within Asia in the 21st century

There are many reasons to expect more rather than less labor migration within Asia in the 21st century. First, many of the fastest growing countries have depleted traditional reserves of flexible domestic labor, such as women and agricultural workers; labor markets are increasingly segmented, with better-educated youth rejecting so-called 3D jobs—dirty, dangerous and difficult; and wage and income differentials are widening within the region (Miller & Martin 1996). Second, labor force growth is slowing in the higher-wage countries such as Japan and the NICs, and their employment elasticity—the number of jobs created by each \$1 billion increase in GDP—seems to be rising in these service-dominated economies. Third, migration networks—labor brokers, policies to promote employment abroad, and support systems to finance international migrants for employment—that were established to move large numbers of migrant workers to Middle Eastern nations can redirect migrants within Asia (Miller & Martin, 1996).

2.3.1. Labor Shortage in Asia

Since the end of the Second World War, Asian countries have gradually undergone a process of economic development. The leading countries in this move ahead are Japan and the "Four Little Dragons," namely Hong Kong, South Korea, Singapore and Taiwan; and in recent decades, other countries in the same region, such as Malaysia and Thailand, have also developed their economy. Such rapid economic growth in South East Asia has resulted in two outcomes: a) a greater need for labor, and b) a restructuring of the employment pattern (Chang, 1999)

Most of these countries faced with a shortage of the labor needed to meet the increasing demands of their growing economies. This shortage of labor also results from demographic changes within the respective countries (for example, ageing and a declining youth population). The supply of labor is restricted by the lengthening of the education process, reductions in child labor, and retirement policy (Abello, 1991; Brinton et al, 1995; Chow, 1990; Galenson, 1992).

2.3.2. Labor Shortage in Taiwan

Same as in Taiwan, the structure of Taiwan's economy, and of its labor force, have changed rapidly (Lee, 1992). Taiwan's experience of using foreign workers

began in the early 1980s when the island was facing increase in domestic real wages and sharp appreciation of the Taiwanese currency (Tsay, 1995). Prior to 1989, most foreign workers entered Taiwan legally by means of tourist visa, and then overstayed their visas. In October 1989, the Taiwanese labor market was opened for the first time to contract workers from abroad (Tsay, 1995). During the late 1980s, many of the government's infrastructure construction projects were unable to get off the ground due to a severe labor shortage. It is clear that foreign workers were originally imported to alleviate the labor shortage problems in the construction and labor-intensive industries. As the labor shortage problem became less serious, the government redirected foreign workers into the high-tech and rapidly expanding industries, so that foreign workers are clearly being used to speed up the transformation of Taiwan's economic structure. Whilst many people may think that jobs in the high-tech industries are clean and highly paid, such a perception is wrong, there are many jobs in the high-tech industries that involve long working hour and hard labor (Lee, 1992)

On the other hand, the supply of labor in specific sectors of employment is particularly problematic. The affected sectors are those engaged in semi-skilled or unskilled positions, such as in the production, manufacturing and construction industries, and in domestic work. These jobs are usually low-paid and mainly handle "dirty" duties. As the concerned countries have gradually become well-off, local citizens have usually tended to decline such job offers. In order to fill up the vacancies, these countries import foreign laborers (Lewis, 1992, Martin 1991 and 1994). These factors can serve to explain the adoption of foreign laborer as a necessary alternative for solving the labor shortage problem.

The experience of West Germany and Switzerland immediately after the Second World War showed that by importing foreign workers, these countries could enjoy a high rate of growth, whilst the policies of the UK and others, which restricted the importation of foreign workers, succeeded only in limiting the importation of their rate of economic growth (Kindelberger, 1965; Lee 1992). Therefore, the provision of foreign labor for these high-tech industries can help speed up the expansion of these industries (Lee, 1992).

2.4 Thailand's Labor Exportation and the worker's Conditions of working abroad

Thailand has a long history of sending workers abroad. The initial major destination was the Middle East in 1970 – 1990. It then shifted to East and Southeast Asia, where labor shortages were a serious problem due to economic restructuring and socio-demographic transition (Chris and Tsay 1998; Hugo 1998; Tsay 1999).

According to Prachason (2001), the most significant findings of the research on Thai migrant workers in Japan, Taiwan, Malaysia and Singapore will be divided into three major sections according to the order of migration process: first, background of the Thai migrant workers; second, details of their recruitment procedure; and third, living conditions in the destination countries.

In education, most Thai migrant workers have finished only primary education, except for those who went to Japan. The key to explaining the high education level of those who went to Japan may be the extremely high recruitment cost. This cost limits migrant to Japan to only the people who can earn relatively high income and process their own land or valuable property because they are the ones who can borrow a large sum of money to pay the recruitment cost. In the areas where the migrants were from, individual who earn better income tend to be non-farmers, and thus tend to have higher educational level than others. This applies to those who went to Taiwan, Malaysia and Singapore in the relationship between respondents' low educational level and low recruitment cost conversely (Prachason, 2001).

In occupation, workers who emigrated to Malaysia, Singapore and Taiwan had jobs in the agricultural sector when they were in Thailand, while those to Japan were most in the service industry. Some of the migrant workers in Japan had been farmers in their hometown, before they moved to Bangkok or other provincial cities, engaged in other non-agricultural occupation, and then migrated to Japan (Prachason, 2001).

Before emigrating overseas, those who worked in Japan were likely to be high-income earners while others in Singapore, Taiwan and Malaysia were quite poor. In fact, workers whose lives mostly depended on agriculture are the same groups as those who have lower school education and earn lower salary (Prachason, 2001).

For recruitment cost, the average recruitment cost in Japan topped that in others, closely followed by that in Taiwan. In Japan, the general recruitment fee is over 90,000 Baht and Taiwan's general recruitment fee is between 60,001- 90,000

Baht in 2001. Nowadays, Mr. Laodumrongchai, a research of Asian Research Center for Migration of Chulalongkorn University, has mentioned that the recruitment fee for Taiwan is between 180,000- 200,000 Bath; it increase from the last five years by two times. Besides, the recruitment fee for working in Malaysia was the lowest. There are three ways for Thai workers to go to work in Taiwan. The first is “go by themselves, the second is “go through Thai government”, and the last one is go through private recruiters”. The reasons Thai workers choose to go through private agents are the faster and convenient recruitment process provided by private agents. If the workers apply to a private recruitment agency, it takes only one and a half-month for the agency to process application forms to work in Taiwan, one the other hand, if anyone processes the application form by himself or herself or through the Department of Employment or Ministry of Labor, it will take almost six months or longer period (Saewang, 2006). Once they arrived in destination countries, Thai workers joined various labor segments. Some could work in the same occupation as they did in Thailand, while others were hired in completely different sectors. General speaking, only the workers in Japan had their same main work type in both the origin and the destination country. However, in the other three countries, most workers clustered in different segments. As for Singapore and Taiwan, construction and industry absorbed almost all workers despite the fact that many of these people were farmers in Thailand. Many Thai workers in Malaysia became cooks in restaurant while some worked in agriculture and fishery industry (Prachason, 2001).

When Thai workers entered destination countries, most had visas. However, after staying for a period, their legal status tended to be insecure due to overstaying, resulted in invalid visa (Prachason, 2001). Moreover, workers in both Singapore and Taiwan had signed work contracts while in Japan and Malaysia work contract is not signed. The Thai worker’s income in destination countries is satisfactory, much higher than their former one in Thailand. Those who went to Japan earned a larger income than their counterparts in the other three countries. For the remittances, according to Prachason (2001), recruitment fees, income in destination countries and remittances have co-relationship to each other. The higher the recruitment cost is, the more benefits Thai workers receive from their work overseas in income, and thus remittance.

2.4.1 Working and Living Conditions of Thai migrant workers in Taiwan

Thai migrant workers work in 3Ds conditions: Dangerous, Dirty and Difficult.” (Tanamoon 2003) The unsafely working and living environments increase more difficulties for the Thai migrant workers to solve the problems of adaptation, thus, they are residing in high stress (Laodumrongchai, 1997). From the adaptive problems claimed by the Thai migrant workers, they face lots of problems, stress and pressure while they are working in Taiwan.

According to Kasl (1986), the job stress will influence people in mental and physical health. For Thai workers, their stress is chronic. Their distressful situations are prolonged with no rest or recuperation for the body. As House (1974) mentioned, for shorter term, stress can lead to anxiety, tension and tiredness; for longer term, stress can cause depression, ulcers, other heart diseases and even death. Stress itself is not an illness, rather it is a state. However, it is a very powerful cause of illness (Teasdale and McKeown, 1994).

From Laodumrongchai’s research (1997), 88.5% of Thai migrant workers have complained about the working environment and about 86.5% complained about the pollution of working environment. In other words, working environment and facilities need to be improved in many working sites; otherwise, the physical and mental health of Thai migrant workers will be affected by the working environment (Laodumrongchai, 1997). From several researchers, they also claimed that the physical and mental health will be affected when the working environment is polluted.

2.5 Areas to cause problems, stress and pressure to the Thai migrant workers while they are working in Taiwan

2.5.1 Recruitment debts

Many Thai workers’ economic situation is not good before they leave Thailand, they have to borrow money for paying recruitment fee, and they have to work hard in Taiwan in order to repay the debt. So the effects of high recruitment fee on Thai workers are the *heavy debt* and *abuse* by Taiwan employer and Recruitment agents. Most Thai workers have high recruitment debt, they have to work in Taiwan to pay those debts, they can’t against employers’ abuse because they are fear to be

sent back (Saewang, 2006). We can say the virtual debt bondage of workers entering Taiwan is the main cause of wide range of possible abuses of workers. Workers are so deeply in debt upon arrival in Taiwan, they live in fear of being sent home before they complete their contract, so Taiwanese government and employers exploit their weakness, making them easy to control and reluctant to resist any abuses and demands places upon them (Saewang, 2006).

2.5.2 Contract Violation

Secondly, a majority of workers in Taiwan and Singapore worked with labor contract, while those in Japan and Malaysia had, as a rule, no contract. The highest prevalence of work contracts could be found in Taiwan, nearly 95%, while the figure for Singapore was close to 75% (Thai Migrant Workers in East and Southeast Asia “Returnees to Thailand” ,2001). According to the Department of Employment of Thailand, work contract includes salaries, working hours, part time hours, health insurance, job assignments and wages, duration of contract and worksite, probation period, holidays and leave, overtime, food, accommodation, medical treatment, travel and transportation, obligation, termination of contract, and others. From Tanamoon (2003), most cases recorded by Thai Ministry of Labor were about unfair income payment, following by job changing and the least is health insurance. Those problems are all relate to work contract violation to the Thai migrant workers in Taiwan. For instance, working overtime is the main way to increase income; most Thai migrant workers made their income higher through extra works. The proportion of Thai migrant workers making NT\$ 20, 000 per month is roughly the same as the proportion that reported having an overload work. Although the overtime wage is included on work contract, this doesn’t mean that workers can get that indicated overtime payment (Saewang, 2006).

“The indicated overtime payment on our work contract is NT\$ 88 per hour, but the employer pay only NT\$ 77 per hour to us. We can’t sue him, we can’t do anything, because we will be sent back if we are against him by doing any activities. I don’t have any money to pay the recruitment debt now, so I have to continue to work in Taiwan”. (Tanamoon, 2003, Exportation of Thai Workers and their adaptation Problems—Thai Workers in Taiwan, pp.150)

2.5.3 Accommodation

Thai workers in Singapore are provided with accommodation free of charge, but in Taiwan, most of them have to pay accommodation fees. For most Thai workers, their accommodation fees are included on their contract, and for few workers, their contracts indicated that accommodation is free of charge, but they still be charged the fees (Saewang, 2006).

“Our work contract indicated employers provide accommodation for free, but they still deducted NT\$ 2500 from our salaries for accommodation fees. We asked him why he did that, he said it is the new regulation set up by Taiwan’s Labor Affair. If we went against him, we would have been sent back to Thailand, if so, how can we pay such high recruitment debt? So we have stay here and work for him,” (Tanamoon, 2003, *Exportation of Thai Workers and their adaptation Problems—Thai Workers in Taiwan*, pp.177)

2.5.4 Job Changing

According to work contract, employees don’t have the rights to change employers. Also, employers also can’t change employees’ job without employees’ agreement. However, there are still few employers who forced workers to do the jobs which are not on the contract. Most of Thai migrant workers choose to continue to work even they face those unfairness, they can’t go back to Thailand due to the high recruitment debt (Saewang, 2006).

2.5.5 Payment for sickness

As Taiwanese Labor code, foreign contract workers must be covered by health insurance schemes which are the employer’s responsibility. However, there were some of Thai workers who didn’t receive any payment for sickness and some of them were not sure whether they were covered by any health insurances.

Furthermore, there are three main causes about contract violation: educational level, fearness of sending back and limited power of both countries’ government organizations.

For the low education workers, they hardly understand or understand partially the work contracts. They were not sure whether the health insurances are provided to them and they don’t know they have the rights to ask for the payment during sickness.

Similarly, the payment problems, job changing problems and health insurance problems are all related to expensive recruitment cost. Usually, Thai workers would report their unfair working situation to Thailand Trade and Economic Office of Labour Affairs Division and Council of Labour Affairs in Taiwan. Some workers choose to accept these unequal conditions because employers put the threat on them that they would be sent back to Thailand if they report any unfair condition to government organization; then they couldn't pay the recruitment debt which is always an important weakness of Thai migrant workers. Even Thailand Trade and Economic Office of Labour Affairs Division in Taiwan try to find the way out for Thai workers, but their authority is limited and they don't have enough officers to help Thai workers. So, each case needs lots of time period to get the solution (Saewang, 2006).

2.5.6 Working condition

In addition, in August 2005, 200 Thai construction workers in southern Taiwan, Kaohsiung set a fire at the management center, work dormitory, cars and other facilities. It was the worst incident for the past 20 years. Those Thai workers run riot in Taiwan because they were very upset with poor work and living condition. They were not satisfied with work pressure, work hardship, work environment and work difficulty.

“100% of construction workers are not satisfied with their income payment, while the proportion is very low in the manufacturing sector.” (Tanamoon, 2003, *Exportation of Thai Workers and their adaptation Problems—Thai Workers in Taiwan*, pp. 97-98)

Most Thai workers in Taiwan work in manufacturing and construction sectors, however, the number of construction workers who suffer from working conditions is much more than of manufacturing workers, most construction workers suffered from work overload. About the job overload, most Thai workers don't have enough time for relax, so some of them are not satisfied with the working condition.

2.5.7 Language Problem

Also, language problem affects working condition of Thai workers in Taiwan. Thai workers usually feel difficult to communicate with local workers and employers, they can't totally understand the working process, so they often do some mistakes

during working, these mistakes lead to the conflicts among employees and employers, and it places working pressure on workers (Saewang, 2006).

2.5.8 Lack of skill training

As mentioned above, most Thai workers were farmers before they leave Thailand, Skilled training is important for them to get familiar with working condition and working process. But, most workers don't get the skill training before they leave. Because of this reason, Thai workers can't adjust themselves to their jobs, thus, they feel tired and depressed (Saewang, 2006).

From the cases above, we can see the fearness of being sent back is the weakness of Thai workers even they want to fight for their own right (Saewang, 2006)

The above mentioned are working condition problems and the main **living condition problems** are shown below:

1. **Language difference** is a main cause of working condition problem, but, it is also a big problem in their daily life in Taiwan.
 “We can't speak mandarin, we feel difficult when communicate with locals. We can't understand daily news and some living information.”(Tanamoon, 2003, Exportation of Thai Workers and their adaptation Problems—Thai Workers in Taiwan, p151.)
 “We get much difficulty usually, it is due to language problem. Employers don't give us any help for overcome this language problems.” (Tanamoon, 2003, Exportation of Thai Workers and their adaptation Problems—Thai Workers in Taiwan, p156)
2. Most Thai workers **feel lonely** in Taiwan, they are homesick after they arrive in Taiwan.
3. **Food** is an important problem for Thai workers' life in Taiwan. Taiwanese food is not like Thai food, Thai workers don't like Taiwanese food.

2.6 Challenges for Adaptation

Apart from the main purpose of migration that the higher income Thai workers may make in the foreign countries, Thai workers also have to face some other challenges of adapting in foreign countries. Instead of operating exclusively within the cultural setting in which they were born and raised, individuals must now be capable of functioning appropriately in a wide variety of foreign cultural situations, many of which have different cultural norms for appropriate behavior that may conflict with their core values and beliefs (Molinsky, 2007).

As individuals learn the rules for appropriate behavior in a foreign setting, they repeatedly face discrete situations involving cultural differences that test their ability to function successfully in the new setting and their comfort with new cultural rules (Ward & Kennedy, 1999). The way they react to these situations and navigate cultural differences influences their own effectiveness, as well as the organization's performance (Black & Gregersen, 1999). To act appropriately in these interactions, foreign managers or employees must be capable of deviating from their intuitive, culturally ingrained behavior (Berry, 1997; Graves, 1967).

Moreover, adaptation can help individuals avoid the negative consequences of norm violation and its associated stereotypes (Earley & Ang, 2003; Francis, 1991; Osland, Bird, Delano, & Jacob, 2000; Pornpitakpan, 1999; Thomas & Ravlin, 1995; Thomas & Toyne, 1995). Alongside the benefits of cultural adaptation in single encounters, however, is a corresponding set of psychological challenges (Mak, Westwood, Ishiyama, & Barker, 1999; Sanchez, Spector, & Cooper, 2000). Foreign managers and employees may lack cultural skills, or feel that they lack cultural skills, to successfully produce the required appropriate behavior for the foreign interaction, resulting in performance anxiety (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Wood & Bandura, 1989), or even embarrassment (Keltner & Buswell, 1997), in front of a critical, evaluative audience from the native culture (Edmondson, 1999). The required behavior in the foreign setting may also conflict with an individual's deeply ingrained values and beliefs from the native cultural setting, resulting in psychological distress (Leong & Ward, 2000; Sanchez et al., 2000; Ward & Searle, 1991) or guilt (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999).

2.7 Migrant workers in Taiwan

Because of the differences in culture, religions, language and ways of living, migrant workers can't adapt properly in the living and working environments, therefore, their behaviors tend to be deviated and impetuous while they are working in Taiwan. Due to the lack of problem- solve solutions and proper ways of relief, some migrant workers might be angry, jealous and lost their temper and act violently. Some migrant workers might act against laws by quarrel, steal, kidnap, rape, run away, alcohol addicted or drug addicted and gambling. In the working places, some migrant workers might advocate protests and conflicts to their salaries, working hours, fees of work overtime, working environment, working safety and hygiene, working and living regulations, welfares, prize and punish standards and working and living facilities (Tanamoon, 2003).

Adaptation is the relationship between individuals and environment, thus, an individual's adaptation is influenced by the characteristic of personal and environment (Tanamoon, 2003). The followings are the factors influenced the adaptation behavior of migrant workers:

1. Inherit characteristics: intelligent, ability, age, sex, disposition, personal characteristics and physical characteristics.
2. Personal Characteristics:
 - (1). Age: different age has different physical and mental features, the age between 15 and 30 is a group that is easiest to adapt in a new society.
 - (2). Sex: the reasons of migration between female and male are different, thus, the skills and methods for female to adapt are different from the male.
 - (3). Education: different levels of education influence the fields of careers, thus, levels of education also influence the capacity of adaptation.
3. Other factors: period of staying in the migrated society, self-society relationship, condition of marriage, size of family, contacts with neighbors and colleagues, income of social status prior migrated, social capitals such as friends, relationship with parents and

socialized skills, experiences of within country migration, contacts with foreign friends, and contacts with newspaper, T.V. radio and magazines.

4. Environmental factors: culture, ways of learning, social status, socialized, relationship with schools, family, friends, work place and society.
5. Factors of society system: Push- Pull model between countries of labor exportation and importation, the unity of Push-Pull model and the levels of acceptance to migrants in the importation countries.

The personal characteristics factors influence the adaptation of migrant workers also include the past experiences, psychological insecurity system, adaptive skills, purposes of migration and personal specializations of migrate workers (Huang 1994).

2.8 Problems of adaptation of migrant workers in Taiwan:

Because of the difference in society, economy, culture, politics, religions and others between labor import and export countries, many migrant workers have experienced the problems and troubles in working and living adaptation and in physical and mental health. For those who migrant workers in Taiwan, they felt strange and insecurity when they first entered in a new environment. By searching for the information, minimizing the differences and uncertainty and predicting the locals' attitude, behaviors, beliefs and feelings, migrant workers have gradually worked out a new living model for themselves to adapt (Zhao 1993).

When the situations of personal inadaptability and new working environment inadaptability happened, migrant workers might falsify, be isolated, distrust, be dependent, self- abused, and have the feelings of stress, been cheated, harmed and victimized and giving up and withdrawal. Therefore, they may behave against rules, have problems on relationship with people and feel extra difficult to adapt to working and living environment ,typically on the aspects of regulations of labor contracts, working hours, salaries, days-off, careers crisis, working regulations, working environment, inspection and checks, living regulations, medication care, and socialization (Gu, 1990).

The problems of inter-personal communication for migrant workers are mainly caused by default of communication, moodiness, working pressure and conflicts with people or conflicts with different group's interests. These problems have made migrant workers tedious and annoying while there has no attentive person to listen to them. Another problem is that they feel it is hard for them to make friends in Taiwan, as they are afraid to communicate to locals; this problem seems to be continuous and reinforced.

About the safety, hygiene and working environment, before the law of migrant workers was not introduced, migrant workers usually did not stay long in the place which they felt dangerous; after the migrant workers are legitimated, they have to stay in the places which are dangerous, dirty and polluted without any choice. Consequently, many migrant workers declared that they can't work safely. Many migrant workers feel that their physiological health turn to be abnormal due to the unideal working environment which caused them allergic (Gu, 1990)

Due to the lack of communication with family and friends and focus too much on the economic purpose, many migrant workers have problems on living adaptation in the areas of accommodation and food (Cheng, 1995). For the living assistance, migrant workers can't understand the regulations and laws easily and many employers don't give assistance to the migrant workers. Migrant workers felt that they don't know the time for holidays and they don't know how to spend their holiday times, so, they feel that they lack for leisure time and entertainment (Lin, 1996).

The mental and physical inadaptability has influenced migrant workers' mental and physical health and also affects the work performance. When migrant workers are trying to adapt to the culture, the people and the food, they may overlook their health problems. Therefore, when there has less assistance to the migrant workers, there are many problems of mental and physical health produced. Because of the inadaptability in food, ways of living, weather, work overload and working environment, many migrant workers are easily to be infected by the local diseases and also caused the tiredness, fatigue, ache, back pain and skin allergic (Gu, 1990). For the mental health problems, because migrant workers have to bear the stress from family, economic, working, culture and living adaptation (Tsay, 1990), they feel homesick, lonely, anxious, inferior and dispirited. When there is less assistance for problem solutions, migrant workers may feel mistrust, suspicious, be abused and be discriminated and

lack of privacy. Because migrant workers live under the pressure and stress for a long term, they don't have anyone to share their problems, they don't know how to spend their leisure time, and they are afraid to make complains and communicate to the local people, some of migrant workers have problems of sleeping and insomnia (Tsay & Tsay 1992).

2.8.1 Family Adaptation

As migrant workers have to leave their home to work in overseas countries, for those who are married, how do they take care of their family's members especially their children and elder people? (Laodumrongchai, 1997) Especially for the families which both parents are working, how do they solve the problems of take care their children? (Chen, 1992)

2.8.2 Living Adaptation

Migrant workers have faced the problems in working and living adaptation in particular: long working hours, hard tasks, high dangers, high polluted condition, unsuitable working hours, less welfare, less advantages, unsatisfied working conditions, visa problems, living problems, food, transportation, health insurance, self and social relationship, leisure and entertainment, religious practices and language barrier (Research, Development and Evaluation commission, Executive Yuan, 1992)

2.8.3 Language Adaptation

According to Research, Development and Evaluation commission, Executive Yuan (1992), people who staying in Taiwan and can't speak Chinese claimed that they can't adapt mostly to the high polluted working environment, low capacity of using public services and facilities, feeling of unfriendly native people, more frequently to go to churches and temples and less friends.

According to the data collected by Thai Trading and Economic office in Taipei from 1999 to 2001, the difficult problems of working and living adaptation of Thai migrant workers are listed below: (adaptive problems listed from most serious to least)

1. language barrier
2. difficult to handle relationship with employers

3. homesickness
4. can't manage the high working stress
5. different food and eating habits
6. lack of taking care by family members or acquaintances and feel lonesome and lose when they are sick
7. complex working process, confuse working condition and sense of working frustration
8. difficult to get along with new colleague, been isolated , bulled and rejected from the group
9. unideal working environment
10. stress from working on large amount of working tasks which can't be finished by one person
11. difficult to adapt to the lack of leisure time and entertainment
12. less welfare when comparing to the local workers
13. physiological demands
14. salaries are less then local workers
15. need to follow the strict rules of employees
16. living place and environment
17. low social status, been discriminated
18. long working hours, produce many kinds of working stress
19. long period of been away from home and family, feel anxiety and uneasy
20. challenges of adaptation on staying oversea alone.

In short, Taiwan is the major destination for Thai nationals working abroad. However, according to the survey of Tsay& Lin (2001), Thai workers have some problems in their workplace in Taiwan. Especially, construction workers experience more difficulties with their jobs and workplaces than manufacturing workers did. The most serious problem for the Thai workers as a whole is the feeling of loneliness. This feeling represents an important component of the psychological cost of migrating.

2.9 Other International Migration adaptation

The traditional distinction between 'free' and 'forced' migration, between movements of temporary 'guest workers' and permanent immigrants, and between political refugees and those whose sole motivation is economic advantage, have become blurred. For example, guest workers bring their dependents, start new families and resist repatriation. At the same time, countries such as Canada and Australia, which have traditionally recruited permanent settlers, experience high rates of emigration and re-emigration (Richmond, 1995).

The United Nations' definition of a 'Conventional refugee' requires an individual to establish 'a well founded fear of persecution'. This definition, which was formulated in the circumstances prevailing in Europe after World War II, no longer reflects the reality of a global situation in which 15 million people have been displaced by a combination of political, economic and ecological crises. Many are located in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Others have been forced from their employment in the oil-rich Gulf region by the recent political crisis and military confrontation. They do not meet the UN Convention definition of 'refugee' as long as they are free to return to their former countries, although the latter may not be able to offer them either employment or protection (Richmond, 1995)..

International migrants today fall somewhere on a continuum between 'proactive' and 'reactive' according to the degree of autonomy in decision making and action exhibited by those involved. Proactive migrants are able to exercise some degree of rational choice in their decision to move. Reactive migrants at the opposite extreme have little power or control over their situation, although ultimately they must make a choice whether to flee and, if so, when and to where. They are constrained by immediate threats to their own life or livelihood, and that of their families. The large majority of those seeking to cross international borders are somewhere in between (Richmond, 1995).

When theorizing and conceptualizing international migration and migrants, social scientists, challenged by increasingly sophisticated empirical data, have come to realize the wide diversity of types of migrants: professional immigrants, economic migrants, refugees, women, illegal migrants, temporary foreign workers, tourists, foreign students, and recently more massively, return migrants (Ong, Chan & Chew, 1995)

2.10 Other situation of Migration Adaptation

2.10.1 Expatriate

A key reason for the return of expatriates before the official end of their foreign assignment is the uncertainty and frustration resulting from poor cross-cultural adaptation. The study finds that conflicts with coworkers in host countries occur frequently causing high stress and discomfort (Jassawalla, Truglia, and Garvey, 2004).

From Tung's (1987) main reasons for expatriate failure, there are: 1) inability managers to adjust to new environment, 2) the managers inability to adapt to the new environment, 3) other family related issues , 4) the managers personality or emotional immaturity ,5) the managers inability to cope with responsibilities associated with the overseas work. Also, from the study of Lee (2007), ,main reasons for expatriate failure are:1) the expatriate's inability to adapt to the new environment ,2) not achieving family acceptance and assimilation, 3) lack of support from the Head Office, 4) not having an open mindset

2.10.2 International Humanitarian Workers

According to Chang (2007), when international humanitarian workers in undeveloped countries met up with a different culture, the influence of their experience on cultural competence was divided into three levels. From the exterior to interior, they are (a) peripheral level: encounter and recognize; (b) cognitive level: familiarize and adjust; and (c) reflective level: transform and enlighten.

First, with regard to work environment, because humanitarian assistance is usually delivered to underdeveloped areas, the international service providers have to face environmental challenges, such as civil war, undeveloped traffic communication, or dreadful sanitary situations. At the peripheral level, these international humanitarian workers in undeveloped countries tasted different food, observed new types of diseases, inconvenient daily life, feeling surprise, shock, discomfort, difficulty, inspiration. At this level, their knee-jerk reactions sometimes helped awaken their sense of culture (Chang, 2007).

At cognitive level, people begin to become familiar with the differences in the new environment and to take steps to adjust their behaviors, such as their way of thinking and their work style. At this level, interviewees began to move beyond the culture shock stage and were able to analyze their circumstances as well as the

appropriateness of their work strategies. They showed a higher ability to manage the varied contexts of the intercultural encounter (Kim, 1988). Although there were usually no standardized criteria to evaluate their work, they tried to adjust their strategies in the hope of performing their work more effectively and appropriately, at least from their personal viewpoints and judgments (Chang, 2007).

At Reflective level: transform and enlighten level, people begin to examine their mind-set and way of thinking, which often catalyzes a fundamental transformation in their perspective for understanding themselves or interpreting the world. As Chang (2007), found that after staying in the host culture for a period of time, humanitarian workers adopted new perspectives, leading them to reinterpret issues associated with their work environment. Even more fundamentally, their changing perspective caused them to reexamine their self-understanding and how they viewed the relationship between themselves and the outside world (Chang, 2007).

2.10.3 International students

International students in the United States, like any other sojourners, experience difficulties as they find themselves in unfamiliar cultural settings. These difficulties have been characterized as cultural shock (e.g., Furnham & Bochner, 1982; 1986; Oberg, 1960; Westwood & Barker, 1990).

In Chen and Isa's research (2003), they have studied the Japanese students in United States. Seven themes emerged as important factors for cultural learning in intercultural interaction and are labeled as preparedness, expectations, anxiety, enjoyment/ discomfort, communication, personality and Japaneseness.

The first theme was about psychological orientation and practical preparation before coming to the United States. For most informants, this was a first step in their intercultural encounter and learning. With no exception, all students had done a variety of things to prepare for this visit, including listening to English conversation tapes, reading books, learning English riddles, taking English conversation class, and attending orientation programs. Such preparation, according to the informants, had helped more or less in their actual contact with people in the United States. The real value of the process, however, seems to lie in its psychological benefits. The fact that they had engaged in preparation, by getting information that was potentially useful,

seemed reassuring in itself, whereas the accuracy of the information or applicability of what they had done became secondary or less relevant (Chen & Isa, 2003).

The second theme was formed with informants' observations and descriptions of what was expected and unexpected. Some reported expectations of difficulties and cultural shock. Interestingly, no one reported expecting excitement or positive anticipation, although it seemed that they were excited by the prospect of this experience. Several, however, indirectly revealed expectations about the host's hospitality and of being welcome. Hence, they expressed surprise and puzzlement at the indifference of some host members toward their visit and that others were not as friendly as they expected (Chen & Isa, 2003).

The theme of anxiety was about emotional reactions to the sojourn. In general, three major sources of anxiety can be specified: particular problematic situations, general negative anticipation of negative outcomes, and problematic in-group situations. First, they felt worried during the problematic situation in which they either could not make themselves understood or could not understand others in English. They wanted to communicate but often felt helpless in interaction with their hosts. The helpless feeling and the non-communication are undesirable outcomes of intercultural communication and also have a negative impact on the future interaction. Second, a number of Japanese students reported getting scared of speaking in English and not wanting to talk anymore because of communication problems. They worried that they would get into the same helpless situation and even worried about getting worried. Lastly, a different kind of anxiety arose from an unlikely source: these students encountered a pressure from fellow Japanese students to speak Japanese when they were interacting with each other. They reported it as a paradox in their life (Chen & Isa, 2003).

Another theme-enjoyment-discomfort was constituted by factual descriptions. Enjoyment-discomfort includes cases when informants mentioned the experience they enjoyed or did not enjoy in the U.S. These are apart from matters directly related to communication. More cases of enjoyment were given than that of discomfort. Experience that informants reported they enjoyed may be something that was novel or something that they had always enjoyed. Many reported enjoying making friends with Americans. Becoming friends provided opportunities of interaction with and of

learning about the host culture that they would not have been exposed to or understood simply by observation (Chen & Isa, 2003).

Again the process of learning constitutes constant comparison and contrasts in and of communication. Japanese students actively or reactively sought ways to cope with the situation at hand and take note of what their host did. The learning process provides a contrast between what they did right and what they did wrong, as well as a contrast between what they did and did not know. This contrast forms a connection between the past and the present. The difficulties bring to light their cultural ignorance, so they also learned about themselves and their culture. To deal with the difficulties, they relied on what they did know and tried out ways that might be helpful. In attempts to cope, what they usually do in other circumstances were tried out together with what they usually did not do. In doing, they also learned about intercultural interaction. The present for them was thus connected to and blended into the past, and their experience was becoming an integrated one in the process of cultural learning (Chen & Isa, 2003).

A sixth theme was about individual characteristics. When talking about their experience in the United States, informants often made reference to or comments about some participants' personal characteristics relevant to intercultural interaction. Personality was away for them to make an evaluation of or give explanation to their stories, both positive and negative ones. The majority of cases referred to those exhibited in the Japanese. More attention seemed to be given to positive features that might facilitate intercultural interaction. Among these were curiosity, willingness to try new things, maturity, independence, bravery, easygoing, and so on. These personality traits are perceived to help them overcome the difficulties encountered. In contrast, the negative personality tendencies were the ones that hindered intercultural interaction. Three were mentioned: being reserved, having an inferiority complex due to poor English proficiency, and getting (Chen & Isa, 2003).

A final theme that reoccurred was cultural influence. Included in this category were accounts of behaviors that reflected some unique Japanese characteristics. For example, informants had all tried to do something to get ready before the visit and prepared for the worse that could happen. They found comfort in what everyone else seemed to be doing and perceived individual characteristics in terms of social expectations. Additionally, many reported blaming themselves for the communication

problem. Some became upset with self for every little mistake in socializing with the hosts. Some constantly wondered if they had hurt the other's feelings (i.e., their host) and worried about being inadvertently rude to others (Chen & Isa, 2003).

Another case of sojourners' adaptation process in Japan by Ting-Toomey and Ge (1988), who researched the critical factors that affect adaptation process of sojourners in the Japanese society. The findings of this study indicated that while second language competences or skills was vital to facilitate intercultural effectiveness in Japan, it was the perceived verbal pattern similarity dimension that was critical to both effectiveness and positive adjustments (Ting-Toomey & Ge, 1988). While perceived value similarity was related positively to functional effectiveness, perceived nonverbal pattern similarity was related to a pleasant sojourning experience in Japan. Individuals who were high in private self-consciousness were a good "fit" with the overall environment in Japan.

2.10.4 International Migrants

The introduction of a planned immigration program in 1945 produced major demographic, economic and socio-cultural changes in the Australian continent. Four and a half decades on, the population of Australia has grown from around 717 million (National Population Inquiry, 1975).

In the face of the relatively massive intakes of settlers from non-British source in the post- War years, the first major concerns about the social impact of immigration was the perceived need to assimilate large numbers of non-English speaking European immigrants into predominantly Anglo-Australian values and modes of behavior. The main concerns identified over this period were problems of integration, English language proficiency; education problems; occupational problems; residential isolation; and 'pockets of new settlers unable to communicate easily in their locality' (National Population Inquiry, 1975)

Changing one's place of residence inevitably necessitates adapting to new economic, social, natural, and sometimes even ethno cultural conditions. In many cases it is a painful process that does not always end successfully. It is no wonder that one of the most urgent problems of all organized population shifts is the acclimation of the newcomers (Shurupova, 2007).

Adaptation is an especially complicated process in the case of forced resettlement. When people migrate voluntarily it is for the purpose of improving the conditions of their lives, finding work, earning more money, or acquiring better housing, and for the sake of that purpose a person is willing to tolerate certain temporary inconveniences. Forced migration, as a rule, involves the worsening of all of the basic indicators of the quality of life: social status, material well-being, housing and living conditions, and so on (Shurupova,2007).

The degree of migrants' adaptation in Lipetsk Oblast was revealed by a sociological survey, a total of 266 migrants were surveyed using the random sample method in Shurupova's research. The results of the survey were as follows: among respondents 35 percent were male and 65 percent female. By nationalities 76 percent were ethnic Russian; 9 percent Ukrainian; 3 percent Armenian; 2 percent each Uzbek, Ossetian, Azerbaijani, and Moldovan; 1 percent each Korean, Tatar, and Dagestani; and there were two Germans. In response to the question "Why did you decide to move to the rural area?" the migrants gave different answers. For example, 13 percent were attracted by the rural way of life, and 15 percent planned to supply their families with food products from their household farms. The same number of respondents were hoping to acquire a place to live more quickly than in a city, and 31 percent had no place to go (Shurupova, 2007).

In their place of arrival, the success or failure of mutual adaptation also affects the process of migration. A failure to adapt ends up being the reason to migrate again. Among the respondents, the degree of their acclimation is relatively high: 88 percent have no plans to move somewhere else in the near future; only 8 percent plan to change their present place of residence. In the process of adaptation, the migrants confront a whole set of problems, of which the most difficult are registration, taking out citizenship, having a place to live, having a job, the amount of wages and salaries, and financial difficulties. And only 3 percent of the respondents replied that they "have no problems and do not experience any difficulties." Ten years after moving there, 34 percent of the settlers turned out not to have solved the problem of registering and acquiring Russian citizenship. Very often, a vicious circle is at work: without registration, the resettlers cannot be given citizenship, and without citizenship they cannot be registered; many have problems getting a Russian passport. The housing problem is very difficult. A total of 56 percent of the respondents have been

able to solve it to some extent; 5 percent of the migrants are living in trailers, dormitories, and dilapidated semiabandoned structures. In the opinion of the resettlers, “the quality of housing also leaves a lot to be desired.” The problem of finding a job is also one that by no means all the migrants were able to solve. Of the total number of respondents, one out of two reports that the problem remains unsolved (Shurupova, 2007).

At present, only 32 percent of the respondents have jobs working in their specialty, and 16 percent are unable to find jobs at all. In response to the question “Are you satisfied with your job?” 32 percent answered in the affirmative; 11 percent are not satisfied with their present work activity and are disappointed in its character and content; 33 percent are not completely satisfied. In addition, the working conditions of 25 percent of the migrants have worsened; for 29 percent, their level of pay has gone down, and as a result the level of material well-being of the families of 34 percent of the resettlers has declined. The native population’s attitudes toward the migrants are an indicator not so much of the migrant’s adaptation but of a criterion that measures the community’s adaptation to the resettlers themselves. Adaptation is a threshold that has to be crossed not only by the migrants but also by the society that takes them in. The respondents’ prevailing opinion is that the native inhabitants have a neutral attitude toward them. This is the opinion of 49 percent of the respondents; 37 percent say that they are treated with good will, and 5 percent that people try to help them in some way. And only 9 percent of the population has a negative attitude toward the migrants (Shurupova, 2007).

In the process of adaptation, a special role is played by the factor of the cultural distance between the migrants’ region of origin and their region of resettlement. A total of 27 percent of the respondents are not satisfied with the development of the sphere of cultural and consumer services, while 26 percent are partly satisfied. A total of 18 percent of the resettlers say they are completely satisfied. The reasons for this are revealed in the fact that the protracted crisis in agricultural production, the drastic slump in investment activity, and the decline in nonindustrial construction have led to a decline in the potential of the social and cultural sphere in the countryside. From the foregoing it is reasonable to conclude that many of the migrants have never managed to adapt completely to the changed conditions of their lives, owing to material, social, and economic difficulties. For this reason, the task of

the state as a whole, and agencies of local authority in Lipetsk Oblast in particular, is to work out a migration policy in regard to the reception and accommodation of forced resettlers that will do the most to maximize and facilitate their adaptation in Russia (Shurupova, 2007).

According to Taipei Times (2006), still, life as a foreign worker is a struggle, marked by loneliness, unfamiliar food and customs, and worst of all, unscrupulous employers and job brokers, who sometimes reduce pay packets and benefits to pad their own pockets. In Jhongli County , foreign workers from Thailand, Vietnam and the Philippines gather at the Hope Worker's Center, a Catholic-sponsored refuge. They discuss prospects for finding reasonable work in safe environments. Many are temporarily unemployed after company bankruptcies or other problems with employers. All hope to have new jobs in weeks. Outside the center, Thai restaurants and overseas telephone exchanges dot the landscape, providing lifelines for the town's sizable foreign worker community.

In Taipei Times (2006), Father Bruno Ciceri, an Italian Roman Catholic priest who has spent 20 years ministering to foreign workers in Asia, says the Taiwanese labor system is fraught with abuses due to the brokerage system's inherent unfairness. The government has accepted the system as the best way of regulating workers' lives. Brokers take a fixed amount from a worker's monthly pay, set by law at NT\$1,500 to NT\$1,800, depending on how long the worker has been in the country. In exchange, the broker helps the worker procure residence documents and file tax returns, and find alternative work if necessary. However, Ciceri says, in many instances brokers take more than the allotted amount, and forego their obligations to workers. "There are brokers who charge NT\$8,000 to NT\$10,000 during the first eight months of employment," he said. "There are brokers who charge workers NT\$2,000 for bedding when you can pick it up in the market for NT\$100. The system is quite unfair."

Ciceri says that the rules established by the Council of Labor Affairs provides adequate protection for foreign workers, but chides the council for alleged ineffectiveness. "The Council of Labor Affairs is supposed to be protecting the foreign workers, but in fact it is not," he said.

Although migrant workers have contributed greatly to Taiwan's economy and to the society as a whole, they do find it quite difficult to adapt to a new working environment due to some barriers in language, religious belief, family ties, culture and customs. Therefore, major efforts are being made by the people in Taiwan to safeguard the best interests of foreign workers and ensure their equal rights and opportunities (Council of Labor Affairs, 2006). The following will be policy on foreign workers.

2.11 Cultural competence

As global interaction and cultural diversity become prominent, cultural competence has received more attention. With regard to the definition, several authors see cultural competence as an "integrative" and "transformative" process. For example, Taylor (1994) viewed intercultural competence as "an adaptive capacity based on an inclusive and integrative world view which allows participants to effectively accommodate the demands of living in a host culture". Cross, Bazron, Dennis, and Isaacs (1989) defined cultural competence as a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency, or among professionals and enable them to work effectively in cross-cultural situations. As McPhatter (1997) see the three components—enlightened consciousness, a grounded knowledge base, and cumulative skill proficiency—are interrelated and should be embraced together. Such an integrative feature demonstrates the complex nature of cultural competence.

Moreover, the cultural competence process is transformative. As Davis (1997) viewed, cultural competence as the transformation of knowledge about people into specific standards, policies, practices, and attitudes used in appropriate cultural settings to increase the quality of services. Also, McPhatter and Ganaway (2003) pointed out that cultural competence is the ability "to transform knowledge and cultural awareness" into practical interventions. Indeed, Taylor (1994) used Mezirow's transformative learning as a framework to examine how expatriate adults develop adaptive strategies and adjust their perspective in host cultures. Mezirow's transformational learning theory in adult education emphasizes that through critical self-examination, adults sometimes experience a significant transformation of their perspective to respond to important events or difficult stages in their lives. Because the theory involves "new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience" (Mezirow, 1994), it helps explain the process of intercultural competence. And, Gallo

(2001) used transformative perspective to explore the mental journal of adult immigrants in a new culture.

From the transformative aspect, cultural competence was perceived as a continuing learning process for better accommodating to the intercultural environment. Cultural competence is viewed as a process composed through experience of internal discovery and external adjustment. Faced with a new culture, adults discover cross-cultural similarities, differences, novelties, and difficulties, and therefore they adjust their actions, behaviors, interpreting perspectives or even their mindsets to help themselves work more effectively and comfortably (Chang, 2007). Focusing on the learning process to become interculturally competent, Taylor (1994) explained the process from five stages: learning readiness, facing cultural disequilibrium, utilizing different cognitive approaches (reflective/nonreflective), developing learning strategies, and evolving intercultural identity.

Furthermore, McPhatter and Ganaway (2003) suggest five progressive stages in cultural competence: precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance. Besides, Bennett (1993) built the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (DMIS) that included six stages: denial of difference, defense against difference, minimization of difference, acceptance of difference, adaptation to difference, and integration of difference. In Bennett's DMIS intercultural sensitivity was viewed as a "developmental phenomenon" (Paige, 2003). As many scholars have held a developmental viewpoint toward cultural competence, my first hypothesis will use the developmental viewpoint because of the studied population. The studied population is Thai migrant workers; they were a minority in the area where they served. According to Chang (2007), when expatriate workers entered an unfamiliar cultural environment, a learning process was expected and critical to their physical and emotional accommodation to perform well in their jobs. Therefore, the development of their cultural competence is still an ongoing process as they continue to include various types of experiences.

Moreover, adaptation can help individuals avoid the negative consequences of norm violation and its associated stereotypes (Earley & Ang, 2003; Francis, 1991; Osland, Bird, Delano, & Jacob, 2000; Pornpitakpan, 1999; Thomas & Ravlin, 1995; Thomas & Toyne, 1995). Alongside the benefits of cultural adaptation in single encounters, however, is a corresponding set of psychological challenges (Mak,

Westwood, Ishiyama, & Barker, 1999; Sanchez, Spector, & Cooper, 2000), foreign managers and employees may lack cultural skills, or feel that they lack cultural skills, to successfully produce the required appropriate behavior for the foreign interaction, resulting in performance anxiety (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Wood & Bandura, 1989), or even embarrassment (Keltner & Buswell, 1997), in front of a critical, evaluative audience from the native culture (Edmondson, 1999). The required behavior in the foreign setting may also conflict with an individual's deeply ingrained values and beliefs from the native cultural setting, resulting in psychological distress (Leong & Ward, 2000; Sanchez et al., 2000; Ward & Searle, 1991) or guilt (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999).

Indeed, the discrepancy between one's personal cultural values and those of society may play a large role in producing stress, which in turn leads to negative health outcomes. Discrepancies between self and society's value were significantly correlated with all eight coping strategies, indicating that greater cultural discrepancies were associated with greater needs for coping (Matsumoto & Juang, 2004).

The concept of adaptation originated in biology and was a cornerstone on Darwin's (1895) theory of evolution. There, however, it referred to the biological structures and processes that facilitated the survival of species: biological properties of organisms would persist in nature only if they aided in survival by permitting the species to reproduce sufficient numbers to replace themselves and even to increase in numbers. The key biological law was "natural selection" or more simply put, survival of the fittest. Thus, in the evolution of species on earth, many new types of organisms perished (became extinct) because they could not adapt successfully to the demands of living, while others survived and multiplied because they could adapt. Throughout evolutionary history there has been constant pressure for the evolution of new, more complex, and adaptation forms, for example, the primates, of which the human is one version (Lazarus, 1976).

The biological concept of adaptation has been borrowed and changed somewhat by the psychologist and renamed "adjustment" to emphasize the individual's struggle to get along or survive in his or her social and physical environments. The trouble with this world is that over the years it has come to signify making oneself fit the demands of the external world, when actually adjustment

consist of two kinds of process: fitting oneself into given circumstances and changing the circumstances to fit one's needs (Lazarus, 1976) .

Adjustment represents a “functional” perspective for viewing and understanding human and animal behavior. That is, behavior has the function of mastering demands made upon a person by the environment, and human and animal action can be understood as an adjustment to such demands.

Cultural adaptation studies began to appear in the late 1950s, prompted by the growing number of exchange students and government workers who received overseas assignments (Hart, 1999).

The concept of culture shock, which was coined by Klaus Oberg in 1960, served as the impetus for the studies. In his definition, Oberg (1960) stated that culture shock is generated by psychological discomfort that comes from leaving familiar territory and encountering a whole new set of symbols and meanings in social interaction. The theoretical base for the study of culture shock was further developed by Furnham and Bochner (1982), whose study of 150 international students in England revealed six areas of difficulty they experienced in social interactions: 1) understanding the rules and expectations of the host culture; 2) managing friendships and other close relationships; 3) adapting to the public facilities; 4) initiating and maintaining contact with host nationals; 5) making decisions about public issues; and 6) being assertive when encountering unfriendly attitudes. Other researchers have established a variety of psychological difficulties that people are faced with upon entering a new environment, such as stress, anxiety, social alienation, relational conflicts, and frustration (Hammer, Gudykunst, & Wiseman, 1978; Ward & Kennedy, 1994). The process of adaptation and the accompanying symptoms of culture shock have been viewed as essentially negative, but also as important and necessary steps in successful adjustment. One side of the dichotomy is represented in studies that have added new terms to define individuals' distress when entering a new culture – for example, Bennett (1977) coined “transition shock,” and Zaharna (1989) introduced “self-shock,” a term that refers to the necessary duality in identity that a person experiences in host cultures (Yana, 2008).

The term intercultural adaptation broadly refers to the process that people go through when trying to adjust to the differences they encounter in new cultural environments, thus becoming better suited for dealing with the extant challenges

encountered in unfamiliar environments (Kim, 1988a). Over the last fifty plus years, researchers have used various terms that describe the same general process of cross-cultural adaptation but differentiate qualitative shades of the adaptation experience – assimilation, acculturation, coping or adjustment, integration, and others (Kim, 2002).

Adler (1975) considered adaptation a transitional experience, which entails both stress and growth, and moves through five stages: contact, disintegration, reintegration, autonomy, and ultimately independence. Another contribution to this area consisted of the U-curve hypothesis. First introduced by Lysgaard in 1955 following his study of 200 Norwegian Fulbright scholars in the United States, the U-curve process of cross-cultural adaptation begins with the sojourner's original happiness and excitement about the new environment, is followed by a period of feeling helpless and desolate in response to being faced with difficulties and lack of resources for dealing with them, and concludes with feelings of greater comfort and better adjustment once the means for dealing with newness and uncertainty are obtained because the host culture is no longer overwhelming. The U-curve hypothesis was consequently confirmed by Oberg (1979), who identified four steps in the adaptation process: 1) a "honeymoon" stage, 2) a period of distress and hostility, 3) a period of active coping and improved relationships, and 4) a period of relatively complete adjustment, characterized by greater happiness, emotional stability, and general acceptance of the host culture (Yana,2008).

Cultural adaptation refers to the process of adjustment that the individual makes in a new environment. Such an individual is referred to as a stranger (Simmel, 1950/1908). For strangers, the familiar is left behind when they enter the new environment. They are separated physically, in space and time, from the past while still connecting to it emotionally and psychologically (Schutz, 1964). The experience of such incongruity between internal and external reality often results in various degrees of culture shock, which is often the beginning of cultural adaptation (Adler, 1975; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Oberg, 1960).

Strangers invariably face and must deal with the fact that many of their "beliefs and taken-for-granted assumptions, and routine behaviors are no longer relevant or appropriate" (Kim, 1997) in their everyday social interactions in the new environment. To function and to thrive in the new environment is to adapt to it. The adaptation process, at every stage, then, cultural adaptation involves discovery and

learning of new ways (acculturation) and the simultaneous, partial unlearning of old ways (deculturation; Gudykunst & Kim, 1992). This entails personal changes following the change of environment change in behavioral patterns and in mindsets (Kealey, 1989), to which individuals respond quite differently. Some choose to avoid and postpone the change and adjustment; some meet the challenge head on and start learning right away; and others alternatively avoid and learn (Bennet, 1977).

Over time, some strangers are assimilated into the host culture; some remain separate culturally in spite of the physical proximity. Others are integrated while maintaining a distinct cultural identity; still others become marginalized, not feeling at home in any cultures (Berry, 1990). Although a variety of internal and external factors influence the adaptation process and outcome (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992), to meet the challenge of cultural adaptation, strangers must undergo acculturation and deculturation to reach a new stage of personal growth. Cultural learning, thus, is logically an integral part of cultural adaptation.

Indeed, according to Kim (1998), the term “cross-cultural adaptation” refers to “the process of change over time that takes place within individuals who have completed their primary socialization process in one culture and then come into continuous. Prolonged first-hand contact with a new and unfamiliar environment” Gudykunst and Hammer (1988) define “inter-cultural adaptation” as the “fit between individuals and their environment. Individuals who have adapted to ‘foreign’ environments have worked out a ‘good’ fit between themselves and their environments” In order to achieve a goodness of fit between the “strangers” and the “foreign” environments, individuals adapt and changes. Adaptation process is assessed by the degree of effectiveness and the degree of positive adjustment experiences by the sojourners in their continuous, transformation process. Previous adaptation studies (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1988; Kim, 1988; Nishida, 1985) have identified perceived similarity and second language competence as critical to intercultural adaptation process (Ting-Toomey &Ge, 1988).

As Thai workers in Taiwan reside in a different culture, they have discovered cross-cultural similarities, differences, novelties, and difficulties, and therefore they adjust their actions, behaviors, interpreting perspectives, or even their mindsets to help themselves work or, and living more effectively and comfortably. However, when Thai workers face this complex nature of cultural competence, they have

problems on adaptation for working, socialization, environment, emotion, physiology and self-orientation. In addition to this, Thai migrant workers work in 3Ds conditions: Dangerous, Dirty and Difficult.” (Tanamoon, 2003) The unsafe working and living environments increase more difficulties for the Thai migrant workers to succeed the problems of adaptation, thus, they are residing in high stress” (Laodumrongchai, 1997). From the adaptive problems claimed by the Thai migrant workers, they face lots of problems, stress and pressure while they are working in Taiwan.

From Laodumrongchai’s research (1997), 88.5% of Thai migrant workers have complained about the working environment and about 86.5% complained about the pollution of working environment. In other words, working environment and facilities are needed to be improved in many working sites; otherwise, the physical and mental health of Thai migrant workers will be affected by the working environment (Laodumrongchai, 1997).

Adaptation studies to date have been relatively disparate – researchers have taken different perspectives to examine various populations, which has yielded little external validity. There has also been a lack of cohesive theoretical basis for much of the research. One explanation of this phenomenon is that sojourner studies have been largely driven by more practical (as opposed to theoretical) considerations of helping people adjust effectively to short term cultural transitions (Kim, 2002). In spite of the variations in theory and methodology used in adaptation studies, one unifying theme has clearly emerged: all individuals who undergo cultural transitions – whether entering the country for the first time, returning to their home land, or regularly alternating places of residence – experience difficulties adjusting to the newly-entered environment.

Although migrant workers have contributed greatly to Taiwan’s economy and to the society as a whole, they do find it quite difficult to adapt to a new working environment due to some barriers in language, religious belief, family ties, culture and customs. Therefore, major efforts are being made by the people in Taiwan to safeguard the best interests of foreign workers and ensure their equal rights and opportunities.

2.12 Policy on Foreign Workers ⁴ : Protecting the Fundamental Rights of Foreign Workers

2.12.1 Lowering down the brokerage fee for foreign workers

1. CLA has revised the regulation about Taiwan manpower agencies' brokerage on November 9, 2001. It is stipulated Taiwan manpower agencies can only charge monthly service fee from foreign workers and shall not charge any brokerage. The monthly service fee shall not be more than NT\$1,800 in the first year, NT\$1,700 in the second year and NT\$1,500 in the third year.

2. CLA has reduced the brokerage since November 2001. CLA suggests the expect brokerage is not over one month foreign workers' basic wages (NT 15,840) . The Declaration of Fees and Salaries of Taiwan-bound Workers is notarized by the authorities of the foreign worker's home country. The documents will be double check by the home country. If employer or broker withhold or illegally seize a foreign work's salary, CLA will aggravate the assessments and revoke the permit for recruiting foreign workers according to the Employment Service Act.

3. Taiwan has been aggressively promoting direct hiring programs with the central authorities of some labor countries to prevent manpower monopolies, introduce more effective channels for recruiting foreign workers, and lower the costs they must bear. Currently, Taiwan has established "Direct Hiring" program to initiate workers from Vietnam, the Philippine, Thailand and Mongolia etc. To further promote the "Direct Hiring" Program with employers, CLA started to print promotion kits and DM for employers and foreign workers as well as introduce the system through mass media since September, 2004.

4. The government revised the regulation on January 13, 2004 to open NPO to establish non-profit employment service agencies. That will help employers recruit foreign workers, reduce brokerage, and effectively eliminate fraudulent brokerage.

⁴ (<http://www.evta.gov.tw/files/89/engtitle.pdf>, August 20, 08)

5. The practice of overcharging brokerage is caused in part by employers who receive commissions from manpower agencies. In order to solve this problem and ensure the rights of foreign workers, CLA has revised its Employment Service Act and other pertinent regulations that authorize the government to disapprove application for foreign labor or revoke a permit if the employer found to receive kickbacks.

6. In order to reduce broker's fees, CLA has implemented measures that include the collection of broker's fee into examination item of local authority routine surveying since July 2002. According to "Fees & Salary Declaration of Taiwan-Bound Workers" signed by employees, CLA visits employers and foreign workers irregularly to check manpower agencies' charge. Domestic manpower agencies will be disciplined if they overcharged. In case of the overcharge occurred in foreign manpower agencies, their licenses will be revoked by CLA according to Taiwan's Regulations for Permission and Supervision of Private Employment Services Institutions and CLA will also ask the authorities of the labor sending country for proper handling.

7. In order to improve agencies' service quality and increase information for the employers to choose agencies, the CLA has been implementing comprehensive evaluation on agencies since 2004. The evaluation results are graded as A, B, C, D, and E levels, which are posted on our website at WWW.EVTA.GOV.TW as the reference for employers to choose agencies. In year 2005, we have finished evaluation exhibitions which present 695 manpower agencies in Taipei Metropolitan area, North Taiwan, Central Taiwan, and South Taiwan. For purpose to keep manpower agencies positively competing and improving service quality, in year 2006, we not only enhance agencies evaluation system so that represent more positive results, but also we are going to establish "retreat mechanism" to make improper agencies withdraw from the market. This would ensure the evaluation results are rightly utilized to straighten out manpower agencies market.

Viii We are planning to revise "Standards for Fee-charging Items and Amounts of the Private Employment Services Institution" to reduce foreign workers' burden for service fee and assure foreign workers' rights.

2.12.2 Stopping unjustified repatriation

1. To prevent unjustified repatriation, CLA has required in the “Regulations on the Permission and Administration of the Employer of Foreign Persons” specifies that an application for hiring another foreign worker must be submitted with an original copy of the agreement of contract termination signed by foreign workers. No permission will be issued to application for substitutes without such agreement attached.

2. To further assist and manage foreign workers, CLA has set up foreign workers counseling service centers at all local governments to provide services in relation to psychological assistance, law consultation and disputes with employers.

Considering that foreign workers are usually in disadvantage when disputes arise with their employers, and resulted in repatriation in some cases, CLA has made it clear that employers have to obtain foreign workers consent when repatriating the worker before expiration date of the contract. In addition, the disputes between employees and employers will be handled through a fair and efficient mechanism. In the case when employers cannot provide boarding to employees during a dispute period, CLA also provides sheltering by religious or charity groups.

3. In the case of forced repatriation or pending dispute between the employer, employees and agencies, foreign workers may be unwilling to board the airplanes or choose to “disappear” at airports, sometimes even being abducted by snake groups. In the light of these possibilities, from January 16th, 2006, CLA has set up foreign workers service station at the airport and arranged designated personnel to receive foreign workers at the customs. Service counter and more hot lines have been activated so as to take foreign workers’ complaints as well as further protect their rights.

2.12.3 Prohibition of any form of forced conducts or discrimination

1. Some employers will detain workers’ credentials or through forced saving means to prevent foreign workers from “disappearing:’ however, according to the Immigration Law of this country, foreign workers should always keep their passports or alien resident certificates with them. It is therefore strictly prohibited that employers detained above-mentioned credentials.

2. With respect to the prohibition of marriage or pregnancy regulations, CLA has amended related regulation on November 7, 2001 to cancel the regulation against

marriage during employment period. In addition, the pregnancy test from the regular bi-annual medical examination has also been cancelled starting November 9, 2002.

At the moment, foreign workers will follow the regulation based on the “Measures of Inspection and Supervision of Health Examination for Foreign Persons” announced on January 13, 2004, and take the medical examination since the date they have entered Taiwan for 6 months, 18 months and 30 months, however, without the requirement of pregnancy test. In other words, foreign workers will not be repatriated if they fail the pregnancy test.

iii. The rights of pregnant foreign workers will also be protected under the “Gender Equality in Employment Law.”

2.12.4 Protection of physical safety

CLA has integrated all the resources and set up a reporting system and guidelines of handling the sexual-assaults cases incurred to foreign workers. The system will provide the translation services for physical checkups report, legal suit-filing, deposition, and court-appearing; also included in the services are urgent accommodation, legal assistance, transfer of employers, or returning to foreign workers’ home countries, abolishment of employer permits, and disputes settlements, etc.

1. To further serve the sexual assault calls, the hot line services have been extended to 10:00 pm during the weekdays and also to cover the weekends.
2. To enhance sex abuse prevention for foreign workers and propagate their rights, on August 12th, 2005, the CLA has submitted the related materials edited by Ministry of the Interior to the radio station sponsored by BEVT, requesting them to broadcast intensely in the program. Meanwhile, on December 19th, 2005, Ministry of the Interior mailed the guidebook for “sex abuse prevention for foreign workers” in four foreign languages (English, Thai, Indonesian and Vietnamese) to the CLA, FWCC, and each representative office of foreign worker exporting countries. The guidebook will provide the measures to protect oneself from sex assault and related protection information.
- 3.. According to the additional regulations listed in the “Regulations on the Permission and Administration of the Employer of Foreign Persons” promulgated on January 13, 2004, when hiring blue-collar foreign workers, if the employers, patients

to be taken care of by foreign workers or any co-living relatives commit any conducts that are convicted by court, the employers will not be allowed to hire foreign workers in the future.

2.12.5 Establish counseling Service Network for Foreign workers

To further protect foreign workers' legal rights and assist them for swift adaptation in their assignments in Taiwan, the CLA has been subsidizing local governments to set up 24 Counseling and Service Center for Foreign Workers. All centers provide services and information of laws and regulation, psychological counseling, employment adaptation, labor dispute with the help of bilingual personnel. In case of need of counseling or any act such as early termination of contracts without fair reason, maltreatment, detainment of properties, non-payment of salary or sexual assault, foreign workers can file complaints or report to local governments or the centers. Meanwhile, starting from 2000, CLA also set up toll-free hot lines with bilingual speakers (English: 0800—885885, Thai: 0800-885995, Indonesian: 0800-885958, Vietnamese: 0800-017858) to help foreign workers to file complains toward brokers or employers.

2.13 Protection of Foreign Workers' Employment Rights

2.13.1 Foreign workers enjoy the same protections under the labor laws as the local citizens

1. According to Article 7 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights that "All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law." Taiwan is working hard to join international organizations, therefore, will surely comply with international regulations. At the moment, Taiwan has joined WTO, and every foreign worker in Taiwan is under the protection of pertinent laws. Therefore, if foreign workers employed in the industries that under the supervision of Labor Standards Law (LSL) are protected under LSL which offers nondiscrimination and legitimate protection in minimum wages, working hours and working conditions; however, for domestic helpers and caretakers, labor conditions and pertinent rights are subject to the individual employment contract agreed upon between the worker and the employer. Such regulation has unfortunately forced many foreign workers to enter into unfavorable contracts with employers. In light of this, CLA will continue

educating employers on the importance of reasonable and fair employment contracts, and will also study the feasibility of making model contract for foreign caretakers to protect rights from both the employees and employers. Additional laws may also be issued to reinforce the protection.

2. To prevent untrue charging of miscellaneous fees to foreign workers, CLA has issued a model directive to employers that regulate reasonable fees of utilities concerning water, electricity, meals and housing. Foreign workers are encouraged to report any violation of the directive to CLA or local labor authorities.

3. Based on Articles 54 and 57, the Employment Service Act, employers shall not detain, alien residence certificate or belongings of foreign workers without their approval. In case of any violation, foreign workers can file a complaint to the CLA or local government.

2.13.2 Ensuring the employers pay the salary according to labor contract

1. Under the newly amended regulations by CLA on November 7, 2002, an employer is not allowed to deduct brokerage and other fees from the workers' salary. Also, the "30% salary deduction as monthly deposits with the consent of the worker" has also been deleted.

2. CLA has regulated the new rules for the works' salary on November 9, 2001. When employees receive the salary from employers, it should be always accompanied by a salary slip which is translated to employer' home country language. If employers illegally withhold employee's belongings, employees can hand in salary slip as evidence in the court. Employers won't be permitted for further application if fail to follow the rules. The authority may decide to stop the on-going application procedure or revoke the already approved ones.

3. To protect foreign workers rights, CLA has assigned more than 110 inspectors to visit foreign workers to understand their employment situations since 2000. The inspectors have been assisting in the explanation of pertinent legal regulations and managements and in their regular visiting to the employers. The purpose is to ensure the employers have complied with the instructions listed on the "Day-to-Day Management Plan" for foreign workers and carried out the employment contract faithfully to avoid illegal happenings and ensure the rights of foreign workers.

4. The financial management for foreign workers planned by CLA was based on the principles of respecting the rights of employment, privacy and property for foreign workers. The plan is aimed at stopping employers and agencies to exploit or control the wages and tax refunds of foreign workers so that foreign workers will not face the risk of illegal overcharge from the agencies or remittance loss with illegal financial agencies. The plan will be more helpful in protecting foreign workers' employment rights. Foreign workers, who are in disadvantage in the economic society, will be easily exploited by illegal agencies or employers if the government does not get involved and fairly balance the relationships among all parties concerned. Setting up a preventive mechanism through a designated account can help monitor any irregularities related to foreign workers cash flow, such as unjustified delay or deduction of payments, illegal brokerage fees, or tax-refund being seized by employers, etc. This mechanism can also help avoid foreign exchange in the black market, which will compound the exploitation of foreign workers. Therefore, the mechanism can be considered as a "safety net" for foreign workers. All the above-mentioned problems will be left unattended and unsolvable if the foreign workers salary is paid in cash. It will then eventually leave foreign workers in an unfavorable situation and hence sacrifice their basic rights. In proposing the preventive mechanism, CLA has also taken into account of the privacy right, property rights and the principle of fairness for foreign workers. Therefore, that foreign workers' authorizations have to be obtained when we open a bank account for them so that any irregular cash flow will be shown. There will be no concern other than the NT\$3,000 guarantee deposit requirement and there will be no intervention either to the assets disposition of the foreign workers. The system itself is only to reflect irregularities.

As for the principle of fairness: the preventive measure is to extend special protection to the disadvantages in the society. In our compressive discussion with scholars and experts in this field, all have agreed that there should have different arrangements between white collars and blue collars workers in terms of protection. The white-collar workers and domestic labor may in a better position in terms of information gathering compared to blue-collar workers; also, their salary range may also be greater; hence, government's involvement can be limited.

In conclusion, the cash-flow preventive system designed to protect disadvantaged blue-collar workers does not violate the principle of fairness, and surely not a discriminative measure. The financial management system will not put in action rashly until meet the consensus of all groups.

2.13.3 Preventing occupational accidents

1. According to the latest CLA regulations, an employer is required to organize medical check-ups and safety seminars for the foreign workers hired. Also, warning signs in the language of the workers must be displayed at workplace.
- 2 In order to make foreign workers more aware of the basic knowledge on occupational safety, CLA has compiled an educational kit that contains comprehensive information on hazardous risks and labor health and safety in four languages (English, Thai, Indonesian, and Vietnamese). The information packet is made available to all foreign workers seeking visa application at Taiwan's representative offices abroad.
3. CLA has taken occupational accidents of foreign workers into consideration in its statistics analyses. The variation of the data may serve as a reference and warning to occupational accidents so that proper measures can be put in place to prevent accidents from happening.
4. In order to protect further foreign workers' right, CLA has made further explanation on December 23, 2003 that if a foreign worker is incurred with occupational accidents, and during the period of medical treatment for the occupational injury or illness withdraws from the insurance program upon the termination of his employment contract, he may still participate the general accident labor insurance program according to the Article 30 of the Occupational Accident Labor Protection Law, until the completion of the medical treatment which proved by doctor and issued by CLA.
5. CLA has set up a "task force for occupational accidents" to help foreign workers overcome the language barrier, the problems encountered in compensation process in an unfamiliar environment and any other possible needs in occupational accidents. In addition to comprehensive reporting system, CLA also coordinates with governments at all levels, representative offices from all the labor-sending countries in Taiwan, caring groups for foreign workers and other resources to help with the confirmation of

liabilities, application for medical treatment and related compensation, mediation of disputes, assistance in legal appeals, caring and consoling of victims in occupational accidents, living assistance, family contact for foreign workers and other necessary assistance. CLA hopes the victims of occupational accidents can receive the most efficient and comprehensive assistance through this comprehensive protection system.

2.13.4 Increase foreign workers transferring frequency

To protect foreign workers' rights, on December 30th, 2005, the CLA proclaimed "The Standard of Transferring Employer or Job Procedure for Foreigners Engaging in the Jobs Specified in Items 8 to 11, Paragraph 1 to Article 46 of the Employment Service Act", which revised the transferring frequency from 2 times to 3 times, and transfer will be proceeded regarding foreign worker's decision and desired employer's mutual agreement; in addition, foreigner workers who suffer from sexual assaults should exempt from the transfer limit of job category and frequency.

2.14 Protection of Foreign Workers' Living Rights

2.14.1 More efforts on day-to-day counseling

1. CLA has set up a network of counseling services throughout the country to help foreign workers adapt to the life style in Taiwan. These services are provided in conjunction with local representative offices of labor sending countries, government institutions , local labor service centers, NPO, manpower agencies and employers.
2. A total of 24 counseling service centers for foreign workers have been established by CLA throughout the country, providing support and counseling services to foreign workers through staffs who speak their native language. CLA also provide toll free hot lines in four different foreign languages for the foreign works. CLA also subsidizes local government to arrange inspectors to make random checks to realize foreign workers situations.
3. Employers are required to assign full-time managers and bilingual workers to assist foreign workers according to Article 40, 41 of the "Regulations on the Permission and Administration of the Employer of Foreign Persons":

Assign full-time managers: In order to assist timely foreign workers' day-to-day living, at least one manager is required for businesses that hire 10 to 49 foreign

workers, 2 for 50 to 100 workers, and an additional manager for every additional increment of 100 workers.

Assign bilingual workers: At least one bilingual is required for businesses that hire 30 to 99 foreign workers, 2 for 100 to 199 workers, and an additional bilingual for every additional increment of 100 workers.

4. CLA requires that all employers shall manage their foreign workers in strict accordance with the “Day-to-Day Management Plan”. On December 30th, 2005, we revised “Regulations on the Permission and Administration of the Employer of Foreign Persons” to require employers to remedy within limited time if they had violated the plan. Thus, it would improve the quality of foreign workers’ lives and to protect their safety.

2.14.2 Prevent unjustified tax pre-deduction

1. To prevent unjustified tax pre-deduction from the employers, CLA has required that all employers obey the tax regulations closely with regard to the issue of tax pre-deduction. Local manpower agencies are also requested by CLA at the regularly held seminars to inform employers about the tax payment regulations.

2. To prevent labor dispute concerning taxation issues and make the process of filing tax refund more effective, CLA has published the “What foreign works in Taiwan need to know” for foreign workers that outline important information and tips on filing tax returns.

3. Investigation efforts have also been made by CLA to find out those employers who illegally withhold income tax from foreign workers. Employers are also required to issue income and tax deduction receipts in both Mandarin Chinese and the native language of the hired foreign workers to foreign workers for filing tax refund reference.

2.14.3 Join the Labor Insurance & National Health Insurance Systems

1. Labor Insurance:

Foreign workers enjoy the same rights as domestic labors; hence, they will be protected by pertinent laws in this country. Employers of foreign workers that are required to join the insurance program from the “Labor Insurance Guidelines” will have to join the labor insurance program with the Labor Insurance Bureau by

presenting foreign worker employment permit, alien residence certificate or the copy of foreign passport. Foreign workers that are not required by the insurance program can still join the labor insurance program and enjoy compensation from sickness, injury, medical, disablement or death.

2. National Health Insurance:

According to Article 10 of the “National Health Insurance Law,” foreign workers who are employed in Taiwan and obtained alien residence certificate in Taiwan will have to join the National Health Insurance program. Also based on Article 2 of the said law, foreign workers will be compensated with insurance payment when incurred with sickness, injury or giving birth during the insured period.

2.14.4 Organize recreational activities

To help foreign workers cope with job pressure, homesickness and adapt themselves to the life style in Taiwan, CLA offers a series of recreational activities such as radio programs in several languages and cultural events during holidays. Many employers also hold their own activities on a regular basis to make foreign employers feel at home.

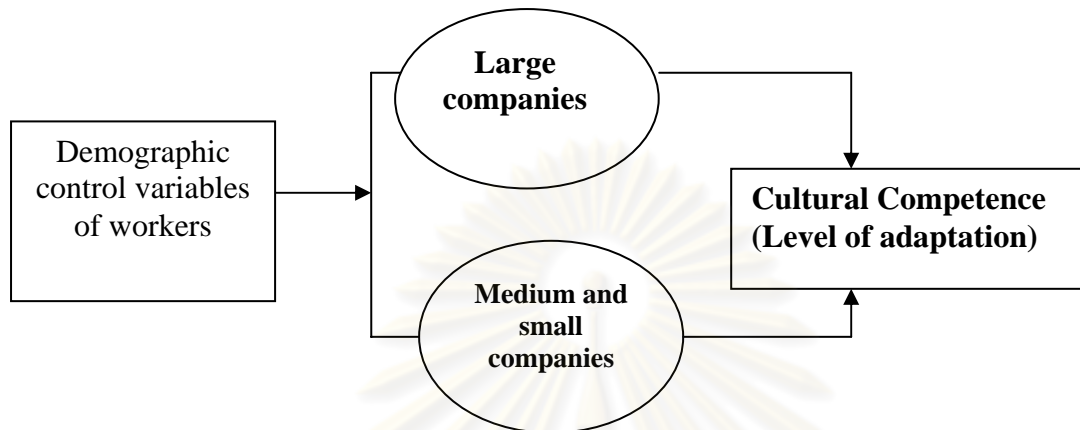
Since the main objective of this research is to explore the relationship between the adaptation level to unsafe working and living environment that varied in the foreign labor protection policy provided by the different size of manufacturing companies.

As to find out in between level of working and living environments’ adaptation and the size of manufacturing companies, the overall research focuses on “ How do large and medium and small manufacturing companies affect the adaptation level of Thai migrant workers in Taiwan. Therefore, I have made my hypothesis that:

H: Thai migrant workers in Taiwan who work in small manufacturing companies have lower level in working and living environment adaptation than those Thai migrant workers who work in large manufacturing companies.

2.15 Conceptual Framework

This research is followed the conceptual framework as follows.



The conceptual framework goes from demographic control variables of workers such as gender, age, marital status, experience of work broad, experience of work in Taiwan and the size of company which they are working in. Then, when Thai workers go to Taiwan, the group of workers has entered into either large companies or small and medium companies. In their companies, they have to adapt every area for a better adaptation. The ways they learned to adjust themselves and to adapt any kind of differences are the processes of cultural competence. The cultural competence has categorized the Thai migrant workers into different level of adaptation: high, average and low level of adaptation. In order to study the general situation to the Thai migrant workers in adaptation in Taiwan, in the part of level of adaptation has included several areas of adaptation for detail explanation. With the relationship between the Thai migrant workers' adaptation level to working and living environment and different sizes of large and medium and small manufacturing companies in Taiwan, after the level of adaptation has been tested, it has been discussed item by item through different size of companies.

Chapter III

Research Methodology

The area of research is according to the objectives of this research. The research adopts the theories of the intercultural competence and the processes of adaptations of Thai migrant workers to explore the adaptation situation and the protection policies provided to foreign workers in Taiwan.

Literature Review: study and analyze the related articles, journals, theses and books in both English and Chinese languages. Questionnaire: the research group is focused on the manufacturing workers in a county in Southern Taiwan, Yun Lin.

3. 1 Populations and Sample

According to Bureau of Development and Vocational Training (2008 April), there are 2159 Thai migrant workers in Yun Lin county and according to Yamane, 345 samples are needed to be collected. In fact, 373 samples have been collected for the research. The questionnaire focuses on the relationship between the adaptation level of working and living environments and the different size of manufacturing companies to Thai construction workers in Taiwan.

The research is chosen to be conducted in the manufacturing industry. The population is Thai migrant workers in a southern county of Taiwan, Yun Lin. According to Yamane formula, there are 345 samples needed while 373 samples are collected in my research both in female and male who have been contracted to work in the manufacturing companies.

Purposive Sampling is used in this research to collect 373 respondents.

Table 1
Distribution of Population and Sample

	Purposive sample size	Actual sample size collected
One large company	200	198
Five medium and small companies	200	175
Total	400	373

3.2 Variables

Demographic control variables included: gender, age, marital status, experience of work abroad, experience of work in Taiwan, length of staying in Taiwan, average of been ill during working in Taiwan and pre-job. Indeed, sizes of manufacturing companies are the independent variables (large and medium and small companies) while adaptation level in working and living environment adaptation is dependent variables.

3.3 Instruments

The instrument used to obtain data is the questionnaires. Totally, 373 samples collected. The questionnaire includes demographic background, conditions of working and living adaptation, and size of manufacturing companies.

3.4 Data collections

The data collection process is processed in August 2008. Specifically, the questionnaires data is collected in the manufacturing companies. There are several places have been chosen for data collection. For the large company, there is only one large company in my research which is Formosa Plastics Group. This is one of largest companies in Taiwan, in there, 198 questionnaires were collected. In Medium and Small companies, which are five companies: Zhan Song , Huan Ya, YuanShan, Donh Hao and Hoemmark. There were 175 questionnaires collected from these companies.

3.5 Data Analysis

The tool, which is used to analyze collected data, is Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). It is widely used in social statistical analysis.

There are two types of analysis skills used in data analysis process, descriptive statistic analysis and quantitative analysis.

3.5.1 Descriptive statistical analysis

Those demographic questions, which provided respondents' demographical background, will be analyzed by Descriptive analysis. Frequency and percentage will

be presented in tables for each demographical question. Those demographical questions include gender, age, marital status, work experience, period of stay, size of company, etc. Also, each demographic control variable is analyzed by cross tabulation with company sizes.

3.5.2 Inferential statistics analysis

In addition, the Thai workers' adaptation condition, which is tested by scale in Part 2 of questionnaire, is analyzed with significance level. The descriptive analysis focuses on the adaptation level of Thai workers in general which covers the whole 51-items scale. By using independent sample T-test to allocate means for each item, totally. means of 51 items are discussed by grouping which are allowed to analyze the difference of each item between sizes of companies through comparison of adaptation level.

According to the means, the adaptation scale is graded based on five choices which provide the segmentation of adaptation level. The lowest level of adaptation, "very difficult to adapt", is graded to one point; "difficult to adapt" is graded to two points; "average" is equal to three points; and "easy to adapt" and "very easy to adapt" are graded to 4 and 5 points respectively.

According to the highest and lowest points assigned in the grading system, the adaptation condition is segmented into three fields, high adaptation, average adaptation and low adaptation, and the segmentations are used as measurement to compare Thai workers' adaptation condition between small & medium and large manufacturing companies in Taiwan.

Inferential statistical analysis is applied to test hypothesis as well. Based on the total means from the 51- adaptation items, independent sample t-test is used to analyze hypothesis. After process of t-test computing, the hypothesis (H1) is accepted when the significant level is less than 0.05; or the null hypothesis (H0) is rejected when the significant level is more than 0.05.

Chapter IV

Findings

This chapter is a technical analysis of data in my research. The findings of the research are presented in the following. The respondents' demographic analysis, reliability analysis and test of hypothesis of my research are discussed in details in this part.

4.1. Respondents' demographic characteristics

According to the result of descriptive analysis, gender and size cross tabulation in this process. In Table 2, there are 197 male and 1 female respondents in large company with a total of 198 while 165 male and 10 female in small and medium companies with a total of 175.

From the Table1, there are male far more than female respondents.

Table2

Distribution of Company size by Gender

Gender * size Cross tabulation				
		size of company		Total
		large	small and medium	
Gender	Male	197	165	362
	Female	1	10	11
Total		198	175	373

The age of all respondents is ranged from under 20 to 50 years old. There are 2 respondents, who are under 20, 76 respondents are ranged from 21-30 years old, 77 respondents are ranged from 31 to 40 years old, and 43 respondents are ranged from 41-50 years old in large company with a total of 198. In small and medium companies, 0 respondent, who are under 20, 62 respondents are ranged from 21-30 years old, 94 respondents are ranged from 31 to 40 years old, and 19 respondents are ranged from 41-50 years old in large company with a total of 175.

As we can see from Table 3, almost half amount of the number of total respondents is aged from 31 to 40 years old.

Table 3
Distribution of Company size by Age

Age * size Cross tabulation				
		size of company		Total
		large	small and medium	
Age	under 20	2	0	2
	21-30	76	62	138
	31-40	77	94	171
	41-50	43	19	62
Total		198	175	373

In the percentage of marital status in Table 4, 51 of all 198 respondents are single and 137 are married in large company while 74 of all 172 respondents are single and 97 are married in small and medium companies. While there are 10 respondents in large company and 1 respondent in small and medium companies chose others. Seeing from Table 3, more than half amount of the number of total respondents is married.

Table 4
Distribution of Company size by Marital Status

Marriage * size Cross tabulation				
		size of company		Total
		large	small and medium	
Marriage	single	51	74	125
	married	137	97	234
	others	10	1	11
Total		198	172	370

For the careers that they were doing before they have gone to work in Taiwan, within these 198 respondents in large company, 22 of them were unemployed, 94 were workers, 1 was government officer, 32 were merchants, farmers were 48 and others was 1. In small and medium companies, within these 175 respondents, 14 of

them were unemployed, 83 were workers, 0 was government officer, 11 were merchants, farmers were 60 and others were 7.

If we look at the Table 5, we can see that most respondents were workers and farmers.

Table 5

Distribution of Company size by Pre-Job

Pre-job * size Cross tabulation				
		size		Total
		large	small and medium	
Pre-job	unemployed	22	14	36
	worker	94	83	177
	government officer	1	0	1
	merchant	32	11	43
	farmer	48	60	108
	others	1	7	8
Total		198	175	373

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In Table 6, apart from working in Taiwan, 145 respondents have an experience of been worked abroad while 51 respondents have not had an experience of been worked abroad in large company. 109 respondents have an experience of been worked abroad while 64 respondents have not had an experience of been worked abroad in small and medium companies. However, 1 of them is missing data in large company and 2 in small and medium companies.

From Table 6, there are more than half amount of the number of total respondents have an experiences of been worked abroad.

Table6
Distribution of Company size by Ever Worked Abroad

Worked abroad * size Cross tabulation				
		size		Total
		large	small and medium	
worked abroad	yes	146	109	255
	no	51	64	115
	Missing	1	2	3
Total		198	175	373

For the experience of ever been worked in Taiwan, in Table 7, 145 respondents answered yes, 53 respondents answered no while in large company. 103 respondents answered yes, 70 respondents answered no while there was 1 missing data in small and medium companies. Therefore, most of respondents have ever worked in Taiwan before.

Table 7
Distribution of Company size by Ever worked in Taiwan

Ever worked in Taiwan * size Cross tabulation				
		size		Total
		large	small and medium	
Ever worked in Taiwan	yes	145	103	248
	no	53	70	123
	missing	0	1	1
Total		198	174	372

Furthermore, for the length of staying in Taiwan, in large company, 10 respondents have stayed in Taiwan less than one month, 8 respondents chose 1-3 months, 17 respondents chose 3- 6 months, 27 respondents chose 6-12 months, and 58 respondents chose 1-2 years. About 64 of 198 respondents have stayed in Taiwan more than 2 years while there are 14 of all respondents chose others in large company.

In small and medium companies, 8 respondents have stayed in Taiwan less than one month, 10 respondents chose 1-3 months, 17 respondents chose 3- 6 months, 15 respondents chose 6-12 months, and 34 respondents chose 1-2 years. About 88 of 173 respondents have stayed in Taiwan more than 2 years while there are 3 of all respondents chose others in small and medium companies.

Thus, in Table 8, most respondents have stayed in Taiwan either 1-2 years or more than two years.

Table 8

Distribution of Company size by Length of staying in Taiwan

Length of staying in Taiwan * size Cross tabulation				
		size		Total
		large	small and medium	
Length of staying in Taiwan	less than 1 month	10	8	18
	1-3 months	8	10	18
	3-6 months	17	17	34
	6-12 months	27	15	42
	1-2 years	58	34	92
	more than 2 years	64	88	152
	others	14	3	17
Total		198	175	373

In Table 9, in large company ,there are 94 respondents who have not being ill when they have been in Taiwan, 62 respondents have being ill with an average of once for 3 months, 25 respondents answered an average of more than twice for 3 months and 5 respondents chose an average of more than 3 times for 3 months. Also, there are 12 respondents chose others for their answer.

There are 76 respondents who have not being ill when they have been in Taiwan, 62 respondents have being ill with an average of once for 3 months, 11 respondents answered an average of more than twice for 3 months and 4 respondents chose an average of more than 3 times for 3 months. Also, there are 22 respondents chose others for their answer.

Table 9
Distribution of Company size by
Average of being ill during working in Taiwan

Being ill* size Cross tabulation				
		size		Total
		large	small and medium	
Being ill	none	94	76	170
	once for 3 months	62	62	124
	more than twice for 3 months	25	11	36
	more than 3 times for 3 months	5	4	9
	others	12	22	34
Total		198	175	373

From Table 10, in large company, 34 respondents are in low level of adaptation, 19 are in average level of adaptation and 145 are in high level of adaptation. In small and medium companies, 55 respondents are in low level of adaptation, 8 are in average level of adaptation and 62 are in high level of adaptation.

Table 10
Distribution of Company size by Adaptation Level

		Adaptation level			Total
		Low level of adaptation	Average level of adaptation	High level of adaptation	
SIZE	Large	34	19	145	198
	Small and medium	55	8	62	125
Total		89	27	207	323

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4.2 Comparison of Adaptation Level

As the method of independent sample T-test is used, the followings are Tables to analyze the relationship between sizes of companies and problems of adaptation which are pasted item by item through comparing with means and significant level.

There are 51 items to analyze while they are divided into 9 parts: adaptation to communication, adaptation to relationship with people, adaptation to working conditions, adaptation to salary and fees paid, adaptation to rule and regulation, adaptation to labor welfare and service, adaptation to living conditions and adaptation to physiological costs.

By comparing with the means for significant level from different sizes of companies (large and medium and small companies) appeared in each problem of adaptation, in that, to analyze which size of company has better in adaptation. Because it is listed item by item, therefore, each problem of adaptation is examined and compared with other problems of adaptation.

For number of mean, in general, the means which below 2.00 are considered lowest level of adaptation or very difficult to adapt, the means which between 2.00 to 3.00 are considered as low level in adaptation or average to difficult to adapt. Also, the means which are equal to 3.00 considered as average level in adaptation or average to adapt in average. Finally, the means which are from 3.00 to 4.00 are considered as average to high level in adaptation or average to easy to adapt and the means which are from 4.00 to 5.00 are considered the highest level in adaptation considered as easy to very easy to adapt.

However, by comparing with means, items which have significant level lower than 0.05 alpha risk are accepted and discussed in the paper and are considered as 95% confidence interval for the difference or 95% of data is correct. While, items which are higher than 0.05 alpha risk are not accepted and not discussed in the paper as they are considered incorrect data for more than 5%.

4.2.1 Adaptation to Communication

In adaptation to communication Table 11, there are three categories of communication: local people and neighbors, employers and local colleagues and channels to communicate with hometown.

Within this group, the significance level is accepted only in channels to communicate with hometown which means that adaptation to channels to communicate with hometown is the most accurate data in this group with the mean 3.44 in large company and 3.65 in small and medium companies. The means of adaptation to channels to communicate with hometown indicate that workers in large company are slightly lower than workers in small and medium companies in the adaptation level. However, workers in large and small and medium companies are still in the average to high level in adaptation or average to easy to adapt and the means in the case of adaptation to communicate with hometown.

Table 11
Adaptation to Communication

Independent Sample Test				
		N	Mean	Sig.
Adaptation to communication				
Communicate with Local people & neighbors	large	198	3.16	0.741
	small and medium	173	3.10	
Communicate with Employers & local colleagues	Large	198	3.05	0.500
	small and medium	174	3.03	
Channels to communicate with hometown	large	198	3.44	0.000
	small and medium	171	3.65	

4.2.2 Adaptation to Relationship with people

Within this part Table 12, there are four types of adaptation: to get along with employers, get along with new colleagues, get along with local colleagues and get along with one and the society.

In this group, four of items are significant. There are two items with the significance level of 0.00. The items are adaptation to get along with employers and get along with local colleagues with the means of 3.15 in large company and 3.16 in small and medium companies and 3.20 in large company and 3.26 in small and medium companies respectively. There is one item, adaptation to get along with new colleagues, with the significant number of 0.040 and the means of 3.31 in large company and 3.47 in small and medium companies. The last one item is adaptation to get along with one and the society relationship, with the significant number if 0.045 and the means of 3.36 in large company and 3.43 in small and medium companies. On the other hand, in general, Thai migrant workers in large and small and medium companies are in the average to high level in adaptation or average to easy to adapt to relationship with people. However, the means in small and medium companies are slightly higher than the means in large company in this group.

Table 12
Adaptation to Relationship with people

Independent Sample Test				
Adaptation to Relationship with people		N	Mean	Sig.
Get along with employers	large	198	3.15	0.000
	small and medium	173	3.16	
Get along with new colleagues	large	198	3.31	0.040
	small and medium	174	3.47	
Get along with local colleagues	large	198	3.20	0.000
	small and medium	174	3.26	
Get along with one and the society relationship	large	198	3.36	0.045
	small and medium	174	3.43	

4.2.3 Adaptation to Working Conditions

In this part Table 13, there are ten types of adaptation: to inappropriate overtime working hours, tension from work, tough works, overload job, tiredness from work, dangerous working environment, polluted working environment, unhygienic working environment, long working hours and complex processes of mechanical operation.

For this Table 13, items of adaptation to tension from working (0.041), to tough works (0.026), to tiredness from work (0.000), to dangerous working environment (0.001), to polluted working environment (0.000), to unhygienic working environment (0.000) and to complex process of mechanical operation (0.001) are significant.

The means in adaptation to tension from working (3.22 large company and 2.95 small and medium companies), to overload job (3.25 large company and 2.98 small and medium companies) , to tiredness from work (3.14 large company and 2.93 small and medium companies) , to dangerous working environment (3.22 large company and 2.93 small and medium companies), to polluted working environment (3.07 large company and 2.93 small and medium companies) and to unhygienic working environment (3.19 large company and 2.88 small and medium companies), which indicate that Thai workers in large company are in the average to high level in adaptation or average to easy to adapt while Thai workers in small and medium companies are in the low level in adaptation or average to difficult to adapt.

Moreover, the means in adaptation to tough works (3.17 large company and 3.11 small and medium companies) and to complex mechanical operation (3.08 large company and 3.05 small and medium companies) indicate that Thai workers in both large and small and medium companies are in the average to high level in adaptation or average to easy to adapt to these two areas.

Table 13
Adaptation to Working Conditions

Independent Sample Test				
Adaptation to working conditions		N	Mean	Sig.
Inappropriate times of overtime working	large	198	3.22	0.068
	small and medium	166	3.01	
Tension from working	large	198	3.22	0.041
	small and medium	168	2.95	
Tough works	large	198	3.17	0.026
	small and medium	167	3.11	
Overload job	large	198	3.25	0.539
	small and medium	166	2.98	
Tiredness from work	large	198	3.14	0.000
	small and medium	173	2.93	
Dangerous working environment	large	198	3.22	0.001
	small and medium	174	2.93	
polluted working environment	large	198	3.07	0.000
	small and medium	174	2.93	
Unhygienic working environment	large	198	3.19	0.001
	small and medium	173	2.88	
Long working hours	large	198	3.24	0.056
	small and medium	171	3.08	
Complex processes of mechanical operation	large	198	3.08	0.001
	small and medium	172	3.05	

4.2.4 Adaptation to Salary and Fees paid

In Table 14 adaptation to salary and fees paid, there are four types of adaptation: to salary, fees of overtime work, medical compensation and deducted salary for casualties done by workers.

In this group, the four items are significant with the significant number 0.000 in adaptation to salary, 0.002 in adaptation to fees of work overtime, 0.000 to medical compensation and 0.000 to deducted salary for casualties done by workers.

The means are ranged from 3.07 to 3.27 in large company and 2.55 to 2.79 in small and medium companies, show that workers in large company are in the average to high level in adaptation or average to easy to adapt to these four areas while workers in small and medium companies are in the low level in adaptation or average to difficult to adapt to these four areas.

Table 14
Adaptation to Salary and fees paid

Independent Sample Test				
Adaptation to Salary and fees paid		N	Mean	Sig.
Salary	large	198	3.27	0.000
	small and medium	157	2.79	
Fees of overtime work	large	198	3.26	0.002
	small and medium	166	2.89	
Medical compensation	large	198	3.23	0.000
	small and medium	168	2.82	
Deducted salary for casualties done by workers	large	198	3.07	0.000
	small and medium	161	2.55	

4.2.5 Adaptation to Rules and Regulations

Rule and regulation's group has contained three types of adaptation: to work regulations, inspections and checks and regulations of accommodation.

In group of adaptation to rules and regulations, three items are all considered as significance. In adaptation to work regulation, the significant number is 0.000, 0.185 in adaptation to inspections and checks and 0.000 in adaptation to regulation of accommodation.

The means are ranged from 3.26 to 3.41 in large company and 2.68 to 2.95 in small and medium companies, show that workers in large company are in the average to high level in adaptation or average to easy to adapt to these three areas while workers in small and medium companies are in the low level in adaptation or average to difficult to adapt to these three areas.

Table 15
Adaptation to Rules and Regulations

Independent Sample Test				
		N	Mean	Sig.
Adaptation to rules and regulations				
Work Regulations	large	198	3.33	0.000
	small and medium	174	2.68	
Inspections and checks	large	198	3.26	0.185
	small and medium	170	2.95	
Regulation of accommodation	large	198	3.41	0.000
	small and medium	174	2.80	

4.2.6 Adaptation to Labor welfare and service

In part of labor welfare and service, there are four types of adaptation: to policy and labor rights, labor insurance, labor welfare from employers and day-off.

In group of adaptation to labor welfare and service, all of four items are all considered as significance. In adaptation to policy and labor right, the significant number is 0.000, 0.016 in adaptation to labor insurance, 0.000 in adaptation to labor welfare from employers and 0.000 in adaptation to day-off.

The means are ranged from 3.27 to 3.32 in large company and 2.69 to 3.08 in small and medium companies, show that workers in large company are in the average to high level in adaptation or average to easy to adapt to these four areas while workers in small and medium companies are average in the low level in adaptation or average to difficult to adapt to these four areas.

Table 16
Adaptation to Labor welfare and service

Independent Sample Test				
Adaptation to Labor welfare and service		N	Mean	Sig.
Policy and labor rights	large	198	3.30	0.000
	small and medium	172	2.79	
Labor Insurance	large	198	3.27	0.016
	small and medium	167	3.08	
Labor welfare from employers	large	198	3.32	0.000
	small and medium	169	2.69	
Day-off	large	198	3.30	0.000
	small and medium	161	2.84	

4.2.7 Adaptation to Living Conditions

In this part, Table 17, there are six types of adaptation: to accommodation, to facilities and services of accommodation, to weather, to leisure and entertainment, to religious practice and to culture and value differences.

Within these six items, four are significant: adaptation to accommodation (0.027), to leisure and entertainment (0.001), to religious practice (0.000) and to culture and value differences (0.005).

The means for first two items, adaptation to accommodation and to leisure and entertainment, are not much different in between large and small and medium companies with of 3.39 and 3.40 in large company and of 3.20 and 3.20 in small and medium companies. Thai workers in large and small and medium companies are in high level of adaptation which indicates respondents in large company are in average to easy to adapt.

The means for other two items, adaptation to religious practice and to culture and value differences, are different in between large and small and medium companies with of 3.27 and 3.23 in large company and 2.82 and 2.98 in small and medium companies. Therefore, Thai workers in large company are in high level of adaptation which indicate respondents in large company are in average to easy to adapt to this two areas and Thai workers in small and medium companies are in low level of adaptation or in average to difficult to adapt.

Table 17
Adaptation to Living Conditions

Independent Sample Test				
Adaptation to Living condition		N	Mean	Sig.
Accommodation	large	198	3.39	0.027
	small and medium	171	3.20	
Facilities and services of accommodation	large	198	3.28	0.277
	small and medium	175	3.07	
Weather	large	198	3.31	0.110
	small and medium	171	3.16	
Leisure and entertainment	large	198	3.40	0.001
	small and medium	173	3.20	
Religious practice	large	198	3.27	0.000
	small and medium	167	2.82	
Culture and value differences	large	198	3.23	0.005
	small and medium	173	2.98	

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4.2.8 Adaptation to Physiological Costs

There are 9 items in this group: adaptation to loneliness, to homesickness, to physiological demands, to feeling of insecurity, to anxiety and depression, to economic stress, to feel unease when working, to career crisis and to condition of health.

Within Table 18, 8 items are significant: adaptation to loneliness (0.000), to homesickness (0.000), to physiological demands (0.000), to feeling of insecurity (0.021), to anxiety and depression (0.000), to economic stress (0.000), to feel unease when working (0.001) and to career crisis (0.047).

In this part, the adaptation level of Thai workers in large company is particular higher than the Thai workers in small and medium companies. The means in large company are ranged from 3.11 to 3.28 and the means in small and medium companies are ranged from 2.69 to 2.98, thus, Thai workers in large company are in high level of adaptation or in average to easy to adapt to this two areas and Thai workers in small and medium companies are in low level of adaptation or in average to difficult to adapt.

Table 18
Adaptation to Physiological costs

Independent Sample Test				
Adaptation to Physiological costs		N	Mean	Sig.
Loneliness	large	198	3.12	0.000
	small and medium	173	2.69	
Home sickness	large	198	3.11	0.000
	small and medium	174	2.72	
Physiological demands	large	198	3.27	0.000
	small and medium	172	2.83	
Feeling of insecurity	large	198	3.25	0.021
	small and medium	169	2.91	
Anxiety and depression	large	198	3.16	0.000
	small and medium	173	2.71	
Economic stress	large	198	3.17	0.000
	small and medium	171	2.70	
Feel unease when working	large	198	3.28	0.001
	small and medium	174	2.86	
Career crisis	large	198	3.25	0.047
	small and medium	171	2.98	
Condition of health	large	198	3.32	0.741
	small and medium	172	3.16	

4.2.9 Adaptation to Diet

In this group, there are two items: adaptation to locals' eating habits and local food.

There is only one significant item in Table 19, which is the adaptation to locals' eating habits (0,002), Thai workers in large company are in high level of adaptation with the means 3.19 while small and medium companies are in low level of adaptation with the same mean of 2.96.

Table 19
Adaptation to Diet

Independent Sample Test				
Adaptation to Diet		N	Mean	Sig.
Locals' eating habits	large	198	3.19	0.002
	small and medium	172	2.96	
Local food	large	198	3.16	0.103
	small and medium	162	2.96	

4.2.10 Adaptation to Society and Social Service

Within this part, six items are listed: adaptation to medical treatment, to public service and facilities, to access to social organizations, to isolation and discrimination, to sociality and safety of society.

In this Table 20, there are three items significant: adaptation to access to social organizations (0.000), to isolation and discrimination (0.010) and to safety of society (0.005). Large company is also in the high level of adaptation with the means ranged from 3.21 to 3.28. In small and medium companies, there are two means 2.79 and 2.94 considered as low level of adaptation, and a mean 3.07 is considered as high level on adaptation.

Table 20
Adaptation to Society and Social service

Independent Sample Test				
Adaptation to Society and Social services		N	Mean	Sig.
Medical treatment	large	198	3.26	0.090
	small and medium	169	3.00	
Public service and facilities	large	198	3.29	0.287
	small and medium	169	2.92	
Access to social organizations	large	198	3.22	0.000
	small and medium	167	2.79	
Isolation and discrimination	large	198	3.21	0.010
	small and medium	168	2.94	
Sociality	large	198	3.29	0.285
	small and medium	162	3.25	
Safety of society	large	198	3.28	0.005
	small and medium	172	3.07	

In Table 21, the total means for each group of adaptation are listed by sizes of companies. With the significance level of 0.000 in Group1, Adaptation to communication, the total means for large company is 9.64 while in small and medium companies is 9.82. With the significance level of 0.000 in Group2, Adaptation to relationship with people, the total mean for large company is 13.01 while in small and medium companies is 13.34. In these two groups, the means for Thai migrant workers in small and medium companies is slightly higher than Thai workers in large company.

Whereas, from group 3 to group10, total means for Thai workers in large company are higher than in small and medium companies. With significance level 0.000 in Group 3, adaptation to working condition, total means are 31.79 in large company and 30.18 in small and medium companies. With significance level 0.000 in Group 4, adaptation to Salary and feed paid, total means are 12.81 in large company and 11.00 in small and medium companies. With significance level 0.000 in Group 5, adaptation to Rules and regulations, total means are 10.00 in large company and 8.42 in small and medium companies.

With significance level 0.000 in Group 6, adaptation to labor welfare and service, total means are 31.79 in large company and 11.44 in small and medium companies. With significance level 0.000 in Group 7, adaptation to living condition, total means are 19.88 in large company and 18.47 in small and medium companies. With significance level 0.000 in Group 8, adaptation to physiological costs, total means are 28.92 in large company and 25.56 in small and medium companies. With significance level 0.000 in Group 9, adaptation to diet, total means are 6.34 in large company and 5.91 in small and medium companies.

Also in Group 10, adaptation to society, the significance level is 0,007 with the mean of 19.55 in large company and 17.98 in small and medium companies.

Thai migrant workers in large company are in the fourth level of high level of adaptation which indicates that they are in average to easy to adapt with the average total mean of 3.23. However, Thai migrant workers in small and medium companies are in the second level of low adaptation level which indicates that they are in average to difficult to adapt with the average total mean of 2.98.

Table 21
Distribution of total means by groups and company size

Group Statistics					
	Adaptation to :	size of company	N	Total Means	Sig.
1	Communication	large	198	9.64	0.000
		small and medium	170	9.82	
2	Relationship with people	large	198	13.01	0.000
		small and medium	173	13.34	
3	Working condition	large	198	31.79	0.000
		small and medium	155	30.18	
4	Salary and fed paid	large	198	12.81	0.000
		small and medium	143	11.00	
5	Rules and regulations	large	198	10.00	0.000
		small and medium	170	8.42	
6	Labor welfare and service	large	198	13.19	0.000
		small and medium	158	11.44	
7	Living condition	large	198	19.89	0.000
		small and medium	159	18.47	
8	Physiological costs	large	198	28.92	0.000
		small and medium	160	25.56	
9	Diet	large	198	6.34	0.000
		small and medium	161	5.91	
10	Society	large	198	19.55	0.007
		small and medium	157	17.98	
Total means		large		160.95	
		small and medium		152.12	
Average of Total means		large		3.15	
		small and medium		2.4	

4.3 Test of hypothesis

Based on the result of T-test analysis method in Table 22, the total mean for large company is 165.19 and small and medium companies is 152.52.

Table 22
Distribution of Total means by company size

Group Statistics			
	size	N	Total Mean
Total	large	198	165.19
	small and medium	125	152.52

Recall that a one-side less-than alternative hypothesis (H_1): *Thai migrant workers in Taiwan who work in small manufacturing companies have lower level in working and living environment adaptation than those Thai migrant workers who work in large manufacturing companies*. Therefore, evidence consistent with the alternative should lead to a negative difference. Indeed, the means of small and medium companies is less than the large company's.

In Table 23, the two blocks titled "Levene's Test for Equality of Variances." The test statistic, F, has a value of 21.269 and a P-value (significance) of 0.000. In any statistical test, when P is less than alpha risk 0.005, the (H_0) null hypothesis is rejected. In here, as the P is 0.000 which is less than 0.005, the null hypothesis is rejected and means that there is one mean greater than the other one. When significant level is 0.000 ($p=0.000$) which means there are 0 mistakes or error allocated in every 100 responses. Therefore, the (H_1) is accepted.

Table 23
Distribution of T-test to the test of hypothesis

Independent Samples Test					
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F.	Sig.	t.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Total	Equal variances assumed	21.269	0.000	5.029	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed			4.522	0.000

4.4 Test of reliability

Reliability test was conducted to test the internal consistency among questions that respondents answered. Those 51 adaptation items, which are asked in Part II (adaptation level) in designed questionnaires, are tested by reliability coefficients. In Table 24, with the total of 373 samples, 323 are valid and 50 are excluded.

Table 24
Distribution of reliability test

		N	%
Cases	Valid	323	86.6
	Excluded ^a	50	13.4
	Total	373	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

In Table 25, the reliability coefficients of the 51-items adaptation scale showed a Cronbach alpha=0.967, which is higher than Snyder's reliability standard of 0.70. Thus, respondents' answers are stable and reliable over time and place according to the result of reliability test.

Table 25
Distribution of Reliability
Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.967	51

Chapter V

Conclusion

5.1 Conclusion

In the finding of the respondents' demographic analysis, there are males more far more than females with a difference of 316 people. The age of all respondents is ranged from under 20 to 50 years old. Most of respondents are between 21 to 40 years old. For the marital status, 234 respondents are married while 125 respondents are single and 11 are others. Most respondents were workers and farmers before they have been to Taiwan to work. In addition, 255 respondents had an experience of been worked abroad before they have been to Taiwan while within these 373 respondents, 248 had ever worked in Taiwan before this time. About the length of staying in Taiwan, most respondents have stayed in Taiwan for more than one year. The average rate of been in ill during they are in Taiwan, most respondents have never been in ill and once for 3 months. For the size of companies they are working at, 198 respondents are working in large company whereas 175 respondents are working in medium and small company. Indeed, in large company, 34 respondents are in low level of adaptation, 19 are in average level of adaptation and 145 are in high level of adaptation. In small and medium companies, 55 respondents are in low level of adaptation, 8 are in average level of adaptation and 62 are in high level of adaptation

In Chapter 4 part 2, comparison of adaptation level, the lowest mean is 3.05 and the highest is 3.36 in large company in adaptation to complex process of mechanical operation and to channels to communicate with hometown respectively. Thai migrant workers in large company are in the fourth level of high level of adaptation which indicates that they are in average to easy to adapt with the average total mean of 3.15 . As in small and medium companies, the lowest mean is 2.55 in adaptation to deducted salary for casualties done by workers and the highest mean is 3.65 in adaptation to channels to communicate with hometown. Thai migrant workers in small and medium companies are in the second level of low adaptation level which indicates that they are in average to difficult to adapt with the average total mean of 2.4.

In Table 21, the total means for each group of adaptation are listed by sizes of companies. With the significance level of 0.000 in groups, Adaptation to communication, the total means for large company is 9.64 while in small and medium companies is 9.82. With the significance level of 0.000 in Group2, Adaptation to relationship with people, the total mean for large company is 13.01 while in small and medium companies is 13.34. In these two groups, the means for Thai migrant workers in small and medium companies is slightly higher than Thai workers in large company. For the rest of seven groups in adaptation (adaptation to working condition, to salary and fee paid, to rules and regulations to labor welfare and services, to living conditions, to physiological costs and to diet), the total means of large company are still higher than small and medium companies'.

For the policy and services provided by the different sizes of companies, as in Table 16, comparing the means in labor welfare and services group, respondents from large company are in high level of adaptation which indicate respondents in large company are in average to easy to adapt. There are means 3.30 in adaptation to policies and rights of labor, 3.27 in adaptation to labor insurance, 3.32 in adaptation to labor welfare from employers and 3.30 in adaptation to day-off. In contrast to large company, means from small and medium companies are in low level of adaptation which indicate that respondents in small and medium companies are in average to difficult to adapt. There are means 2.79 in adaptation to policies and rights of labor, 3.08 in adaptation to labor insurance, 2.69 in adaptation to labor welfare from employers and 2.64 in adaptation to day-off which are lower than the means from large company.

To the test of reliability, according to the result of test of reliability, the reliability coefficients of the 51-items adaptation scale showed a Cronbach alpha =0.967, which is higher than Snyder's reliability standard of 0.70. Thus, respondents' answers are stable and reliable over time and place according to the result of reliability test.

For the test of hypothesis, based on the result of t-test analysis method, significant numbers are 0.000 ($p=0.000$) which means there is 0 mistake or error allocated in every 100 responses. The hypothesis (H1) is accepted and the (H0) is rejected. It means that Thai workers, who are working in large companies,

significantly have a better level of adaptation than those workers who are working in small and medium companies in Taiwan.

To conclude, according to the finding of t-test analysis in SPSS, the hypothesis is accepted. Thus, a conclusion can be made that there are differences in adaptation level toward to Thai migrant workers in Taiwan between large and small and medium manufacturing companies. The hypothesis is tested and accepted by the result of analysis. The hypothesis (H1) is accepted and the H0 is rejected which means that Thai workers, who work in large companies, significantly have a better level of adaptation than those workers who work in small and medium companies in Taiwan. Therefore, the finding of this research has confirmed the hypothesis in this study.

5.2 Discussion

There is only one hypothesis in this research, the hypothesis is accepted. In the hypothesis, I have proposed that Thai migrant workers who are working in large companies have higher level in adaptation than those Thai migrant workers who are working in small and medium companies.

Indeed, migration for employment is viewed as the defining feature of the contemporary period. (Miller & Martin 1996) There are foreign workers in the seven major labor importing Asian areas: Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand, and most of them come from China, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand. The factors that increase labor migration in the Asia-Pacific Region are such as uneven population and economic growth, the recruitment of both professional and unskilled migrant workers, the growth of tourism, labor smuggling, stop-go policies that first tolerate and then crack down on illegal workers and labor shortages. Today, most Asian migration discussion refer to labor migration within Asia, as workers move from one Asia nation to another, such as Filipinos to Hong Kong or Singapore, or Chinese to Japan. (Miller & Martin 1996)

Same as in Taiwan, the structure of Taiwan's economy, and of its labor force, have changed rapidly (Lee, 2002). Taiwan's experience of using foreign workers began in the early 1980s when the island was facing increase in domestic real wages and sharp appreciation of the Taiwanese currency (Tsay, 1995). On the other hand, the supply of labor in specific sectors of employment is particularly problematic. The affected sectors are those engaged in semi-skilled or unskilled positions, such as in the

production, manufacturing and construction industries, and in domestic work. These jobs are usually low-paid and mainly handle "dirty" duties.

Thailand has a long history of sending workers abroad. The initial major destination was the Middle East in 1970 – 1990. It then shifted to East and Southeast Asia, where labor shortages were a serious problem due to economic restructuring and socio-demographic transition (Chris and Tsay 1998; Hugo 1998; Tsay 1999).

Apart from the main purpose of migration that the higher income Thai workers may make in the foreign countries, Thai workers also have to face some other challenges of adapting in foreign countries. Instead of operating exclusively within the cultural setting in which they were born and raised, individuals must now be capable of functioning appropriately in a wide variety of foreign cultural situations, many of which have different cultural norms for appropriate behavior that may conflict with their core values and beliefs (Molinsky, 2007). Thai migrant workers work in 3Ds conditions: Dangerous, Dirty and Difficult.” (Tanamoon 2003) The unsafely working and living environments increase more difficulties for the Thai migrant workers to solve the problems of adaptation, thus, they are residing in high stress (Laodumrongchai, 1997). From the adaptive problems claimed by the Thai migrant workers, they face lots of problems, stress and pressure while they are working in Taiwan.

When migrant workers are working in abroad, they have experienced adaptation. In this, I agreed with the concept of adaptation which originated in biology and was a cornerstone on Darwin’s (1895) theory of evolution. There, however, it referred to the biological structures and processes that facilitated the survival of species: biological properties of organisms would persist in nature only if they aided in survival by permitting the species to reproduce sufficient numbers to replace themselves and even to increase in numbers. The key biological law was “natural selection” or more simply part, survival of the fittest. Thus, in the evolution of species on earth, many new types of organisms perished (became extinct) because they could not adapt successfully to the demands of living, while others survived and multiplied because they could adapt. Throughout evolutionary history there has been constant pressure for the evolution of new, more complex, and adaptation forms, for example, the primates, of which the human is one version (Lazarus, 1976).

The biological concept of adaptation has been borrowed and changed somewhat by the psychologist and renamed "adjustment" to emphasize the individual's struggle to get along or survive in his or her social and physical environments. The trouble with this world is that over the years it has come to signify making oneself fit the demands of the external world, when actually adjustment consist of two kinds of process: fitting oneself into given circumstances and changing the circumstances to fit one's needs (Lazarus, 1976) .

Apart from the main purpose of migration that the higher income Thai workers may make in the foreign countries, Thai workers also have to face some other challenges of adapting in foreign countries this is proved by Molinsky 2007, instead of operating exclusively within the cultural setting in which they were born and raised, individuals must now be capable of functioning appropriately in a wide variety of foreign cultural situations, many of which have different cultural norms for appropriate behavior that may conflict with their core values and beliefs.

Cultural adaptation refers to the process of adjustment that the individual makes in a new environment. Such an individual is referred to as a stranger (Simmel, 1950/1908). For strangers, the familiar is left behind when they enter the new environment. They are separated physically, in space and time, from the past while still connecting to it emotionally and psychologically (Schutz, 1964). The experience of such incongruity between internal and external reality often results in various degrees of culture shock, which is often the beginning of cultural adaptation (Adler, 1975; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Oberg, 1960).

When Thai workers have arrived in a foreign country, they have experienced similarity and differences of culture, religions, language and ways of living, migrant workers can't adapt properly in the living and working environments immediately. However, by process of cultural learning, and meet challenges of cultural adaptation to working, living, language, food, natural environment, they discover and learn new ways to adapt. In that, I am agreed with Kim 1997 that strangers invariably face and must deal with the fact that many of their "beliefs and taken-for-granted assumptions, and routine behaviors are no longer relevant or appropriate" (Kim, 1997) in their everyday social interactions in the new environment. To function and to thrive in the new environment is to adapt to it. The adaptation process, at every stage, then, cultural adaptation involves discovery and learning of new ways (acculturation) and

the simultaneous, partial unlearning of old ways (deculturation; Gudykunst & Kim, 1992). From the research of Thai migrant workers' adaptation condition, I am also agreed with Kealey 1989 and Bennet 1997 that this entails personal changes following the change of environment change in behavioral patterns and in mindsets, to which individuals respond quite differently. Some choose to avoid and postpone the change and adjustment; some meet the challenge head on and start learning right away; and others alternatively avoid and learn.

Thai migrant workers have to follow society norms and rules when they are staying in a foreign culture, this is just as individuals learn the rules for appropriate behavior in a foreign setting, they repeatedly face discrete situations involving cultural differences that test their ability to function successfully in the new setting and their comfort with new cultural rules (Ward & Kennedy, 1999).

Indeed, according to Kim (1998), the term "cross-cultural adaptation" refers to "the process of change over time that takes place within individuals who have completed their primary socialization process in one culture and then come into continuous. Prolonged first-hand contact with a new and unfamiliar environment" Gudykunst and Hammer (1988) define "inter-cultural adaptation" as the "fit between individuals and their environment. Individuals who have adapted to 'foreign' environments have worked out a 'good' fit between themselves and their environments" In order to achieve a goodness of fit between the "strangers" and the "foreign" environments, individuals adapt and changes. It is true that adaptation process is assessed by the degree of effectiveness and the degree of positive adjustment experiences by the sojourners in their continuous, transformation process.

As global interaction and cultural diversity become prominent, cultural competence has received more attention. Taylor (1994) viewed intercultural competence as "an adaptive capacity based on an inclusive and integrative world view which allows participants to effectively accommodate the demands of living in a host culture". Cross, Bazron, Dennis, and Isaacs (1989) defined cultural competence as a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency, or among professionals and enable them to work effectively in cross-cultural situations. I am also agreed with that, because of different adaptive capability of Thai migrant workers, thus, the adaptation level of every Thai worker is different.

Although a variety of internal and external factors influence the adaptation process and outcome (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992), to meet the challenge of cultural adaptation, strangers must undergo acculturation and deculturation to reach a new stage of personal growth, therefore, as Gudykunst and Kim 1992 said that a variety of internal external factors influence the adaptation process and outcome, the adaptation levels of Thai migrant workers are different ; the internal factors might be personal characteristics, personal background, family background, experience of work abroad while the external factors might be policy performed by different companies, society, people, and natural environment.

According to an interviewed with Department of Foreign Labor Affair in Formosa Plastics Group on July 30, 08, when they talked about Thai workers' recruitment, they usually come to Thailand and select workers they want from agencies. As they mentioned, this is the only way which they can assure that workers are well-trained by agencies, and those workers are skilled and higher ability and better to adapt to foreign environments. They have contracted with Thai agencies in Thailand to look for appropriate workers and to perform well in educating and orienting workers in pre-departure training sessions. The managers of Formosa Plastics Group don't choose to go through agencies in Taiwan as they discussed that those agencies in Taiwan usually assemble a large number of Thai workers who have not been trained and well-selected. When those Thai workers arrive to the company, there will be a lot of problems such as low skill and low ability, low competency in adaptation and low language skill, some may strike or dispute with their supervisors.

However, in small companies, they don't do as the big company when they hire foreign labors, they usually go through agencies in Taiwan. Thus, there are a lot of complaints about Thai workers from the managers or owners of small companies and the level of adaptation of Thai migrant workers in small and medium companies is low in average by comparing with large companies.

Since in the large company which has been researched, Thai migrant workers have higher level of adaptation in comparing to small companies in this research, there are some more reasons as follow.

From my observation, about the policies and services offered to the migrant workers for their safety and the rights, duty and responsibility of companies to the international workers in Taiwan and improving systemic protections for foreign

workers in Taiwan, in large company, there are better facilities and policies for workers' safety security. In this big company, apart from their own team of firefighters who stay 24 hours in the company, the company also hires national firefighters from governments for regular checks every six months. In their company site, there are canteens, shuttle bus, clinics, basketball field, football field, male accommodation and female accommodation, parks for workers. In this company, they also set up a department for Foreign Labor Affairs for foreign labors.

However, in small and medium companies, there are just basic and limited facilities offered to the foreign labors. In Taiwan, every company has to follow basic labor law issued by governments. The medium and small companies would just follow the basic labor policies and laws and would not offer any extra policies for foreign workers.

In general, Thai migrant workers who are working in large company got better protection policies offered by company than Thai migrant workers who are working in medium and small companies. Thus, as the result, Thai workers who are working in large company have high level in adaptation than Thai workers who are working in small companies.

5.3 Limitations

There were few problems occurred during this research. First, was the language problem. As there were some problems to communicate with Thai migrant workers in Taiwan, sometimes they didn't trust that this questionnaire was only for academic research, thus, they were not serious in answering questions in questionnaire and did not want to answer their real answer from their minds. For the language problem, sometimes, I couldn't really explain well for them to understand the questionnaire. Therefore, Thai workers would choose any answer they liked without fully understanding and thinking.

Second, as the size of sampling was large, I could not have a chance to answer each of their doubt during they were answer questionnaires. If they did not understand the questions in the questionnaire, some of them would copy from their friends or asked their friends to choose answer for them. Also, Thai workers would preferred to discuss with their friends or colleagues about questions to make a decision together, thus, their answers might not present their own opinions.

Next, because they did the questionnaire in the companies, and sometimes with supervisors around, they would not answer their true answer from their hearts. They were afraid to tell what they think.

Because the time and financial supports were limited, I could not do a really large size of sampling. I could only do according to the minimum sample size of Yamane formula. The samplings were chose through introduced by my friends, family, and relatives. Therefore, the research has limited and controlled the groups of respondents.

Due to the time and financial limitation, for the large companies, there was only one be chosen for research for large companies.

My questionnaire consisted of two parts, demographic questions and problems of adaptation. There were some questions in demographic part which could not do much for the research. As my research was focused on comparing the amount of Thai workers' problems in adaptation between the large and small and medium companies I should put some more questions about government's policies on foreign workers protection. Since there are differences in amount of protection policies that each company has offered, particularly, in comparing with large and small and medium size of companies, I could ask about Thai migrant workers' level of satisfactions with the foreign workers protection policies performed by their companies.

In the part two of my questionnaire on problems of adaptation to the Thai migrant workers, there were some questions which were sensitive to Thai workers to answer such as salary, demands of physiology, marital status and some of companies' regulations, some of them would choose not to answer and became missing data in my research.

There are some missing data in part two of the questionnaires, it might be because respondents did not know how to answer them or they did not know how to do with the questionnaires.

5.4 Recommendations

Since there were some limitations in the research, questionnaire and data collection would need to be improved.

1. It would be better to run a sampling more than 373, the accuracy will be increased. If the research is purposed to focus on the Thai migrant workers in Taiwan,

in order to get better generalization, locations of data collections needed to cover more and wider places around Yun Lin County, such as Chai Yi, Tai Nan, Tai Chung and Chang Hua counties. Certainly, more other kinds of financial aids are needed for future research.

2. For the large company, the research can do more than one companies for better outcome.

3. It will be better if there are some questions about their opinions and satisfaction with the protection policies offered by their companies and the research will be more integrated in my research.

4. To avoid misunderstanding and doubts during answering questionnaires, the research can provide samples of questionnaires to show respondents how to fill the questionnaire in the correct way and also the samples of questionnaires might avoid missing data as the respondents have been guided step by step until they finish all questions.

5. Researchers can prepare questionnaires more than required for back-up, since some questionnaires may be failed or left blank. Also, some respondents may lose or tear their questionnaires, preparing more questionnaires is necessary.

6. Researchers may let respondents to do questionnaire outside companies, the places can be in their accommodation, Thai restaurant, Thai grocery shops where are easy to be recognized. So, respondents can have more times to answer, and without any stress from their supervisors' inspection in companies, they may be willing to answer their real ideas.

7. The researchers also can go around the cities during weekends and national holidays to look for Thai workers, as Thai workers will come out to the public places such as public parks, supermarkets, Thai restaurants and rail way station.

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ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย



APPENDICES

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Appendix 1
Tables of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan from
2000 to 2008



ศูนย์วิจัยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2000

2000	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	326,515	77,830	113	98,161	142,665	7,746
Fishing (seaman)	1,185	518	—	534	9	124
Manufacturing	181,998	12,953	63	60,703	103,724	4,555
food and Beverage	4,683	372	—	1,453	2,664	194
Textile	32,916	2,189	9	6,587	23,333	798
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	3,214	176	—	1,415	1,210	413
Leather and fur making	1,948	140	—	311	1,484	13
Wood and bamboo producing	1,659	643	—	194	814	8
Furniture and decoration goods making	305	25	—	26	254	—
paper and paper made products	3,855	516	—	745	2,545	49
Printing	226	20	—	39	167	—
chemical materials	1,986	198	—	393	1,283	112
Chemical products	1,729	126	—	437	1,111	55
Petrol and coal products	1	—	—	—	1	—
Robber products	4,805	158	—	426	4,044	177
plastics products	11,511	771	2	2,675	7,656	407
Nonmetal products	6,972	518	1	1,238	4,969	246
Metal materials	11,228	956	2	1,722	8,444	104
metal products	18,234	1,224	11	3,643	13,203	153
machines producing and repairing	7,830	586	1	1,488	5,697	58
Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	53,029	3,392	23	33,974	14,208	1,432

Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	—	—	—	—	—	—
Electronic goods and combination	—	—	—	—	—	—
Electric machines and equipments producing and repairing	—	—	—	—	—	—
Transportation making and repairing	7,678	391	—	1,295	5,867	125
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	986	43	—	575	282	86
Other types of manufacturing	7,203	509	14	2,067	4,488	125
Construction	37,001	796	44	2,152	33,576	433
Social service and individual service providing	106,331	63,563	6	34,772	5,356	2,634

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2001

2001	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	304,605	91,132	46	72,779	127,732	12,916
Fishing (seaman)	1,249	548	—	490	14	197
manufacturing	157,055	11,637	34	46,465	91,896	7,023
food and Beverage	4,511	372	—	1,221	2,600	318
Textile	28,026	1,984	1	4,990	19,745	1,306
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	2,575	168	—	965	1,083	359
Leather and fur making	1,613	121	—	255	1,201	36
Wood and bamboo producing	1,285	479	—	147	628	31
Furniture and decoration goods making	214	8	—	34	172	—
paper and paper made products	3,455	474	—	654	2,258	69
Printing	243	9	—	37	197	—
chemical materials	1,892	169	—	351	1,260	112
Chemical products	1,607	125	1	371	1,016	94
Petrol and coal products	—	—	—	—	—	—
Robber products	4,251	134	—	371	3,561	185
plastics products	10,184	751	1	2,056	6,884	492
Nonmetal products	6,141	453	2	967	4,357	362
Metal materials	10,315	948	2	1,234	7,993	138
metal products	16,413	1,142	3	3,011	11,959	298
machines producing and repairing	6,643	396	1	1,030	5,066	150

Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	44,135	3,154	13	25,597	12,687	2,684
Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	301,854	92,212	33	89,428	111,578	29,873
Electronic goods and combination	136,897	10,329	88	49,371	36,192	12,397
Electric machines and equipment producing and repairing	27,361	1,919	2	4,386	15,172	2,953
Transportation making and repairing	6,949	362	—	1,106	5,340	141
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	752	22	—	504	171	55
Other types of manufacturing	5,851	366	10	1,564	3,718	193
Construction	33,367	269	10	949	31,664	475
Social service and individual service providing	112,934	78,678	2	24,875	4,158	5,221

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2002

2002	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	303,684	93,212	35	69,426	111,538	29,473
Fishing (seaman)	2,935	830	—	586	12	1,507
manufacturing	156,697	10,820	28	47,325	86,132	12,392
food and Beverage	4,514	364	—	1,242	2,512	396
Textile	27,505	1,915	2	4,364	18,522	2,702
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	2,399	162	—	780	971	486
Leather and fur making	1,507	97	—	213	1,044	153
Wood and bamboo producing	1,152	338	—	145	620	49
Furniture and decoration goods making	211	6	—	36	166	3
paper and paper made products	3,302	447	—	662	2,086	107
Printing	292	23	—	45	217	7
chemical materials	1,721	166	—	353	1,077	125
Chemical products	1,576	126	1	302	989	158
Petrol and coal products	—	—	—	—	—	—
Robber products	4,148	135	—	411	3,388	214
plastics products	9,708	715	2	1,912	6,180	899
Nonmetal products	5,971	407	2	1,066	3,886	610
Metal materials	9,755	952	1	1,121	7,255	426
metal products	16,470	1,214	3	2,831	11,685	737
machines producing and repairing	6,388	375	—	1,083	4,635	295
Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	47,121	2,684	17	27,849	12,214	4,357

	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	—	—	—	—	—	—
Electronic goods and combination	—	—	—	—	—	—
Electric machines and equipment producing and repairing	—	—	—	—	—	—
Transportation making and repairing	6,856	340	—	1,078	5,184	254
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	852	22	—	571	155	104
Other types of manufacturing	5,249	332	—	1,261	3,346	310
Construction	23,341	72	5	292	22,661	311
Social service and individual service providing	120,711	81,490	2	21,223	2,733	15,263

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2003

2003	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	300,150	56,437	27	81,355	104,728	57,603
Fishing (seaman)	3,396	546	—	597	12	2,241
manufacturing	162,039	7,957	20	51,265	88,094	14,703
food and Beverage	4,680	247	—	1,262	2,735	436
Textile	26,911	1,383	2	4,424	18,207	2,895
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	2,318	133	—	781	896	508
Leather and fur making	1,441	83	—	138	1,058	162
Wood and bamboo producing	906	154	—	135	561	56
Furniture and decoration goods making	218	19	—	26	165	8
paper and paper made products	3,339	365	—	687	2,077	210
Printing	303	22	—	29	247	5
chemical materials	1,716	136	—	357	1,098	125
Chemical products	1,570	110	1	285	1,017	157
Petrol and coal products	—	—	—	—	—	—
Robber products	4,475	91	—	413	3,627	344
plastics products	9,880	519	1	1,919	6,367	1,074
Nonmetal products	6,177	292	2	1,213	3,929	741
Metal materials	9,717	798	1	1,034	7,248	636
metal products	17,175	954	2	2,783	12,419	1,017
machines producing and repairing	7,120	355	1	1,186	5,185	393
Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	—	—	—	—	—	—

Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	14,717	163	—	11,029	2,659	866
Electronic goods and combination	25,360	1,163	1	15,454	5,579	3,163
Electric machines and equipment producing and repairing	11,058	462	9	5,332	4,100	1,155
Transportation making and repairing	7,253	253	—	1,053	5,644	303
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	695	12	—	474	151	58
Other types of manufacturing	5,010	243	—	1,251	3,125	391
Construction	14,117	43	5	146	13,661	262
Social service and Individual service providing	120,711	81,490	2	21,223	2,733	15,263


 ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
 จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2004

2004	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	314,034	27,281	22	91,150	105,281	90,241
Fishing (seaman)	3,089	330	—	692	13	2,054
manufacturing	167,694	5,469	19	55,555	90,743	15,895
food and Beverage	4,787	152	—	1,344	2,763	528
Textile	25,925	913	2	4,379	17,815	2,816
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	2,166	100	—	711	870	485
Leather and fur making	1,454	53	—	116	1,036	249
Wood and bamboo producing	879	76	—	122	619	62
Furniture and decoration goods making	265	14	—	30	211	10
paper and paper made products	3,413	270	—	729	2,094	313
Printing	320	16	—	46	252	6
chemical materials	1,873	109	—	363	1,188	213
Chemical products	1,622	88	1	329	1,075	129
Petrol and coal products	—	—	—	—	—	—
Robber products	4,590	56	—	410	3,711	413
plastics products	10,195	364	1	2,040	6,678	1,106
Nonmetal products	6,298	229	2	1,346	4,064	657
Metal materials	9,959	607	1	1,043	7,637	671
metal products	17,658	660	2	2,918	12,814	1,264
machines producing and repairing	7,324	261	1	1,233	5,368	461
Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	—	—	—	—	—	—

2004

Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	14,117	70	—	10,767	2,419	861
Electronic goods and combination	30,123	796	1	19,470	6,355	3,501
Electric machines and equipment producing and repairing	11,162	342	8	5,176	4,291	1,345
Transportation making and repairing	7,986	151	—	1,154	6,335	346
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	751	5	—	532	194	20
Other types of manufacturing	4,827	137	—	1,297	2,954	439
Construction	12,184	25	1	457	11,192	509
Social service and Individual service providing	131,067	21,457	2	34,446	3,333	71,783

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2005

2005	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	327,396	49,094	13	95,703	98,322	84,185
Fishing (seaman)	3,147	1,038	—	864	7	1,238
manufacturing	166,928	6,107	12	57,896	84,510	18,373
food and Beverage	4,970	153	—	1,484	2,674	659
Textile	23,995	956	2	4,481	15,689	2,856
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	1,748	85	—	507	716	440
Leather and fur making	1,320	52	—	111	897	260
Wood and bamboo producing	872	94	—	132	575	71
Furniture and decoration goods making	257	14	—	37	186	20
paper and paper made products	3,316	270	—	745	1,960	341
Printing	326	19	—	45	253	9
chemical materials	1,867	129	—	386	1,131	221
Chemical products	1,635	92	1	342	1,026	174
Petrol and coal products	—	—	—	—	—	—
Robber products	4,475	64	—	438	3,493	480
plastics products	10,052	415	1	2,020	6,290	1,311
Nonmetal products	6,195	262	1	1,361	3,806	765
Metal materials	9,853	683	1	1,092	7,321	756
metal products	17,895	728	1	3,023	12,301	1,841
machines producing and repairing	7,455	265	1	1,341	5,228	620
Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	—	—	—	—	—	—

Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	12,935	71	—	10,165	1,821	878
Electronic goods and combination	33,635	1,052	1	22,087	6,189	4,306
Electric machines and equipment producing and repairing	10,487	320	3	4,922	3,824	1,415
Transportation making and repairing	8,260	205	—	1,244	6,329	482
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	840	36	—	581	189	34
Other types of manufacturing	4,540	142	—	1,352	2,612	434
Construction	13,306	43	1	1,896	10,748	618
Social service and Individual service providing	144,015	41,906	—	35,047	3,057	63,956


 ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
 จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2006

2006	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	338,755	85,223	12	90,054	92,894	70,536
Fishing (seaman)	3,322	1,773	—	833	13	703
manufacturing	169,903	7,828	11	58,753	80,955	22,336
food and Beverage	5,307	244	—	1,535	2,744	784
Textile	22,454	1,228	2	4,321	13,459	3,439
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	1,459	106	—	434	581	338
Leather and fur making	1,311	73	—	109	842	287
Wood and bamboo producing	858	156	—	121	500	81
Furniture and decoration goods making	300	22	—	39	211	28
paper and paper made products	3,415	289	—	729	2,013	384
Printing	327	27	—	51	212	37
chemical materials	1,876	164	—	386	1,072	254
Chemical products	1,653	139	1	347	937	229
Petrol and coal products	—	—	—	—	—	—
Robber products	4,448	113	—	439	3,331	565
plastics products	10,255	615	1	1,911	5,974	1,748
Nonmetal products	6,174	295	1	1,367	3,602	909
Metal materials	10,434	830	1	1,198	7,404	1,001
metal products	19,533	1,051	1	3,123	12,621	2,730
machines producing and repairing	7,959	346	—	1,417	5,281	915
Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	—	—	—	—	—	—
Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	11,264	96	—	9,013	1,319	836

Electronic goods and combination	37,031	1,065	1	24,334	6,596	5,035
Electric machines and equipment producing and repairing	10,261	374	3	4,707	3,700	1,475
Transportation making and repairing	8,286	336	—	1,242	6,008	700
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	1,010	74	—	636	193	107
Other types of manufacturing	4,288	185	—	1,294	2,355	454
Construction	11,745	45	1	1,361	9,608	730
Social service and Individual service providing	153,785	75,577	—	29,107	2,318	46,767

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2007

2007	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	357,937	115,490	11	86,423	86,948	69,043
Fishing (seaman)	3,786	2,526	—	736	13	511
manufacturing	183,329	11,286	11	60,744	77,936	33,337
food and Beverage	5,697	321	—	1,669	2,555	1,152
Textile	22,816	1,825	2	4,202	11,666	5,118
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	1,551	154	—	405	548	444
Leather and fur making	1,426	58	—	95	867	406
Wood and bamboo producing	936	217	—	128	434	157
Furniture and decoration goods making	401	43	—	38	224	96
paper and paper made products	3,856	394	—	810	1,928	724
Printing	496	55	—	78	192	171
chemical materials	1,986	205	—	422	1,040	319
Chemical products	1,806	195	1	433	862	315
Petrol and coal products	1	—	—	—	1	—
Robber products	4,991	190	—	508	3,216	1,077
plastics products	11,856	927	1	2,034	5,986	2,904
Nonmetal products	6,879	594	1	1,346	3,658	1,280
Metal materials	11,342	1,051	1	1,229	7,445	1,616
metal products	22,909	1,797	1	3,387	12,922	4,795
machines producing and repairing	10,358	603	—	1,767	5,624	2,364
Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	—	—	—	—	—	—
Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	13,213	118	—	10,452	1,232	1,411

Electronic goods and combination	36,001	1,076	1	23,954	6,023	4,947
Electric machines and equipment producing and repairing	10,206	437	3	4,591	3,435	1,739
Transportation making and repairing	9,289	639	—	1,360	5,870	1,420
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	1,143	102	—	660	168	213
Other types of manufacturing	4,170	285	—	1,176	2,040	669
Construction	8,594	59	—	574	7,180	781
Social service and Individual service providing	162,228	101,619	—	24,369	1,819	34,414

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table of the data of Migrant workers in Taiwan in 2008

2008	Total	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand	Vietnam
Total	359,103	118,096	11	85,788	86,308	68,879
Fishing (seaman)	3,785	2,573	—	711	13	488
manufacturing	183,142	11,417	11	60,314	77,631	33,755
food and Beverage	5,750	331	—	1,670	2,547	1,202
Textile	22,607	1,790	2	4,146	11,548	5,118
Outfits, clothing and spinning and weaving	1,561	153	—	409	545	454
Leather and fur making	1,422	56	—	92	862	412
Wood and bamboo producing	945	227	—	130	430	158
Furniture and decoration goods making	414	46	—	38	220	110
paper and paper made products	3,885	410	—	813	1,924	738
Printing	515	58	—	79	200	178
chemical materials	1,999	210	—	420	1,038	331
Chemical products	1,803	196	1	430	855	321
Petrol and coal products	1	—	—	—	1	—
Robber products	5,008	194	—	504	3,217	1,093
plastics products	11,897	949	1	2,020	5,982	2,941
Nonmetal products	6,904	621	1	1,318	3,647	1,317
Metal materials	11,352	1,058	1	1,224	7,440	1,629
metal products	22,968	1,829	1	3,440	12,868	4,824
machines producing and repairing	10,521	624	—	1,787	5,644	2,466
Electronic goods and electronic machines producing	—	—	—	—	—	—
Computer, telecommunication and visual and audio electronic goods	13,332	121	—	10,484	1,258	1,469
Electronic goods and combination	35,655	1,062	1	23,647	6,001	4,944

Electric machines and equipment producing and repairing	10,046	439	3	4,520	3,383	1,700
Transportation making and repairing	9,315	656	—	1,354	5,855	1,450
optics, medical equipments, and clock and watch producing	1,108	99	—	635	166	208
Other types of manufacturing	4,134	288	—	1,154	2,000	692
Construction	8,293	59	—	521	6,864	849
Social service and Individual service providing	163,883	104,047	—	24,242	1,800	33,787



ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Appendix 2.

Questionnaire

Dear Sir or Madam,

Nice to meet you. This is a set of questionnaire which concerning the adaptation and the health issues of Thai contract workers in Taiwan. The purpose of this questionnaire is to explore the general situations of adaptation of Thai workers in Taiwan. Hopefully, this questionnaire could be useful for a further reference in some related fields. In order to find out the exact opinion and expression of every Thai worker, please help to unveil your answers. This research is confidential and your name will not be recorded. Thank you very much for your kindness.

Chulalongkorn University Graduate School
Tzu-Ling Chang

Please tick () your answer

Part1. Personal Bibliography

1. Gender

() Male () Female

2. Age

() Under 20 () 21 -30 () 31- 40
() 41- 50 () 51 up () Others

3. Marital status

() Single () Married () Others specify _____

4. What was your career before working in Taiwan?

() No employed () Workers () Government officers
() Merchants () Farmers () Others specify _____

5. Have you ever worked abroad?

() Yes () No () Not sure

6. Have you ever worked in Taiwan?

() Yes () No () Not sure

7. How long have you been in Taiwan?

() Less than 1 month () 1 -3 months
() 3-6 months () 6-12 months
() 1-2 years () more than 2 years () Others specify _____

8. Who are the bread-winners in your family? (Can be More than one choice)

() Yourself () Grandparents () Parents () Spouse

- () child/ children () Siblings () Relatives
 () Others specify _____

9. Who are the people in your family rely on your income? (Can be More than one choice)

- () You () Grandparents () Parents () Spouse
 () child/ children () Siblings () Relatives
 () Others specify _____

10. How often did you get ill in Thailand?

- () None () Once for three months
 () More than twice for three months
 () More than three times for three months () Others specify _____

11. What is the size of migrant worker's company?

- () Large () Medium () Small

Part 2. Adaptation to working and Living Environments

Please tick the level of difficulty to the adaptations of working environments

Adaptation of Working and living Environmental Differences	Very difficult to Adapt	Difficult to adapt	Average	Easy to adapt	Very Easy to adapt
Communication					
Communicate with local people and neighbors					
Communicate with employers and local colleagues					
Channels to communicate with hometown					
Relationship with people					
Get along with employers					
Get along with new colleagues					
Get along with local colleagues					
Get along with one and the society relationship					

Adaptation of Working and living Environmental Differences	Very difficult to Adapt	Difficult to adapt	Average	Easy to adapt	Very Easy to adapt
Working conditions					
Inappropriate overtime working hours					
Tensions from work					
Tough works					
Overload job					
Tiredness from work					
Dangerous working environment					
Polluted working environment					
Unhygienic working environment					
Long working hours					
Complex processes of mechanical operation					
Salary and fees paid					
Salary					
Fees of overtime work					
Medical Compensation					
Deducted Salary for casualties costs done by workers					
Rule and regulation					
Work regulations					
Inspections and checks					
Regulations of accommodation					

Adaptation of Working and living Environmental Differences	Very difficult to Adapt	Difficult to adapt	Average	Easy to adapt	Very Easy to adapt
Labor welfare and service					
Policy and Labor rights					
Labor Insurance					
Labor welfare from employers					
Day-off					
Living conditions					
Accommodation					
Facilities and services of accommodation					
Weather					
Leisure and entertainment					
Religious practice					
Culture and value differences					
Physiological costs					
Loneliness					
Home sickness					
Physiological demands					
Feeling of Insecurity					
Anxiety and depression					
Economic stress					
Feel Unease when working					
Career crisis					
Condition of health					

Adaptation of Working and living Environmental Differences	Very difficult to Adapt	Difficult to adapt	Average	Easy to adapt	Very Easy to adapt
Diet					
Locals' Eating habits					
Local Food					
Society and Social Services					
Medical treatment					
Public Service and facilities					
Access to social organizations					
Isolation and discrimination					
Sociality					
Safety of society					


 ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
 จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Appendix 3.

แบบสอบถาม

เรียนทุกท่าน

แบบสอบถามนี้ มีเนื้อหาเกี่ยวกับ การปรับตัว และ ปัญหาสุขภาพของแรงงานไทยในไต้หวัน โดยมีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อทราบถึงสถานการณ์โดยทั่วไปในการปรับตัวของแรงงานไทยในไต้หวัน หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่า แบบสอบถามนี้จะเป็นประโยชน์ในการอ้างอิงต่อไป เพื่อให้ได้ความคิดเห็นและความรู้สึกที่แท้จริงของแรงงานไทยทุกท่าน กรุณาตอบคำถามตามความเป็นจริง การวิจัยนี้เป็นความลับ และ ไม่มีการบันทึกชื่อของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม ขอขอบคุณทุกท่านที่สละเวลาตอบแบบสอบถามนี้ค่ะ

วิทยาลัยบัณฑิตศึกษา จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
ชู - หลิง ชาง

กรุณาขีดเครื่องหมาย (√) หน้าคำตอบที่ท่านเลือก

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนตัว

1. เพศ

() ชาย () หญิง

2. อายุ

() น้อยกว่า 20 ปี () 21 - 30 ปี () 31 - 40 ปี
() 41 - 50 ปี () 51 ปีขึ้นไป () อื่นๆ

3. สถานภาพ

() โสด () สมรส () อื่นๆ กรุณาระบุ.....

4. คุญประกอบอาชีพอะไรก่อนมาทำงานที่ไต้หวัน

() ว่างาน () แรงงาน () ข้าราชการ
() คำขาย () ทำการเกษตร () อื่นๆ กรุณาระบุ.....

5. คุณเคยเดินทางไปต่างประเทศหรือไม่

() เคย () ไม่เคย () ไม่แน่ใจ

6. คุณเคยทำงานในไต้หวันมาก่อนหรือไม่

() เคย () ไม่เคย () ไม่แน่ใจ

7. คุณอยู่ในไต้หวันมานานแค่ไหน

() น้อยกว่า 1 เดือน () 1 - 3 เดือน
() 3 - 6 เดือน () 6 - 12 เดือน
() 1 - 2 ปี () มากกว่า 2 ปี () อื่นๆ กรุณาระบุ.....

8. ใครคือผู้รับผิดชอบรายจ่ายในครอบครัว (สามารถตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)

() ตัวคุณเอง () ปู่ ย่า ตา ยาย () พ่อ แม่ ()สามี / ภรรยา
() บุตร () พี่น้อง
() ญาติ () อื่นๆ กรุณาระบุ.....

9. คุณต้องรับผิดชอบรายจ่ายของสมาชิกคนใดในครอบครัวบ้าง

- () ตัวคุณเอง () ปู่ ย่า ตา ยาย () พ่อ แม่ () สามี / ภรรยา
 () บุตร () พี่น้อง
 () ญาติ () อื่นๆ กรุณาระบุ.....

10. คุณป่วยบ่อยแค่ไหน ตอนอยู่ที่ประเทศไทย

- () ไม่เคย () 1 ครั้ง / 3 เดือน () 2 ครั้ง / 3 เดือน
 () มากกว่า 3 ครั้ง / 3 เดือน () อื่นๆ กรุณาระบุ.....

11. What is the size of company?

- () Small () Medium () Large

ส่วนที่ 2 การปรับตัวให้เข้ากับสภาพแวดล้อมในการทำงาน และ การใช้ชีวิต

กรุณาขีดเครื่องหมาย ✓

ในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความยากในการปรับตัวให้เข้ากับสภาพแวดล้อมในการทำงานของคุณ

การปรับตัวให้เข้ากับ ความแตกต่างของ สภาพแวดล้อมใน การทำงาน และการใช้ชีวิต	ปรับตัวไ ด้ยากมาก	ปรับตัวได้ ยาก	ปานกลาง	ปรับตัวได้ ง่าย	ปรับตัวได้ ง่ายมาก
การสื่อสาร					
การสื่อสารกับคนใน ห้องกิน และเพื่อนบ้าน					
การสื่อสารกับนาย จ้างและเพื่อนร่วม งานชาวไต้หวัน					
ช่องทางในการติด ต่อกลับมาประเทศ ไทย					
ความสัมพันธ์กับผู้คน					
การปรับตัวให้เข้ากับ นายจ้าง					
การปรับตัวให้เข้ากับ เพื่อนร่วมงานใหม่					
การปรับตัวให้เข้ากับ เพื่อนร่วมงานชาว ไต้หวัน					
ความสัมพันธ์กับต นเองและสังคม					
การปรับตัวและ					

สภาพการทำงาน					
การทำงานล่วงเวลา ในช่วงเวลาที่ไม่เหมาะ					
ความเครียดจากการทำงาน					
ความยากของงาน					
ปริมาณงานที่มาก					
ความเหนื่อยล้าจากการทำงาน					
สภาพแวดล้อมในการทำงานที่เสียงอันตราย					
สภาพแวดล้อมในการทำงานที่เป็นมลพิษ					
สภาพแวดล้อมในการทำงานที่ไม่ถูกสุขลักษณะ					
ระยะเวลาทำงานที่ยาวนาน					
ระบบปฏิบัติการที่ซับซ้อนของเครื่องจักร					
เงินเดือน และ ค่าจ้าง					
เงินเดือน					
การปรับตัวให้เข้ากับ ความแตกต่างของสภาพแวดล้อม ในการทำงานและการใช้ชีวิต	ปรับตัวได้ยากมาก	ปรับตัวได้ยาก	ปานกลาง	ปรับตัวได้ง่าย	ปรับตัวได้ง่ายมาก
เงินค่าทำงานล่วงเวลา					
เงินค่ารักษาพยาบาล					
การหักเงินเดือนให้บริษัท					
กฎระเบียบและข้อบังคับ					
ข้อบังคับในการทำงาน					
การสำรวจและตรวจจสอบ					

ข้อบังคับในการอยู่อาศัย					
สวัสดิการและบริการ					
นโยบายและสิทธิของแรงงาน					
ประกันสังคม					
สวัสดิการพนักงานจากนายจ้าง					
วันหยุด					
สภาพการใช้ชีวิต					
ที่อยู่อาศัย					
สาธารณูปโภคและการบริการเกี่ยวกับที่อยู่อาศัย					
สภาพอากาศ					
การพักผ่อนหย่อนใจ					
กิจกรรมทางศาสนา					
ความแตกต่างทางวัฒนธรรม					
ผลกระทบทางร่างกาย					
ความเหงา					
ความคิดถึงบ้าน					
ความต้องการทางร่างกาย					
ความรู้สึกไม่มั่นคง					
ความเครียด และกดดัน					
ความเครียดกับสภาพเศรษฐกิจ					

ความรู้สึกไม่สบาย ใจเวลาทำงาน					
ปัญหาในการทำงาน					
ภาวะของสุขภาพ					
อาหาร					
นิสัยการกินของคน ในห้องถิ่น					
อาหารในห้องถิ่น					
สังคมและสวัสดิการทางสังคม					
การรักษาพยาบาล					
บริการสาธารณะ					
การเข้าถึงองค์กรท างสังคม					
การกีดกันและแบ่ง แยกทางสังคม					
การเข้าสังคม					
ความปลอดภัยในสั งคม					


 ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
 จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

VITA

In my educational background, I have got B.A., Business English, Bangkok University International College, in May 2007.

While in **Honors and Awards**, I also earned B.A. Business English First Class Honors Bangkok University International Program, B.A. Business English Outstanding Award in 2005, B.A. Business English Excellent Award in 2006 and B.A. Business English Excellent Award in 2007.

For the **Personal development**, I have got Vocational Training Charitable Trust in Apply Fashion/ Photographic make-up, Vocational Training Charitable Trust in Apply and instruct on make-up for light toned skin **and** Vocational Training Charitable Trust in Apply and instruct on make-up for dark toned skin. I have learned SPSS, HTML and Microsoft office for my personal development.

Since I am a Free-lance Make-up Artist, make-up artist is my recent career.



ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
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